

# CEER-B-104

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SYMPOSIUM PAPERS

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

?THE UPR CENTER FOR ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT RESEARCH

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SYMPOSIUM PAPERS

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

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## THE UPR CENTER FOR ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT RESEARCH

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---Page Break---

---Page Break---

o

### ?TABLE OF CONTENTS

?Opening Remarks: Dr. Juan A. Bonnet, Jt

?Director, UPR Center for Energy And Environment Research 6... 0.62.0 ec ee ceed

Energy From Biomass And Wastes: An Overview: Donald L. Klass.

Biomass Energy Systems: An Overview: Dr, Beverly J.Berger ... .

Herbaceous Land Pints As A Renewable Energy Source For Puerto Rico

?Dr. Alex G. Alexander

?Tropical Forests As A Puerto Rican Energy Source: Dr. Ariel E, Lugo And Dr. Sandra Brown . . .V

Potent Costs and Benefits Of A Puerto Rican Cane Industry Oriented To Fuel And Alcohol

Dr. Gary D. Martin... . a

The Decline Of Sugar Refining In Puerto Rico: History And Present Outlook

?Mariano A. Romaguera

?The Energy Cane Concept For Molasses And Boiler Fuel: Alex G, Alexander

Soil And Water Management Concepts For Energy Cane Plantations: William F. Allison.

Hybridization OF Tropical Grasses For Fuel And Alcohol: Tebting Chu

Energy Balances For Fuel And Alcohol From Puerto Rico Energy Cane: Lewis Smith

Fuels And Feedstocks From Tropical Biomass: Chairman, Julio Negroni

Memorandum: Miguel Angel Garcia Méndez.

Fossil Fuels Outlook For Puerto Rico's Private Industrial Sector: Carlos Yepes

Combustion Systems For Bagasse And Fossil/Bagasse Fuel Blends: Eugene S. Yankura ..

Centrals Lafayette And Aguirre As Potential Sites For Energy Cogeneration: Roberto Delucea XVI

Biomass Fuels Dehydration With Industrial Waste Heat: W. O. Young xvi

Utilization Of Biomass/Oil Fuel Blends In Fertilizer Production

Floyd Hasselris And Alphonse Bellac . .

Proper Analysis Of Fossil, Fossil/Biomass, And Biomass Boiler Fuel Options

?Jorge M. El Koury =. -

?The Molasses Crisis In The Puerto Rico Rum Industry: Dr. George Samuels...

Cellulose Conversion To Fermentation Feedstocks: An Overview: Henry R. Bungay... . . XXI

?Alcohol Fuels From Sugarcane In Brazil: J. R. Moreira And J. Goldemberg eee XX

?Gasohol Outlook For U.S. Sugar And Grain Crops: D. M Jenkins And E, §, Lipinsky . . . . XXIII

?Alcohol Research And Development Outlook For Puerto Rico: Amador Belardo. «XXIV

Environmental Implcations Of Biomass And Other Alternative Fuss Usage In Puerto Rico

Douglas P. Reagan, Ph.D. .

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

° ?OPENING REMARKS

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Symposium on

Alternative Domestic Energy Systems for Puerto Rico

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0 Dr. Juan A. Bonnet, Jr

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

?OPENING REMARKS:

FUELS AND FOODSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

?Symposium on Alternative Domestic Energy Systems for Puerto Rico

By

Dr. Juan A. Bonnet, Jr

Director CER

?November 24, 1980

On behalf of the Center for Energy and Environment Research and our cosponsors, the Chemical, the Electrical, and the Mechanical Institutes of the Puerto Rico Professional Society of Engineers and Surveyors, I extend a warm welcome to ll of you. Good morning to all participants

and to our visitng sientists, Following the order inthe program, our invited speakers are:

~ Dr, Donald Kiass from the Institute of Gas Technology, Chicago, Illinois,

= Dr. Beverly J. Berger, Acting Director, DOE Division of Biomass Energy Systems,  
Washington, D.C,

? Mr. W. O. Young, Stern-Roger Engineering Corp., Denver, Colorado,

~ Mr, F, Hasseris, Combustion Equipment Associates, Inc, New York,

= Dr, George Samuels, Agricultural Research Associates, Winter Park, Florida,

~ Dr. H. Bungay, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, New York,

= Dr. J. R, Moreira, Institute of Physics, University of Sto Paulo, Brazil,

~ Dr, David Jenkins, Battelle-Columbus Division, Columbus, Ohio.

?We are delighted to have you with us in this important meeting

First of all, I must ask you to excuse Dr, Ismael Almodóvar, President of the University of  
Puerto Rico, for not being with us today as he had hoped to be. As many of you know, Dr.

[Almodévar was the first director of this Center and one of the pioneers in promoting biomass  
research in Puerto Rico. Urgent business has taken him away from us today. However, allow me to  
welcome you on his behalf.

It is our pleasure to welcome you and to benefit from this discussion of a fundamental and urgent problem affecting the welfare of Puerto Rico and of all mankind.

In the case of Puerto

+ where we are still almost entirely dependent on imported petroleum as our basic energy source, the escalation of petroleum prices has nearly halted our

---Page Break---

2

previously successful efforts to expand our economy and improve the level of living of the people of Puerto Rico.

Prior to 1973 the structure of the Puerto Rican economy and of its energy sector was based on expectations of continued availability of cheap imported petroleum. These expectations came to naught with the quadrupling of oil prices by OPEC countries in December of 1973. The repercussions in our Island economy were severe: double digit inflation,

the most severe recession in

the post-World War II period and a heavy burden on our balance of payments. The competitive position of Puerto Rican manufacturing suffered severely, particularly the petrochemical and refining industries,



The increase in the price of imported oil has continued. Between January 1974 and December 1978 the price of petroleum increased twenty percent. During 1979 the revolution in Iran and a consequent drop in Iranian production of oil permitted OPEC to catch up in a turbulent and rising market, causing a doubling of crude oil prices. The economic crisis of our energy sector continues unabated with crude oil prices exceeding thirty dollars a barrel in 1980. This crisis is exacerbated by the continued turbulence and uncertainty of world oil markets which are heavily affected by the political instability of the Middle East,

The crisis of increasing oil prices poses a challenge to Puerto Rico. The vital task for all of us is to achieve greater energy independence through the conservation of energy and the development of alternative energy sources,

None of us here this morning can avoid this challenge. No man of science can be indifferent to the problem,

We, as scientists and engineers, are in the business of discovering and developing new technological options. In so doing, we create the opportunity to select from among a variety of options; such as biomass, in the continuing search for technologies to serve the public good and to minimize the negative impacts of the high cost of energy. Seminars such as this one are needed in order to begin to appraise the short and the long-term impacts of the biomass option.

At the request of the Government of Puerto Rico, a major one-year study was conducted by

the National Academy of Sciences to determine Puerto Rico's options for alternative energy

---Page Break---

o

3

conformity with the National Academy of Sciences? recommendations for biomass research in Puerto Rico, Among their recommendations, we quote the following:

?Of all the alternatives discussed, biomass cropping, based on the present sugarcane industry, ?as probably the largest potential It could produce a significant fraction of the Island's electricity, with bagasse as fuel, by the year 2000

?All in all, energy cropping may in the intermediate term be for Puerto Rico the most ?important renewable energy source. Given vigorous development, it might provide 10 percent or ?more of the Island's electricity by the year 2000. Ethanol produced as a coproduct could eliminate ?the Puerto Rican rum industry's dependence on imported molasses and also supplement gasoline supplies.?

While we are in general agreement with this particular NAS recommendation, we welcome

your observations and comment. Moreover, it is obvious that the research and analytical tools available to us in the basic and applied sciences cannot be effectively used without appropriate funding and seed money. In this matter it is clear that meeting Puerto Rico's needs for alternative energy sources can make a substantial contribution to the solution of the similar problem faced by many other oil-dependent areas of the world. Again, I quote the NAS report:

Puerto Rico, in dealing with its own energy problems, should grasp its opportunity to become an international energy laboratory, seeking and testing solutions especially appropriate to the oil-dependent tropical and subtropical regions of the world. The Island's geographical position and its established energy research and development facilities enhance this potential, which should be called to the attention of agencies and institutions with investments to make in accelerating development overseas?

Hopefully this Symposium will further develop and clarify the state of the art in different aspects of biomass utilization as an alternative energy resource. The Center for Energy and Environment Research is receptive to your ideas and will endorse and support any promising venues towards the mitigation or solution of the energy crisis which all of us are facing.

Welcome again on behalf of the University of Puerto Rico and its Center for Energy and Environment Research,

Thank you very much,

---Page Break---

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ENERGY FROM BIOMASS AND WASTES: AN OVERVIEW

Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

THE INSTITUTE OF GAS TECHNOLOGY

Chicago, Illinois

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

## ?Table of Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

FUNDING.

BIOMASS PRODUCTION

1. Tree Growth

2. NonWoody Herbaceous Plants

3. Aquatic Biomass

CONVERSION

?Combustion

Gasification

Anaerobic Digestion

?Thermochemical Gasification

LIQUEFACTION

Beye

Fermentation

Direct Thermochemical

Indirect Liquefaction

f

REFERENCES

TABLES,

10

10

B

4

4

16

"7

18

---Page Break---

ENERGY FROM BIOMASS AND WASTES: AN OVERVIEW

Donald L. Klassl/

Institute Of Gas Technology

(Chicago, Iinois

ABSTRACT

ENERGY from biomass and wastes already contributes about 850,000 barrels oil equivalent per day to US. primary consumption. Recent changes in Federal funding of energy projects are expected to stimulate commercialization of additional biomass energy systems, particularly those processes that utilize biomass and wastes for the manufacture of ethanol fuel. However, although research and development on biomass production and conversion is progressing at a rapid rate, commercialization of non-ethanol and non-combustion based processes has been minimal. Commercial plants in the United States currently include one municipal solid waste gasification plant, one manure gasification plant which was recently shut down, and eight landfill methane recovery systems,

A Present address Institute of Gas Technology, 3424 South State Street, ITT Center, Chicago,

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## ENERGY FROM BIOMASS AND WASTES: AN OVERVIEW

### INTRODUCTION

FEW REALIZE that the present contribution of energy from biomass and wastes to US. primary energy consumption is equivalent to about 850,000 bbl of oil/day (1.8 quads/yr) or slightly more than 2% of total consumption. Recent projections by the Office of Technology Assessment indicate that by the year 2000, the biomass energy contribution could be as high as 12 to 17 quads, which is about 11 to 15% of projected energy consumption, assuming that it will be about

95 quads (excluding biomass) in 1995.<sup>3</sup> Thus, energy from biomass and wastes is already a major commercial energy resource for the United States and is expected to exhibit substantial growth. Recent research and commercialization efforts in the United States are briefly reviewed in this paper to provide an overview of the state of the technology. Because of the multitude of projects now in progress, this review is necessarily selective and all projects are not discussed, but each major

category of activities is summarized by using certain projects as examples.

## FUNDING

Over the last several months, changes in the Federal funding of energy projects have occurred that directly affect biomass energy development. The Energy Security Act (Public Law 96-294), which created the Synthetic Fuels Corporation (SFC), was signed into law on June 30, 1980 by President Carter. The government-backed SEC may commit up to \$88 billion by 1992 to achieve production goals of 100,000 barrels of oil or its equivalent per day by 1987 and 2 million bbl/day by 1992. Title II of this act is called the Biomass Energy and Alcohol Fuels Act of 1980. On October 1, 1980, it made available for biomass energy projects \$1.27 billion for financial assistance; \$15 million for demonstration, educational, and technical assistance; and \$12 million for research and development. This latter figure is independent of the U.S. Department of Energy research programs on biomass and wastes which are summarized in Table 1 and 2.

The \$1.27 billion in Title II for biomass energy is allocated over a two-year period beginning (October 1, 1980) as follows: \$525 million to the USDA for loans, loan guarantees, price guarantees and purchase agreements for biomass:



?energy plants that have an annual production capacity less

---Page Break---

2

than 15 million gallons of alcohol or its equivalent; \$525 million to the USDOE for loan guarantees,

rice gu

capacity of at least 5 million gallons of alcohol or its equivalent; and \$220 million to USDOE for

aptees, and purchase agreements for biomass energy plants that have an annual production

Yoans, loan guarantees, price support loans, and price guarantees for municipal waste-to-energy projects

Another source of funding for biomass energy projects is the Alternative Fuels Production

Program created in November 1979 by Public Law 96-126. Ninety-nine fesi

cooperative agreement awards totaling about \$200 milion were made by USDOE out of 971

roposils on July 9, 1980, Tables 3 and 4 present some of the details ofthe awards that were made

on projects concerned with biomass and wastes. Interestingly, about onethied ofthe awards made

on 4 dollar bass were on biomass and waste projects which comprised about tworthirds ofthe total

lity studies and 11

number of awards

Stil another source of funding for which biomass energy projects are eligible is the Supplemental Appropriations and Recision Act of 1980 (Public Law 96304) which President Carter signed in July 1980, This act provides \$100 million for feasibility studies and \$200 million for coopemtive agreements. The awards are expected to be announced near the end of this year. Tiree billion dollars are also provided by Public Law 93-304 to stimulate domestic commercial ?production of altemative fuels via purchase commitments, price guarantees, and loan guarantees, ?Overall, Federal support of biomass energy projets has increased substantially and is expected to have great impact on commerciaization,

## BIOMASS PRODUCTION

?Much of the research currently in progress on the selection and growth of suitable biomass species for energy applications is limited to laboratory studies and small-scale test plots. No commercial fully-integrated biomass production, harvesting, and conversion systems of any significant scele im which biomass is grown specifically for energy applications have yet been placed in operation in the United States, and most of the test programs on biomass growth for energy have only recently been started. This is an important factor to keep in mind because low-cost biomass is needed to make biomass fuels competitive. For example, at a cost of \$15.00/dry ton of biomass,

---Page Break---

3

the energy cost contained in the biomass is about \$1.00 to \$1.25 per million BTU,

### Tree Growth

Intensively managed growth and shortrotation tree production methods are being evaluated for energy applications in all sections of the country and it is expected that valuable data will be generated for the selection of suitable high-yield species as these tests progress. Some of the species

of particular interest are red alder, black cottonwood, Douglas fir, and ponderosa pine in the Northwest; Eucalyptus, mesquite, Chinese tallow, and the leucaena in the West and Southwest; sycamore, eastern cottonwood, black locust, catalpa, sugar maple, poplar, and conifers in the Midwest; sycamore, sweetgum, European black alder, and loblolly pine in the Southwest; and sycamore, poplar, and sugar maple in the East. Generally, tree growth on test plots is studied in terms of soil type and the requirements for planting density, irrigation, fertilization, weed control,

disease control, and nutrients Harvesting methods are also important, especially in the case of coppice growth for short-rotation hardwoods. Although tree species native to the region are usually included in the experimental design, non-native and hybrid species are often tested too. Considering the large number of new plots now under test, it is estimated that the results will start to be publicized in volume in the early 1980's. Real cost data for short-rotation hardwoods, the preferred tree production method for energy applications, should result from this work.

### Non-Woody Herbaceous Plants

Considerable work is in progress to screen and select non-woody herbaceous plants as candidates for biomass energy farms. Some of the projects are aimed at the screening of plants that are mainly unexploited in the continental United States; others are concentrating on cash crops such as sugarcane and sweet sorghum; and still others emphasize tropical grasses. A comprehensive

screening program generated a list of 280 promising species from which up to 20 species were recommended for field experiments in each region of the country. The four highest yielding species recommended for further tests in each region are listed in Table 5.7. Since many of the plants in the original list of 280 species had not been grown for commercial use, the production costs were estimated as shown in Table 6 for the various classes of herbaceous species and used in conjunction.

with yield and other data to develop the recommendations in Table S.

Based on the results of small-scale test plots using cultivars and higher-than-normal planting densities (Table 7), sweet sorghum has apparently been selected as a prime energy candidate for expanded field tests in North Dakota, Kansas, Nebraska, Illinois, Iowa, and Ohio.<sup>7</sup> Sweet sorghum and its sugar yields were increased by 40 to 100% by narrow interrow spacing. For example, when the rows were 1.5 ft. apart instead of 3 ft. apart, the yields were nearly doubled in the Bell Glade, Florida test plot.

In greenhouse, small-plot, and field-scale tests conducted to screen tropical grasses, three categories have emerged based on the t

required to maximize dry matter yields: short-rotation

species (2-3 months), intermediate-rotation species (4-6 months), and long-rotation species (12-18 months).<sup>7</sup> A sorghum-sudan grass hybrid (Sordan 70A), the forage grass napier grass and sugarcane

were outstanding candidates in these categories, respectively. Minimum tillage grasses that produce moderate yields with little attention were wild Saccharum clones and Johnson grass in a fourth.

category. The maximum yield observed to date is 27.5 dry ton/ac-yr for sugarcane propagated at narrow row centers over a time of 12 months. The estimated maximum yield is of the order of 50 dry ton/ac-yr using new generations of sugarcane and the propagation of ratoon (regrowth) plants

for several years after a given crop is planted.

Overall, the work in progress on the evaluation of non-woody herbaceous biomass shows that a broad range of plant species may ultimately be prime energy crops.

### Aquatic Biomass

Aquatic biomass, particularly micro- and macroalgae are more efficient at converting incident solar radiation to chemical energy than most other biomass species. For this reason and the fact that

most aquatic plants do not have commercial markets, experimental work has been performed for the last several years to evaluate several species as energy crops. Recent reports for freshwater macrophytes grown in cultural units show yields for common duckweed, water hyacinth, and *Hydrilla verticillata* of 4.4, 35.3 and 6.1 dry ton/acre. For the first time, a single clone of the red seaweed, *Gracilaria tikvahiae*, was grown continuously in controlled culture over 1 year without replacement to give projected dry matter yields of 31 ton/acre.<sup>7</sup> Large-scale experiments will be

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carried out with hyacinth and the red seaweed in units up to one quarter acre in size to demonstrate mass culture systems and to permit realistic cost-benefit analyses.

In related experimental work, it has been shown that freshwater green algae such as *Chlorella vulgaris* can be grown on bicarbonate carbon source.<sup>7</sup> This interesting observation suggests that the method might be used to maximize algal yield because, normally, the transport of carbon dioxide from the atmosphere cannot keep pace with algal assimilation of carbon dioxide. The experimental results support the conclusion that for both freshwater and marine microalgae, bicarbonate is a suitable carbon source provided the pH is controlled; carbon utilization under these conditions is virtually 100%.

[In studies on marine biomass production, most of the work has been concentrated on the giant brown kelp, *Macrocystis pyrifera*. One of the key results to-date is that nutrient-rich seawater from more than 1,000 ft. deep is superior to enriched surface water in supporting kelp growth. A larger scale test farm to confirm this with upwelled deep water was constructed off the Southern California Coast late in November and early December 1978, but because of unanticipated operational difficulties, the program has been delayed. An interesting observation made after loss of the protective curtain and 103 adult transplants on the farm due to storms was that after strong upwelling occurred there locally in the spring of 1979, juvenile plants began to develop on the solid structures of the test farm from spores liberated by the adult transplants. This growth is now being monitored,

CONVERSION

## Combustion

Direct wood burning for the production of steam and electric power by the forest products industries and for heating in residential wood stoves provided 1.8 quads of energy in the private sector in 1977.<sup>7</sup> Some of the recently announced plants in the final design, construction, or operating stages include a \$13 million wood-waste cogeneration plant to generate 4 MW of electric power and 68,000 lb/hr of steam at an overall thermal efficiency of 64-65% in Anderson, California by the Simpson Paper Company.<sup>8</sup> This plant is designed around a wood-waste fueled combustor

---Page Break---

6

and an indirectly fired turbine, is expected to have a 3-year payback, and is projected to save \$1.6 million to \$2.2 million per year in fuel at today's prices,

Larger wood-powered systems in the 40 to 50 MW range, the designs for which were recently completed, seem to have been placed on hold. One of the largest plants, a SOMW cogeneration plant for steam and electric production for Westbrook, Maine, has been designed, but the project has not as yet been continued.<sup>9</sup> In this proposed plant, wood harvested over a 50-mile radius of the site will supply the fuel for the plant at the rate of 1,000 oven dry tons equivalent/day. Under average conditions, about 258,000 lb/hr of steam and 20 MW of power will be sold. The total investment and operating costs for the plant are estimated to be \$64.5 million and \$12.8 million/yr (wood at about \$25.00/ton).

Raw MSW and RDF combustion is the second major source of energy generation by combustion. Commercial resource recovery coupled with energy recovery continues to grow as a



substitute for waste disposal only, although not without problems. The 200-ton/day Ames, Iowa Plant for recovery and sale of iron, aluminum, and RDF, one of the first commercial plants of its type, is still operating after going on stream in 1975. In contrast, the \$25 million, 1,000-ton/day, Chicago, Illinois plant for recovery of ferrous metal and RDF for co-combustion with coal has only operated in spurts for a variety of reasons since it was dedicated in 1976.<sup>7</sup> Also, the \$43 million, 1,500-ton/day plant in Saugus, Massachusetts for direct combustion of raw MSW and steam production processed its one millionth ton of refuse in March 1979; the plant was started in October 1976. This is perhaps the best record of any of the plants in operation in the U.S.A.

Currently, there are 23 operating plants in the United States for the production of steam or electric power via combustion of MSW or RDF: 12 more plants are under construction, and 21 are in the advanced planning stage. The total design capacities for processing refuse in these plants is 15,163 ton/day (operating), 13,146 ton/day (under construction), and 23,506 ton/day (advanced planning). The corresponding equivalent barrels of oil assuming 100% utilization of the refuse heating value and a heating value of  $9 \times 10^6$  Btu/ton of refuse, are 23,528, 20,399 and 35,770 bbl/day, or a total of about 80,000 bbl/day. This does not include the energy conserved by recycling the iron, aluminum, and glass because of the displacement of virgin materials. Obviously, it would be quite beneficial to operate these refuse processing plants near their design capacities.

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## Gasification

Research, development, and demonstration activities on the production of low, medium, and high-Btu gas ( 500, 500-900, and 900 Btu/SCF) by anaerobic digestion and thermochemical

Gasification processes have continued to advance, especially at the PDU and pilot scales.

## Commercial

Utilization of the resulting information is, however, proceeding at a slow rate in the United States.

Small-scale gasification units and package systems are commercially available and have been placed

in operation for some processes, but few large-scale systems are in the construction or operational stages. For anaerobic digestion, small-scale farm digesters for manure and methane-recovery systems

from landfills comprise the thrust of new commercialization ventures. For thermochemical

gasification, most of the new commercialization ventures are concentrated on small-scale air-blown gasifiers for production of low-Btu gas. Only one large-scale pyrolysis plant is currently in operation in the U.S.A. for low-Btu gas manufacture. The highlights of these efforts are presented in this section,

## Anaerobic Digestion

Basic research on the anaerobic digestion of biomass has provided better understanding of the mechanism and kinetics of the biological gasification process, but the improvements in digestion efficiency in terms of methane yield and volatile solids reduction have been slow to evolve from this knowledge. The plateau of about 50% volatile solids destruction efficiency

and 50-60% energy

recovery efficiencies pointed out previously,<sup>8</sup> seems to be holding. Typical methane yields and volatile solids reductions observed under standard high-rate conditions are shown in Table 8.7

Longer detention times will increase the values of these parameters, such as a methane yield of 4.79 SCF VS added and a volatile solids destruction efficiency of 3.9% for giant brown kelp at a detention time of 18 days instead of the corresponding values of 3.87 and 43.7 at 12 days under standard high rate conditions.<sup>7</sup> However, improvements might be desirable in the reverse direction; i.e., at shorter detention times

Digestion system configurations that have shown advantages over standard high-rate digestion are two-phase, fed-batch, and plug-flow digestion." Considerable laboratory work is in progress to

---Page Break---

8

to evaluate feedstock suitability and to develop pre- and post-digestion treatments that improve biodegradability. Innovative designs in which thermochemical and biological gasification are combined and in which anaerobic digestion is used to generate in-plant fuel from fermentation alcohol residuals are under development. Demonstration projects are in progress with waste feeds, but none has yet been started with biomass. The only commercial large-scale digestion plant for methane production in the U.S.A. uses cattle manure feedstock, but it has been shut down because of operating difficulties. 10

Methane recovery from sanitary landfills in the form of medium- or high-Btu gas is now commercial technology as shown by the listing of eight commercial systems in Table 9. Several new methane recovery systems, notably those in New York and Chicago, are expected to be operated on commercial basis in the near future,

## ?Thermochemical Gasification

Extensive research and pilot studies are in progress to develop thermal processes for biomass conversion to fuel gas and synthesis gas. Basic studies of the effects of various catalysts and ?operating conditions are underway in the laboratory and PDU scale on steam and steam-air gasification, and on hydromethanation. Other work on the rapid pyrolysis of biomass is in the laboratory and PDU scale,

?The largest commercial pyrolysis plant in the United States now in operation with MSW is located in Baltimore, Maryland.? This \$24 million plant was originally based on Monsanto's Landgard design.? It is sized to process 1,000 ton/day of shredded MSW in a refractory-lined inclined rotary kiln. A portion of the waste is combusted with air to supply the heat needed for pyrolysis. The pyrolysis gas has a heating value of about 120 Btu/SCF and is combusted onsite to ?generate steam. When the plant was first started in January 1975, considerable operating and

emissions problems were encountered. The City of Baltimore took over the plant, made several ?major modifications, and returned it to service in May 1979.7 About 520 ton/day of refuse is now processed in the plant, and the steam is sold to generate revenues of about \$120,000-\$140,000/mth.? Further plant modifications are in progress to permit operation at higher ?through-put rates,

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Commercialization of other developed pyrolysis processes such as the Andco-Torrax slagging process for nonsorted MSW, and the Purox process which uses partial oxidation with oxygen in a three-zoned shaft furnace for pyrolysis of coarsely shredded MSW under slagging conditions, have still not occurred in the United States.<sup>78</sup> Several large-scale Andco-Torrax plants have been placed in operation in Europe, and construction of a 100-ton/day plant is underway at Disney World.

Recent steam gasification studies with cellulose have shown that gas-phase steam cracking reactions dominate the chemistry of biomass gasification.<sup>7</sup> High heating rates and short residence times with gas phase temperatures exceeding 650°C were found to produce hydrocarbon-rich gases containing commercially interesting amounts of ethylene and propylene.

Studies on the gasification of wood in the presence of steam and hydrogen showed that steam gasification proceeds at a much higher rate than hydrogasification.<sup>7</sup> Carbon conversions 30 to 40% higher than those achieved with hydrogen can be achieved with steam at comparable residence times. It was concluded that steam/wood weight ratios up to 0.45 promote increased carbon conversion but have little effect on methane concentration. Other recent work shows that

Potassium carbonate-catalyzed steam gasification of wood in combination with commercial

?methanation and cracking catalysts can yield gas mixtures containing essentially equal volumes of ?methane and carbon dioxide at steam/wood weight ratios below 0.25 and atmospheric pressure and temperatures near 700°C.? Other catalyst combinations were found to produce high yields of product gas containing about 2:1 hydrogen/carbon monoxide and little methane at steam/wood ?weight ratios of about 0.75 and temperature of 750°C. Typical results for both of these studies are shown in Table 10. These reports establish that the steam/wood ratios and the catalysts used can have major effects on the product gas compositions. The composition of the product gas can also be ?manipulated depending on whether a synthesis gas or a fuel gas is desired.

?Preliminary studies at [GT on the hydroconversion of biomass have led to a conceptual process called RENUGAS for producing SNG.? In this process, biomass is converted in a single-stage, fluidized-bed, noncatalytic reactor operating at about 300 psig, 800°C, and residence times of a few ?minutes with steam-oxygen injection. About 95% carbon conversion is anticipated to produce a ?medium-Btu gas which is subjected to the shift reaction, scrubbing, and methanation to form SNG. ?The cold gas thermal efficiencies are estimated to be about 60%.

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Research on the development of liquefaction methods for biomass and wastes has increased in recent months. The effort is still small compared to gasification research, but several potentially practical

liquefaction methods have been reported. There are essentially four basic types of liquefaction processes: fermentation, direct thermochemical, indirect thermochemical, and natural. Highlights of on-going work in each of these categories are summarized in this section,

#### Fermentation?

Much work is in progress on the development of suitable fermentation conditions and on organism selection for the production of carboxylic acids, alcohol, glycols, and ketones. Some of the work is concentrated on chemical production while other projects are directed to fuel applications. The greatest effort is devoted to improved ethanol processes because of the intense interest in gasohol\*. Projects are also underway to develop a total biomass utilization scheme in which wood chips are extracted with hot aqueous butanol to yield an enzyme degradable cellulose fraction for ethanol production, partially degraded hemicellulose fraction for butanol production, 4-butanobignin extract for use as fuel and a polymer-grade lignin fraction; to study the conversion of pentoses from corn stalk-derived hemicellulose hydrolysate to butanediol, ketones, and other products; and to produce carboxylic acids from aquatic and terrestrial biomass by acid-phase anaerobic digestion, after which the acids are subjected to Kolbe electrolysis to form alpha

hydrocarbons or ketones on pyrolysis of the calcium salts of the acids. These projects are in the laboratory stage of development.

## Direct Thermochemical

?There has been a dearth of information on hydroliquefaction of biomass, but one report has appeared on the direct hydrogenation of wood chips by treatment at 100 atm and 340-350°C with water and Raney nickel catalyst. The wood is completely converted to an oily liquid, methane, and other hydrocarbon gases. Batch reaction times of 4 hrs. give oil yields of about 35 wt % of the feed;

\* Ethanol is discussed in more detail in a separate section,

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the oil contains about 12 wt % oxygen and has a heating value of about 16,000 Btu/lb. Distillation yields a major fraction that boils in the same range as diesel fuel and is completely miscible with it.

A modification of the PERC process has been tested under continuous liquefaction conditions in DOE's Albany, Oregon pilot plant using Douglas fir wood chips. The original PERC process consisted of a sequence of steps; drying and grinding the wood chips to a fine powder, mixing the powder with recycled oil (30% powder to 60% oil), blending the mixture with water containing sodium carbonate, and treatment of the slurry with synthesis gas at about 4,000 psig and 700°F. The Lawrence Berkeley modification consists of partially hydrolyzing the wood in slightly acid water and treating the water slurry containing dissolved sugars and about 20% solids with synthesis gas and sodium carbonate at 4,000 psig and 700°F on a once-through basis. The resulting oil product yield is about 1 bbl/900 lb of chips and is roughly equivalent to No. 6 grade boiler fuel. It contains about 50% phenolics, 18% high boiling alcohols, 18% hydrocarbons, and 10% water. An economic analysis of the process by SRI and Rust Engineering Co, indicates the oil can be manufactured for about \$6/10<sup>6</sup> Btu. Further tests are in progress. It should be pointed out that this type of product, although referred to as an oil in the literature, cannot be upgraded to refined products by conventional refinery practice,

Pyrolysis of biomass and wastes produces gaseous, liquid, and char products. Short residence time pyrolysis, sometimes referred to as flash pyrolysis, affords higher liquid yields. The largest plant in the United States for the purpose of producing liquid fuels (oil) by flash pyrolysis is the 200-ton/day system in El Cajon, California. This plant uses shredding and air classification of MSW to produce a fluffy material for pyrolysis, magnetic separation of ferrous metals, screening and froth flotation to recover a glass cullet, and an aluminum magnet for aluminum recovery. The pyrolysis section of the plant originally involved high-speed transport of a blend of recycled char and organic material through the reactor. The plant was placed in operation in May 1977; several

?thousand gallons of oil were produced. However, because of operating problems in the pyrolysis section of the plant and the cyclone separation units downstream of the pyrolysis reactor, the plant was shut down in June 1978 and mothballed in September 1978. Currently, Occidental Research Corporation is negotiating with San Diego County to continue to develop the pyrolysis design. As in the case of the PERC process, the oil product was proposed as a replacement for No. 6 fuel oil. The

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oil could not be refined by conventional means because of its relatively high oxygen and nitrogen contents,

Work just getting underway based on IGT's HYFLEX process ut

atmosphere at moderate to high pressures and temperatures in the 700°C range for only a few seconds to convert biomass to hydrocarbons.<sup>10</sup> Short residence times promote maximum liquid yields, and i

?product produced by these hydrolysis conditions should have a higher intrinsic val

lheavy flash pyrolysis products described above.

es a hydrogen

believed that the product can be converted to a gasoline blending stock. The

?than the

Indirect Liquefaction?

?The conversion of synthesis gas to paraffins and olefins via Fischer-Tropsch processes and to methanol is established chemistry. Synthesis gas from biomass provides the same product spectrum,

?The integrated production of synthesis gas by pyrolysis, catalytic conversion to hydrocarbons and low molecular weight alcohols, and isomerization of the hydrocarbons to gasoline has now been developed in PDU equipment operated continuously at feed rates of about 25 lb/hr. Feedstocks under investigation include RDF and agricultural residues. The pyrolysis system consists of a dual fluidized bed unit (pyrolyzer and combustor, Typical feedstock-to-gas yields are 75.85; reactor temperatures of 500-1,000°C and pressures of 0.5 psig have been studied. Subsequent conversion to

liquids in a fluidized bed catalytic reactor gave liquid yield of about 20-100 gal/ton of pyrolysis feed, Passage of the hydrocarbon product through a fixed-bed catalytic reactor gave 50 vol yields of liquid product per volume of liquid feed; the product at 300-500°C and 400-600 psig has an 80-100 octane rating. It was concluded from this work that liquid fuels equivalent to commercial products can be produced by the use of biomass feeds

Another indirect route to liquid fuels from biomass involves the coupling of pyrolysis of

?organic wastes to yield gases high in light olefins, compression and purification of the olefins, and polymerization to yield gasoline. The conditions found to be optimum for RDF were about 750°C with steam dilution for pyrolysis times of less than one second. Slightly more than half of the energy contained in the waste can be recovered in the gasoline precursors. Using temperatures of about 400-500°C and pressures of about 700-1,000 psig, the purified olefin mixture is polymerized

---Page Break---

13

to yield product 90% of which boils in the gasoline range. The estimated overall yield is about 1.8 gal/ton RDF (MAF) at a 50% efficiency in energy recovery. Preliminary economic analysis indicates that polymer gasoline is currently competitive with petroleum derived gasoline.

An indirect route to biomass liquids that has received much attention is Mobil's process in which methanol is converted to hydrocarbons over zeolite catalysts. The New Zealand Government has approved Mobil's technology as the heart of a 13,000-bbl/day synthetic gasoline plant designed to meet one-third of the nation's needs in the mid 1980's. Negotiations are in progress. The methanol for this plant will be made from natural gas, but it could be made from biomass,

Another zeolite catalyst application was recently reported by Mobil which provides another indirect route to hydrocarbon liquids from biomass. In this process, biomass-derived oils such as

corn, castor, peanut, and jojoba oils as well as Hevea latex are converted in high yields to gasoline by passage over zeolite catalysts at 400-500°C. In addition to gasoline, which is the major product, fuel gas (C1-C2), liquid petroleum gas (C3-C6), and light distillate are formed. The product mix is similar to that obtained from methanol, and constitutes a high-grade gasoline with an unleaded research octane number of 90 to 96. Product distributions for methanol, corn oil, and Hevea latex are summarized in Table 11. Experimental results show that when isoprene or dipentene, the decomposition products of latex rubber in the reactor without catalyst, is passed over the zeolite catalyst, the same product spectrum as that formed by the latex is produced. It was therefore suggested that polyisoprene rubber first depolymerizes to lower molecular weight units which then interact with catalyst.

#### ?Natural Processes?

Natural production of polyisoprene by biomass has been recognized for many years and formed the basis of commercial production of natural rubber on Hevea *brazilensis* plantations. Recently, new screening studies of over 300 plant species have shown that about 30 species may serve as useful sources of hydrocarbons. Most are vigorous perennial species relatively rich in oils and hydrocarbons and adapted to wide areas of North America. A most interesting species, *Copaifera Ingsdorfi*, is a tree which grows wild in the Amazon. Mature trees are about 1 m in diameter and 30 m high. A 1-1/2 in. bung hole yields about 10 to 20% of oily material from four such holes and that the

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tree can be grown at a density of 100 trees/ac. This corresponds to about 15,000 l/ac-yr (94

DbI/acyy). It is believed that the tree can grow in a few places in the United States such as Florida.

## Alcohol Fuels

### Ethanol

It appears that more controversy has occurred among energy specialists on ethanol as a motor fuel than any other synthetic fuel. Nevertheless, it is commercially marketed now in the United States on a large scale as gasohol (10 vol % ethanol - 90 vol % unleaded gasoline) and of all the possible biomass- and waste-derived fuels, it has been given the most Federal support. As indicated in Tables 3 and 4, 43 projects on ethanol out of 76 projects on energy from biomass and wastes were chosen for feasibility study and cooperative agreement awards under Public Law 96-126. The breakdown is shown in Table 12; the dollar awards (\$53,971,000) are about 78% of the total dollar awards given to projects on energy from biomass and wastes under this law. About \$378 million in loan guarantees have also been awarded by the U.S. Department of Agriculture for ethanol fuel plants as shown in Table 13, and the U.S. Department of Energy is negotiating loan guarantees for 7

other plants as shown in Table 14. Presuming that all of the plants listed in Tables 12, 13, and 14 are built, the total alcohol production would be about 1,726 million gallons per year, or about 1.5% of U.S. gasoline consumption in 1979,

### Ethanol Research

Much of today's research on ethanol has been concentrated on improving cellulose hydrolysis processes, increasing ethanol yields, reducing fermentation times, and achieving higher net energy production efficiencies. Significant experimental data have been reported on improved-enzyme-catalyzed hydrolysis of low-grade celluloses and on the continuous hydrolysis of celluloses

to glucose via acid hydrolysis using dilute sulfuric acid. For example, hydrolysis of water slurries of newsprint with 1% sulfuric acid in the range 235-240°C at a residence time of 0.22 min afforded 50 to 55% of the theoretical glucose yields in a plug flow reactor. These results are believed to be of

?commercial int

. Another short residence time sulfuric acid hydrolysis process feeds a

hydropulped slurry of newsprint or sawdust into a twin-screw extruder device which expresses

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9

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?water from the slurry. The resulting high solids cellulose plug is then hydrolyzed with acid which is injected into the feeder. The residence time-temperature-glucose yield relationships are about the

same as those of the plug flow reactor experiments. The EPA, the sponsor of this work, estimates that ethanol might be produced by this process for \$0.85-\$1.00/gal ~ \$0.60/gal for hydrolysis, and \$0.30-\$0.40 for fermentation and distillation.?

Recent approaches to improving the alcoholic fermentation process itself include the use of bacteria instead of yeasts to shorten fermentation times; continuous fermentation techniques to shorten fermentation times; simultaneous saccharification and fermentation of low-grade cellulose with enzymes and yeasts; thermophilic anaerobes for the one-step hydrolysis and fermentation of cellulose; packed columns containing live, immobilized yeast cells, or both enzymes and yeast cells

through which glucose solutions are passed; and recombinant-DNA techniques to develop new yeast

strains for rapid conversion of starch to sugar. For example, packed columns of live *Saccharomyces*

yeast cells entrapped in carrageenan gel are reported to convert 20% aqueous glucose solutions containing nutrients to 12.8 vol % ethanol solutions in 2.5 hr. Biomass not normally used for

alcohol production, such as pineapple, has also been evaluated for alcoholic fermentation. This plant species, which requires much less water than sugarcane or cassava for growth, was projected to

yield ethanol quantities per unit growth area higher than those of sugarcane or cassava

Since distillation of the fermentation broth to separate the ethanol consumes relatively large amounts of energy, several methods are being studied to try to improve post-fermentation processing. Drying of the partially concentrated alcohol solution with dehydrating agents including corn and corn derivatives is reported to be effective for producing nearly anhydrous alcohol; the energy content of the ethanol is ten times that needed for dehydration. Other techniques for



reducing energy consumption use azeotropic agents, low-energy distillation, and membrane filters. Another possible route to anhydrous ethanol is to use a solvent for direct extraction of ethanol from the aqueous solution; little data seems to be available on the potential energy consumption benefits of this method which could, in theory, produce gasohol directly without distillation. A few projects are underway to develop this technique.

No recent reports could be found on the thermochemical production of ethanol via hydration of ethylene derived from biomass. But an interesting non-biological method has been reported on

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16

the conversion of furfural from rice hulls, corn cobs, and material from the southern pine forest to ethanol. Furfural undergoes ring cleavage and reduction in the presence of lithium metal and alkyl amine solvent to form ethanol. The use of less expensive lithium salts in amine solvents bombarded with gamma rays may also promote the same reaction. These reactions are under laboratory study.

Methanol

Methanol is a suitable fuel for internal combustion engines too, although it does have several advantages and disadvantages when compared with ethanol. Biomass derived methanol has also not

been receiving near the attention that has been given to ethanol. For example, only one of the 71 projects in Table 3 is directed to methanol from biomass. The current emphasis for future methanol fuel plants is concentrated on coal-based processes. Interestingly, even though such processes are

relatively well established from a technological standpoint, none is online in the United States.

Natural gas is the prime raw material,

Methanol has not been produced in any appreciable yield by fermentation. Currently, most of it is manufactured by conversion of synthesis gas, usually by the so-called low-pressure process developed by Imperial Chemical Industries in the 1960's. Subsequent research to develop new methanol processes has usually been patterned after the ICI method which uses heterogeneous copper oxide catalysts to reduce carbon monoxide.

Recently, homogeneously catalyzed reduction of carbon monoxide to methanol and methyl formate at 1300 atm and 225\* to 275°C in the presence of solutions of ruthenium

complexes was

discovered.<sup>7</sup> This observation could be the forerunner of new catalytic systems for methanol

manufacture

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?Table 12. FEASIBILITY STUDY AND COOPERATIVE AGREEMENT

?AWARDS BY USDOE FOR ETHANOL FUEL PLANTS

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BIOMASS ENERGY SYSTEMS: AN OVERVIEW

Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

?The Biomass Energy Systems Division

USS. Department of Energy

?Washington, D.C.

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

BIOMASS ENERGY SYSTEMS: AN OVERVIEW

?Table of Contents

Topic

INTRODUCTION

PROGRAM FOCUS

1. Commercialization

2 Technology Development

3. Exploratory Research

CONCLUSION :

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

Biomass Energy Systems: An Overview\*

Dr, Beverly J. Berges, Acting Director

?Biomass Energy Systems Division

?US. Department of Energy

Washington, D.C.

## INTRODUCTION

DURING the early 1970's, it became apparent to the Congress that renewable energy sources should be developed to reduce the Nation's growing dependence on foreign oil and the dwindling domestic supplies of oil and natural gas. In 1974, the Energy Reorganization Act (P.L. 93-438) and the Solar Energy Research, Development and Demonstration Act (P.L. 93-473) established the Energy Research and Development Administration (ERDA) as the responsible Federal agency in solar energy RD&D.

The Biomass Energy Systems Program (BES) was originally organized under the name Fuels From Biomass Program in ERDA's Division of Solar Energy. The Department of Energy Organization Act of 1977 (P.L. 95-97), consolidated the energy functions of the Federal Energy Administration, ERDA and other Federal agencies into the Department of Energy on October 1, 1977. At that time, BES was placed in the Division of Distributed Solar Technology and in the 1980 reorganization it became a Division within the Office of Solar Applications for Industry.

In fiscal year 1977, \$6 million were, for the first time, appropriated for ERDA to develop fuels from biomass. The budget authority has increased nearly ten-fold since that time. The fiscal 1980 budget for BES has grown to \$55.5 million of which \$22 million was used to initiate the Office of Alcohol Fuels. This dramatic increase in funding reflects the expectation of biomass to be the largest energy contributor of all solar technologies in this century.

The Biomass Energy Systems Program was reoriented in FY 1980 from primarily technology and engineering development to include commercialization activities as well. The overall strategy is to balance the near term, midterm, and long term energy options. The present emphasis is on those



?technologies which can make an energy contribution in the next five years. At the same time,

Presented by Marilyn Ripin.

---Page Break---

2

support is being given for the development of production and conversion technologies which will begin to contribute to our energy suppliss after 1985, and Jong term RAD is being initiated on those concepts with high technical and financial risks but potential for high payoff after the year 2000.

## PROGRAM FOCUS

Within each of the major activity areas there are barriers which must be eliminated or ?engineering problems to be solved for a particular biomass technology to become a viable alternative ?energy option, In every case, efforts are supported to reduce the financial risk to industry of, developing and commercializing biomass technologies. In addition, the majority of activities, particularly those involved with technology development, ae aimed at reducing the manufacturing ?costs to accelerate market penetration. Some of the more specific barriers and problems are ?enumerated below with examples of activities aimed at removing these impediments,

Commercialization

Commercialization activities are being conducted to accelerate the use of wood as fuel in the near term. Direct combustion technologies are being considered for the generation of industrial process heat/steam, the generation of electricity, the cogeneration of process heat and electricity, and the production of space heat for residential applications.

There are several issues or barriers which must be addressed before the potential of wood as a fuel will be realized. First, in order to develop regional wood utilization plans, an accurate estimate of the total above ground biomass must be made. Current national estimates

include only the

merchantable volumes of trees and exclude the tops, branches and small or defective trees. The methodology needed to estimate total biomass will be developed and implemented on a national and regional basis in conjunction with the U.S. Forest Service. Assessments will also be made to determine the regional market potential for wood fuel to provide a focus for the regional utilization plans

The lack of an identifiable and reliable wood supply infrastructure is currently inhibiting its use. Evaluations

are being made of land ownership patterns, transportation systems and costs of

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3

delivering wood. Costshared site specific feasibility studies will be conducted to determine the wood available to potential industrial and utility users. For the residential sector, two retail wood outlets have been established in the Southeast to demonstrate the reliability of stick wood fuel supplies

Another potential deterrent to wood burning is the increasing concern about emissions and their effect on health and the environment. BES is currently funding studies to quantify and reduce the emissions from stoves and furnaces and will fund research in cooperation with EPA on the potential health effects caused by wood combustion. There is also a need to provide up-to-date technical and economic data on the use of wood to potential producers, suppliers and users.

Costshared demonstrations of direct combustion systems are planned to encourage the acceptance

of this technology by non-forest products industries and utilities. In addition, a technical assistance team has been established in the Northeast to provide information and direction to interested industrial/utility concerns, as well as those interested in residential wood burning

Commercialization activities will also be directed at the agricultural sector. In cooperation with the Science and Education Administration (SEA) of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, BES will conduct a program aimed at achieving greater on-farm energy production and use through the anaerobic digestion of animal manures, the direct combustion and low Btu gasification of agricultural residues and the processing and use of vegetable oils as a substitute for

petroleum-based

diesel fuel, Farm energy needs include space and process heat, electricity and shaft power. There is a need to match the energy requirements with the available feedstocks and appropriate conversion technology,

The major problem surrounding the anaerobic digestion of animal manure is informational in nature. The agricultural sector has not been convinced that this technology is both technically and economically feasible under appropriate circumstances. Plans are to construct and demonstrate a number of on-farm digestion systems to encourage wider user acceptance. Direct combustion and low Btu purification systems

ed to use crop residues will be constructed and demonstrate for several applications including crop drying and shaft power for irrigation. Concurrently, these systems will be fine tuned to alleviate material handling and storage problems.

Several issues are currently unresolved concerning the substitution of vegetable oils for diesel

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4

fuel Tests will be conducted to determine if available processing equipment for oil seed crops is cost and energy effective when used on-farm. Similarly, the performance of vegetable oil in farm equipment engines will be evaluated as well as the need for modifications to provide for efficient operation. In addition, research on the chemistry of these oils will be directed at identifying useful by-products and quantifying combustion characteristics.

## Technology Development

A wide ranging program is being pursued for the development of biomass production and conversion systems. The production research is aimed at increasing the biomass resource base, through silvicultural, herbaceous and aquatic crop development. Activities involve not only developing production systems, but also the harvesting, processing and delivery technologies needed to supply the biomass to a conversion facility.

Silvicultural research activities are concentrating on filling gaps in information and developing the technologies needed for growing and harvesting woody biomass both on energy plantations and from natural stands. Species are being identified, regionally, for cultivation on short-rotation energy farms on a variety of sites, including arid and semiarid land. Tied closely to the species screening efforts is the quantification of the cultural techniques, energy inputs and costs of increasing yields. Various schemes will also be tested for increasing the fuelwood output from natural stands during commercial harvests. Currently available harvesting equipment has been designed, principally, for the handling of large and relatively uniform logs. Delivering small and defective tree tops, and irregular pieces from logging sites and short-rotation plantation material with this equipment is inefficient and costly. Improvements and specialized equipment and systems will be designed and

tested to harvest such materials and process it into a uniform size for transport and use. Equipment will also be designed or modified to effectively handle these materials on a wide variety of terrain such as steep slopes, wetlands and small wood lots.

The herbaceous species production program is in the early stages of development and deals with non-woody plants which are not traditionally cultivated. A regional approach will be used to determine the extent to which systems will be practical based upon land availability and potential end use applications. Natural stands as well as those under cultivation will be evaluated. As the

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5

cultivation and harvesting techniques are quantified, efforts will also concentrate on matching the biomass with the appropriate conversion technology to produce the desired energy product(s)

The aquatic species program includes four categories of aquatic plants: microalgae, macroalgae, floating plants, and emergent plants. All are capable of rapid growth and can provide biomass yields that surpass those of terrestrial plants.

Microalgae, which can be grown in saline, brackish and wastewater can supply up to 85 percent of their mass in easily extractable hydrocarbons. Land-based systems are under development that maintain a circulation of nutrients and carbon dioxide as well as stabilize the pH and temperature. A special problem area under investigation is defining those environmental conditions which enhance lipid and hydrocarbon production.

Macroalgae, such as giant kelp and other seaweeds, have the capacity to produce and store

proportionately large amounts of carbohydrates, The engineering problems associated with the development of land based and nearshore systems for macroalgae are similar to those for microalgae. Nutrients must be supplied to maintain yields sufficient to support the operating and structural costs of the system and stable environmental conditions must be provided.

Floating aquatic plants, particularly water hyacinth, have been shown to be highly productive as well as effective wastewater purifiers, Advantage of both factors is being taken into account through the integration of wastewater treatment with biomass production and conversion systems Major limitations associated with this concept are the restricted geographical range of water hyacinth and the high rates of water loss through transpiration. These problems are currently under investigation,

A major problem area common to microalgae, macroalgae, and floating plant systems is harvesting. In each case, large amounts of water must be processed in proportion to the biomass recovered

Emergent aquatic plants, such as reeds, cattails, and bulrushes represent a potentially significant feedstock resource, The U.S. has extensive marsh land. which has been estimated to be greater than 42 million acres. However, information must be developed with respect to the cultivation, management, and harvesting of these species. In addition, since marsh ecosystems are very sensitive to disruption, numerous environmental issues will be carefully analyzed during the

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development of these species.

Complementing the production systems research is the development of biomass conversion

technologies. These include the medium Btu gasification, the direct liquefaction and the anaerobic digestion of cellulose feedstocks

BES is currently testing a variety of high performance gasification systems to determine which are technically and economically feasible. The major challenge, currently being addressed by the gasification research, is the production of medium Btu gas and synthesis gas without the addition of pure oxygen. Medium Btu gas and synthesis gas have several advantages over low Btu gas. First, unlike low Btu gas, medium Btu gas can be piped a considerable distance and second, synthesis gas

can be upgraded to substitute natural gas and reformed into liquid fuels, such as methanol and other

higher alcohols. Novel heat transfer techniques are being incorporated in the design of biomass gasifiers to eliminate the costly oxygen units used in coal gasification processes, Catalysts are also being employed to direct processes toward a desired gas composition and eliminate tars and heavy hydrocarbons

Many reactors require that the biomass be fairly uniform in size and shape for proper feeding and gasification, Processing equipment will be evaluated and modified, if necessary, to produce suitable feedstocks from a variety of biomass types including forest and agricultural residues.

The direct liquefaction of biomass produces a bio-crude oil. The feedstock is made into a slurry with a carrier fluid, usually oil or water, before entering the reactor. Once the bio-crude oil is produced, it is separated and the carrier recycled, The major issue in direct liquefaction is the need to reduce the energy lost in heating and cooling of the carrier fluid, Extrusion feeding devices are being developed to increase the concentration of biomass in the carrier fluid, It is expected that increasing the ratio of biomass to carrier fluid will improve not only the energy balance, but the



?manufacturing costs as well

?The anaerobic digestion research is aimed at gaining a more complete understanding of the biochemistry of methane production from crop residues. Comparisons are being made between thermophilic and mesophilic bacterial systems. A major drawback to anaerobic digestion is the long retention times necessary to convert the cellulosic feedstocks. Various pretreatment schemes

are being tested to enhance the overall process. In addition, economic uses of the digester effluent

---Page Break---

1

are being sought, including cattle feed and fertilizer, to eliminate disposal costs.

## Exploratory Research

Exploratory research is being conducted to support the activities of the entire program. Longer term projects, such as the development of terrestrial plants which produce hydrocarbons and the photobiological, photoelectrolytic, and photochemical production of hydrogen are included. A fundamental understanding of these renewable energy options must be gained before full scale engineering development is warranted,

Research has been initiated on developing hydrocarbon bearing plants for semiarid and arid regions. Species screening activities are attempting to determine those species with the greatest potential to synthesize desired hydrocarbons. Another problem area is the extraction and characterization of these fluids. Work is underway on the development of chemical process

techniques for the extraction of plant material after harvest. Potential market applications are also being identified and will be evaluated to determine the most suitable energy end use of the hydrocarbons

The demand for hydrogen as a chemical feedstock in the U.S. is growing steadily and expected to continue in view of the attention being given to synthetic fuels. Low cost hydrogen production systems will be needed to complement this emerging industry. Several approaches are being investigated to produce hydrogen photobiologically. Basic research is being conducted primarily on the biochemistry of hydrogen production by photosynthetic bacteria, algae and cell free or in vitro systems. Photoelectrolysis is closely related to photovoltaic hydrogen production except the photoactive semiconductor material becomes not only the solar collector but the electrode as well. Semiconductor materials are being developed which possess a suitable wavelength threshold and also resist corrosion. Research efforts in photochemical hydrogen production systems are focused on increasing the solar conversion efficiencies of promising processes.

## CONCLUSION

In summary, the Biomass Energy Systems Program is pursuing numerous combinations of feedstock, conversion process and end-product which have the potential to contribute to our energy

---Page Break---

8

needs. Specific barriers and problems have been and will continue to be identified and solutions will be sought to ameliorate them.

?The commercialization efforts are expected to accelerate the acceptance of biomass technologies by industry in the near term and lead to significant energy contributions by the year 2000, Furthermore, DOE will continue to play a key role in supporting the research and development of promising technologies.

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## HERBACEOUS LAND PLANTS AS A RENEWABLE ENERGY SOURCE FOR PUERTO RICO

Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS.

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---Page Break---

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# HERBACEOUS LAND PLANTS AS A RENEWABLE ENERGY SOURCE. FOR PUERTO RICO

## Table of Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

1, Herbaceous Plants In Perspective

2. Prior Studies With Herbaceous Plants

HERBACEOUS TROPICAL PLANTS

1, Botanical Considerations

(a) Photosynthetic Energy Conversion

(b) Energy Conversion vs Water Use Efficiency

(©) YearRound Growth Pote

(@) Tissue Expansion vs Maturation

2 Management As Energy Crops

(a) Harvest Frequency

(b) Energy Crop Rotations

(©) Solar Drying, Compaction, And Delivery

(@) Obtaining Correct Cost Data

## ?TROPICAL LEGUMES

1, The Need For Alternative Nitrogen Sources

2. An Underexploited Tropical Resource

3. Puerto Rico's Native And Imported Legumes

4, Co-Production Potential With Tropical Grasses

## REFERENCES

## TABLES

## FIGURES

---Page Break---

Herbaceous Land Plants As A Renewable Energy Source  
For Puerto Rico

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## ABSTRACT

HERBACEOUS tropical plants are 2 renewable energy source of major importance to many  
?ropical nations. They convert the radiant energy of sunlight to chemical energy, which i stored in  
plant tissues (cellulose, hemicellulose, lignin) and fermentable solids (sugars, starches). Because all

Tropical plants do this—even those commonly regarded as "weeds"—they constitute an inexpensive, renewable, and domestic alternative to foreign fossil energy.

The vast majority of herbaceous tropical plants have never been cultivated for food, fiber, or energy. A major screening program would be needed to identify superior species and the most effective roles they can play in a domestic energy industry. Other herbaceous plants, such as sugarcane and tropical forage grasses, have been cultivated for centuries as agricultural commodities,

As energy crops, important revisions in management will be needed to maximize their energy yield.

Two broad groups of herbaceous plants are seen to have an immediate potential for reducing Puerto Rico's reliance on imported fossil fuels: The tropical grasses (of which sugarcane is the dominant member) and the tropical legumes. Managed for its maximum growth potential, sugarcane is an excellent source of both fuel fermentation substrate, cellulosic, and the sweetener sucrose. Other tropical grasses store relatively little extractable sugar while equaling or moderately surpassing sugarcane in yield of cellulosic dry matter. The latter might soon become an economical source of fermentation substrates. Certain legume species are also very effective producers of biomass. Herbaceous tropical legumes are perceived as a potential source of biological nitrogen for energy crops unable to utilize nitrogen from the atmosphere.

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Herbaceous Land Plants As A Renewable Energy Source

For Puerto Rico

## INTRODUCTION

|, Herbaceous Plants In Perspective

FOR this presentation the term "herbaceous" refers to nonwoody plants having some potential as renewable energy sources. Ordinarily, a herbaceous plant will complete its lifecycle in one growing season or one year. It is comprised of relatively succulent tissues as opposed to the drier and more fibrous tissues of woody perennial species.

This distinction between succulent and woody species becomes much less clear in the tropics. Herbaceous plants may grow continuously rather than seasonally, and some species will do so for many years. For example, a 6-month old stem of napier grass can be far more "woody" than most forest trees of equal age. Similarly, an 18-month "rain culture" crop of sugarcane, though still "herbaceous," can yield more fiber/acre than virtually any form of higher plant in a comparable period of time.

Literally thousands of terrestrial plant species can be regarded as potential energy sources. A majority of these are herbaceous seed plants which complete their growth and reproductive processes within a single growing season of a few months duration. They are widely distributed from arctic regions to the tropics (1,2,3). They are equally diverse with respect to their growth and anatomical characteristics, their cultural requirements, and their physiological and biochemical processes (29). Yet, all have the capacity to convert sunlight to chemical energy and to store this energy in the form of biomass. An overview of herbaceous bi

ass represents about  $15 \times 10^6$

BTU's of stored energy. The direct firing of one such ton, in a stoker furnace with high-pressure

boiler having 70% conversion efficiency, would displace about two barrels of fuel oil

Alternatively, as cellulosic materials (10), much of the dry biomass could be converted to

fermentable sugars, alcohol, and a range of chemical feedstocks (Figure 1)

In addition to their fibrous tissues, some species also produce sugar or starch in sufficient

quantities to warrant extraction and conversion to alcohol. The total soluble sugars of sugarcane

---Page Break---

2

comprise roughly 1/3 of the whole plant, or about 40% of the millable cane stem (11). The Irish

potato (*Solanum tuberosum*) is frequently used as a fermentation substrate during periods of low

market value. Other species store energy in the form of natural hydrocarbons (12,13).

A majority of herbaceous land plants have never been cultivated for food or fiber. In warm climates, wild grasses such as *Sorghum halepense* (Johnson grass), *Arundo donax* (Japanese cane),

and *Bambusa* species are borderline cases where occasional use has been made of their high

productivity of dry matter. In cooler climates, seeding plants such as reed canarygrass, cattail,

wild oats, and orchard grass may be viewed with mixed feeling by landowners unable to cultivate

more valuable food or forage crops. Plants such as ragweed, redroot pigweed, and lambsquarters



are

recognized for the persistent growth habits while otherwise regarded as common pest, However, the value of such species could rise dramatically as biomass assumes future role as a renewable,

?non-fossil energy resource.

## 2. Prior Studies With Herbaceous Plants

While it is not correct to say that herbaceous land plants have been overlooked as a domestic energy resource, only a small number have been examined closely for this purpose. Among the latter are tropical grass species of *Zea*, *Sorghum*, *Saccharum*, and *Pennisetum* which we

recognized

for their high yields of fiber and fermentable solids long before the oil embargo of 1973,

?Throughout their history as cultivated crops, plants such as corn, sweet sorghum, sugarcane, and napier grass have evolved extensive technologies for their cultivation, harvest, post-harvest transport

and storage, and for their processing and marketing. Other tropical plants, some with very fine botanical or agronomic attributes and confirmed histories as excellent biomass producers, have been

generally ignored as energy resources, Pineapple, cassava, plantain, and papaya are examples of underutilized tropical biomass species (48,14).

Aside from sugarcane and ?allied? tropical grasses (5,6,7,11,15,16,17), relatively little

attention has been given to herbaceous land plants specifically as sources of fuels and chemical

feedstocks, Studies were initiated recently at Battelle-Columbus Laboratories on common grasses and weeds as potential substitutes for fossil energy (18). Plants showing promise as boiler fuels include perennial ryegrass, reed canarygrass, sudangrass, orchardgrass, bromegrass, Kentucky 31

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3

fescue, lambsquarters, and others. A range of species have indicated some potential as sources of oil,

fats, protein, dyes, alkaloids, and rubber. Such plants include giant ragweed, alfalfa, jimsonweed, crambe, redroot pigweed, dogbane, millweed, and pokeweed,

In 1978 the U.S. Department of Energy issued an RFP for herbaceous plant screening as a means to close the information gap in this area of biomass energy development (19). The DOE objective has two phases: First, to identify promising species for whole plant biomass production in at least six different regions of the U.S., and second, to perform field evaluations on at least 20 species per region, with a view toward identifying those most suitable for cropping on terrestrial energy plantations. Arthur D Little, Inc, was selected to conduct Phase I (2).

Six regions were designated on the basis of climatic characteristics, land availability, and land resource data provided by the U.S. Soil Conservation Service. A list of 280 potential species was prepared on the basis of published literature and personal interviews. These were screened in accordance with botanical and economic characteristics, with emphasis on previously uncultivated species. Certain agricultural plants were also considered,

Factors such as yield potential, cultural requirements, tolerances to physiological stress  
Production costs, and land availability were considered in ranking the candidate species of each  
?reeion (2). Plants with yields less than 2.2 tons/acre (5 metric tons/hectare) were eliminated. For  
?the potential energy crop species comparisons were drawn with six categories of economic plant,  
including tall and short broadleaves, tall and short grasses, legumes, and tubers. Some 70 species  
?were recommended for consideration in the program's second phase (field screening). Some of  
these  
plants (Redroot pigweed, lambsquarters, Colorado river hemp, ragweed) have no prior history  
cultivated crops and their cultural needs remain obscure. Other species (Bermuda grass, Kani, red  
canarygrass, sudangrass) have been improved and cultivated for decades,

## HERBACEOUS TROPICAL PLANTS

?The initial steps taken by DOE to evaluate herbaceous land plants will help to clarify their  
value as a renewable energy source for the U.S. mainland. No comparable effort has been  
?undertaken for the species of Puerto Rico or for tropical regions in general. The remainder of this  
Presentation concerns two broad categories of tropical plants common to Puerto Rico, i.e., the

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4

tropical grasses and the herbaceous tropical legumes. Intentionally or otherwise, much experience  
has been gained with each group over a period of many decades,

1, Botanical Considerations

The correct selection and management of tropical herbaceous plants is aided by an understanding of their function as botanical entities. Above all, the biomass energy worker must recognize four decisive characteristics: (a) That each species is a living solar collector of potential value, but operating for its own benefit rather than that of man; (b) an ability to utilize effectively a limited or irregular water supply; (c) an ability to harvest solar energy on a year-round basis, if correctly managed for this purpose; and (d) the biomass-producing potential of each species is a function of two discrete growth phases i.e., tissue expansion and tissue maturation.

(d) Photosynthetic Energy Conversion: Although not an efficient process, photosynthesis is the only system of solar energy conversion on earth that has operated at any appreciable magnitude,

## SOLAR ENERGY CONVERSION TO BIOMASS

light

(203 + Hy0 C01 Op

Energy Storage = 114 KCal/Mole CO

with any appreciable economy, for any appreciable period of time, The earth's plants store annually about 10 times more energy than is utilized by man, and about 200 times more than is consumed as

food (20).

Photosynthesis consists of two phases: (a) Energy capture, yielding chemical energy and reducing power; and (b) the reduction of  $\text{CO}_2$  to carbohydrate. The carbon reduction phase is accomplished by three distinct pathways ( $\text{C}_3$ ,  $\text{C}_4$ , and CAM). Each pathway is found

among tropical herbaceous plants, but the  $\text{C}_3$  pathway is probably the most widely distributed. CAM plants, which assimilate carbon at night, are relatively less important even though their utilization of water is generally more efficient than for  $\text{C}_3$  species. The  $\text{C}_4$  pathway was at first thought to reside only in sugarcane and related tropical grasses (21,22,23). It was soon found in temperate plants such as Zea, Sorghum, and Amaranthus (34-38). The CAM species constitute a kind

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of apex in photosynthetic proficiency (5,9,23), aided to some extent by attri

$\text{CO}_2$  compensation point, a lack of photorespiration, and a capability to utilize both lower and higher light intensities than do  $\text{C}_3$  and CAM species (Table 1).

An important aspect of photosynthetic energy conversion often overlooked in higher plants is their spectral proficiency, that is, their ability to convert different regions of the sun's spectral

energy distribution. Ironically, more than 60 percent of incoming solar energy is received at wavelengths shorter than 500 nm, while (apparently) most plants are photosynthetically active at wavelengths longer than 600 nm. There is some evidence that *Saccharon* species have major photosynthesis activity in the blueviolet to blue-green region (25,26). Photosynthetic action spectra have been determined for approximately 30 agricultural plants, but a vast majority of herbaceous land plants have not been examined in this context.

( ) Energy Conversion vs Water Utilization Efficiency: Tropical herbaceous plants such as sugarcane, corn, and sweet sorghum require about six inches of water per month to sustain maximum growth (27,28,9). Most tropical plants will not receive that quantity of water as rainfall nor are they likely to be given this quantity as irrigated crops. Their water utilization efficiency will be influenced markedly by the specific pathway of carbon reduction.  $C_4$  species should tend to reduce more carbon per unit of water transpired than  $C_3$  species but less than plants using the CAM pathway.  $C_4$  plants such as sugarcane (4,27,Chap. 4) have a lower mesophyll resistance ( $r_m$ ) than plants, favoring in turn a steeper  $CO_2$  gradient between the atmosphere and photosynthetic reaction sites in the leaf. CAM plants have an  $r_m$  comparable to  $C_3$  plants, but they assimilate carbon at night when transpirational water loss is at a minimum. The CAM pathway in effect is a plant water conserving mechanism.

(©) YearRound Growth Potential: To produce maximum biomass on a per annum basis one

?would ideally select a year-round growing season and propagate species that grow on a year-round basis, Certain grasses (sugarcane, naper grass, Johnson grass, bamboo) do this nicely if planted in the tropics. Some of their members produce well alto in sub-tropical or even temperate regions, but, ?they will realize only part of their fill yield potential when growth i constrained for several months by cool temperatures and reduced daylength, At the risk of offending mainland sugarcane planters,

---Page Break---

6

it must be said that there is no region of the continental U.S. really suited to tropical grasses production in this context, Even in Puerto Rico, located only 18 degrees north latitude, a very definite ?winter? effect is exerted on the growth rates of sugarcane and napier grass (Table 2),

It is important to recognize also that growth is a 24-hour process as well as « 12-month process. The photosynthetic and tissue-expansion systems that operate each day are fully dependent

for the nocturnal transport and mobilization of growth-supporting compounds. For this reason the tropics are again favored by their warm nights for biomass production (27).

Possibly the most desirable growth characteristic of al for herbaceous species i the ability to produce new shoots continually throughout the year, year after year, from an established crown.

This is a predominant characteristic of sugarcane and certain other tropical grasses both related and ?unrelated to *Saccharum* species. Such plants do not require the periodic dormancy and rest intervals

so important to most temperate species. Nor is this compensated by the intensive fush of May-June

growth by temperate plants. Over the course of a year, the slowergrowing tropical forms will out-produce them by a factor of three or four.

A less obvious but utterly critical feature of the perennial crown is its continual underground contribution of decaying organic matter to the soil. This process proceeds concurrently with the continuous renewal of underground crown and root tissues. For this reason the long-term harvest and removal of above-ground stems, together with the burning off of "trash," does not have an adverse effect on sugarcane lands. There are soils in Puerto Rico that have produced sugarcane more

for less continually for four centuries without destruction of their physical properties or nutrientsupplying capability. On the other hand, seasonal crops such as field corn and grain sorghum do not develop a perennial crown. For these plants a good case can be made against the removal of above-ground residues from the cropping site,

(@) Tissue Expansion vs Maturation: A common misconception holds that biomass growth involves mainly a visible increase of size, and that per acre tonnages of green matter are a reasonably accurate indicator of a plant's yield potential. It is also frequently assumed that the moisture content of plant tissues is

usually constant at around 75 percent, and that dry matter yields can be calculated rather closely from green weight data. These assumptions are not correct in any case

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but are particularly erroneous with respect to herbaceous tropical species.

In virtually all herbaceous tropical plant, "growth" consists of discrete, phasic processes of tissue expansion followed by maturation. The tissue expansion phase produces visible but succulent growth consisting mainly of water (in the order of 88-92 percent moisture). The maturation phase corresponds to physiological aging and senescence, that is, to flowering and seed production, slackening of visible growth, yellowing and loss of foliage, and hardening of the formerly succulent tissues. During this period the dry matter content will increase by a factor of two to four in a time interval that may be shorter than that of the tissue-expansion phase. An excellent example of this is the hybrid forage grass Sordan 70A, which more than doubles its dry matter yield in a time-span of only two weeks (28, i, during weeks 8 to 10 in a 10-week growth and reproduction cycle) (Figure 2). For this reason the optimal period of harvest must be determined with care for each candidate species.

For most herbaceous tropical plants the production of dry matter can be plotted as an S-shaped curve, as shown schematically in Figure 3. Dry matter content will not ordinarily exceed 10 to 12 percent during the period of rapid tissue expansion but will begin to rise dramatically at some point in time that is characteristic of the individual species. Dry matter will rarely increase beyond 40 percent in herbaceous plants. Attempts to hasten this rise by withholding water) or to delay it (by use of growth stimulants) have met with limited success in tropical grasses (30).

## 2, Management As Energy Crops

Certain characteristics of « promising tropical plant as a biomass energy resource were described in the preceding sections, In translating such plants to a well managed, energy-plantation

scenario, some straightforward steps must be taken to assure maximum returns from production expenditures. These will include: (a) Correct land preparation, including land leveling and planing where needed; (b) correct design and installation of the irrigation system; (c) correct seedbed preparation; (4) careful selection and treatment of seed; (e) correct soeding (relative to depth, density or row spacing, and season); (f)reseeding of vacant space when necessary; (a) correct pest control programs (including administration of control on weekends and holidays when required); (1) maintenance of correct iergation, fertilization, and cultivation programs; (i) correct timing and

---Page Break---

8

synchronization of harvest operations; () correct selection and use of harvest equipment; (k) postharvest maintenance of land and machinery.

For most biomass crops the costs of these measures will ccrue whether they are performed correctly or not. The decisive factor will be the skill and motivation of the operation's field managers. In the author's opinion, good management can best be assured for Puerto Rico when production is retained in the context of privately owned plantations that are operated for personal profit.

(@) Harvest Frequency: Of all management operations, the correct harvest period for herbaceous tropical plants is probably the lest understood. It is here that prior experience with a siven species can lead one astray when trying to maximize its energy potential

?Once the diphasic nature of biomass growth and maturation is recognized (Figure ), the importance of harvest frequency is also underscored, The optimal period for harvest in the ?maturation curve of one species will differ enormously from the optimal harvest period of

another-even among varieties within the same genus and species. For this reason it has been convenient to group candidate tropical grasses into distinct categories based on the time interval that must elapse after planting to maximize dry matter yield (30). The management and harvest requirements of each group will also vary. On this basis the tropical grasses were organized into short, intermediate, and longrotation categories (30).

As illustrated in Figure 4, the schematic maturation curves for type species of each category vary greatly over a time-course of 12 months. Hence, to harvest sugarcane at the 10-week intervals favorable to Sordan 70A would yield little dry matter. Similarly, any delay of the Sordan harvest beyond 12 weeks

waste of time and production resources. Napier grass, an intermediate

rotation species, is more than a match for sugarcane at two- and four months of age, and will nearly equal sugarcane yields at six months, but thereafter sugarcane will easily out produce Napier grass. In this context short-rotation species should be harvested four or five times per year, an intermediate rotation species two or three times per year, and a long-rotation species no more than once per year. This need for careful attention to the maturation profiles of candidate species is

underscored by yield data for sugarcane and napier grass harvested at variable intervals over a

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time-course of 12 months (Table 3),

is also evident that, while Sordan and napier grass attain rather level plateaus for dry matter, sugarcane continues to increase dry matter beyond 12 months (Figure 4). Suerose accumulation profiles are very similar for sugarcane, For many years sugar planters have taken advantage of this feature by extending the cane harvest interval beyond 12 months. Hence, the Puerto Rico sugar industry harvests two crops—the “gran cultura” (16 to 18 months between harvests) and the “primavera” (10 to 12 months between harvests). In Hawa sugarcane is commonly harvested at 20 to 24 month intervals.

(©) Energy Crop Rotations: From Figure 4 one would surmise that the energy plantation manager should plant a herbaceous species such as sugarcane and leave it there up to 18 months if

possible-before harvest. In addition to maximum fiber he would also harvest fermentable solid as a salable by-product. This reasoning would probably be correct in a tropical ecosystem suited to *Saccharum* species and where a regional tradition exists for sugar planting, However, these circumstances do not exist in many countries having an otherwise good potential for growing biomass. For example, there is no region of the U.S. mainland suited for 12-to 18 month cropping

?of sugarcane, although there are vast regions there suited to some form of tropical grasses. Hence, a future energy planter in Florida, Louisiana, southern California, or southern Texas might seriously consider whether he should harvest a 6 to 8 month crop of sugarcane per annum or two crops of ruder grass in the same timeframe,

?Equally important is the fact that some countries will not be able to afford a land occupation of 18 months by a single energy crop. This is especially true of densely populated, developing tropical nations having an urgent need for domestic food production (32). In such cases a short rotation species such as Sorghum may be the popular choice for energy planting since it can be sown as a stopgap between the harvest of one food crop and the planting of another. In this capacity it would also prevent soil erosion and weed growth while acting as scavenger for residual nutrients leftover from the prior food crop,

?Seasonal climate changes will also be a factor in the rotation of biomass energy species with conventional food and fiber crops. Short-rotation tropical grasses such as Sorghum are ideally suited

---Page Break---

10

to the tropics~but they can be grown on a seasonal basis during the heat of summer in most temperate regions. Such plants could be propagated to maturity in a mid-June to mid-August time

frame, In a given year the same site could produce a cool season food crop (a Brass

species,

spinach) or a cool season forage (ryegrass, fall barley) both preceding and following the biomass energy crop.

(c) Solar Drying, Compaction, and Delivery: A perceptive observer of mainland biomass conferences will recognize a consistent weakness in harvest equipment and harvest technologies for maximized crops of biomass. This is most evident in woody biomass scenarios where conventional forest harvesting technology is either not applicable or simply doesn't exist in the context of silviculture energy plantations. The outlook for harvesting herbaceous tropical plants is considerably better, but a good deal of research remains on harvest and postharvest technology, together with equipment redesign and modification.

The vast majority of herbaceous tropical land plants will have relatively low density stands at harvest (less than 10 green tons/acre) and can be mowed adequately with a conventional sickle-bar mower. Aside from low plant densities its chief limitations are: (a) A requirement for dry, upright stems (it has difficulty with wet, lodged material), and (b) the cutting process is confined to a single slice near the base of upright stems. In other words, it is essentially a mechanized sickle for severing

stems rather than conditioning them for drying. A more suitable harvest implement is the rotary-scythe conditioner, a machine which mows herbaceous plants by shattering the stems at 3 to 5 inch intervals. This implement has been totally effective on mature napier grass stands of about 40 green tons/acre (16,31). It functions nearly as well in lodged material as in upright stems. An added advantage is its relatively trouble-free operation. The number of parts subject to malfunction have been reduced to an absolute minimum.

The solar drying of herbaceous energy crops would be very similar to conventional hay-making operations. For light materials the same rake and tedder designs used in hay making will be quite

adequate, Drying tests with mature napier grass indicate that an added one to two days drying time will be needed owing to the thickness of the plant stems (17,31). Such relatively heavy materials have not been handled well by conventional forage rakes operating from the tractor's PTO system.

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However, it is expected that a different rake design, i.e., the "wheel" rake will perform adequately under these conditions (31),

The baling, or compaction, of light herbaceous materials similarly should pose no serious difficulties. The standard hay baler today is actually a compactor. It produces conveniently-sized cubes having a controlled density range of roughly 12 to 20 pounds/cubic foot. A typical bale would be a rectangular cube weighing 60 to 70 pounds and easily handled by one man in transport and storage operations or in feeding cattle.

A baling machine of more recent design is the "round" or "bulk" baler which performs as a windrow wrapper rather than a compactor. It produces large cylindrical bales weighing up to 1500 pounds each (33,34). Since no appreciable compaction is involved the mass density is relatively low - in the order of 10 to 12 pounds/cubic foot. More recent modifications enable this machine to produce cube-shaped bales which are more economical of space during transport and storage. The round baler has given very good performance with solar-dried Sudan, and with solar-dried napier grass aged up to six months at the time of harvest (17,31). Both front- and rear-end loaders suitable

for handling these bales are marketed as conventional tractor attachments,

?There are two types of balers for sugarcane bagasse: The baling press and the briquetting press (35). The first type is a hydraulic press employing the same compaction principle used for hay. The bagasse is baled in a semigreen state and the formed cubes are tied with twine or wires to prevent them from reexpanding. Their density will range from 25 to 40 pounds per cubic foot. Bales of this type must be stacked carefully to prevent spontaneous combustion, that is, with sufficient space between them to allow air circulation. The briquetting press operates with dry bagasse having a moisture content of 8 to 15 percent. This press provides high pressures in the order of 5,000 to 15,000 psi. Under these conditions extremely compact cubes are produced which retain their form without the use of twine or wires.

For herbaceous biomass that has been solar-dried and baled, it should be possible to deliver it to processing or storage sites without appreciable difficulty with existing equipment. Ordinarily such materials would be loaded directly in the field on a low-bed truck. Standard bales (60-80 Pounds) can be loaded manually or with mechanical loaders requiring only one laborer on the truck (or final positioning of the bales). Bulk bales would be stacked two layers deep on the truck bed

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with tractor-mounted loaders. The same truck would transport the biomass to a final processing or storage facility without intermediate transshipment operations. In the case of sugarcane, the harvested whole stalks or stem billets are hauled in carts to the adjacent mill. The same materials are sometimes carted to an intermediate reloading point for truck delivery to more distant sugar mills.



Delivery costs will vary considerably with the individual biomass production operation. As a general feature, a 30-ton, low-bed truck with driver can be hired for about \$200 per 24-hour day, Loading equipment with operators must be stationed at each end of the delivery run. In an ideal biomass production operation ie, one managed by a private farmer for profit, the land owner would Probably own and help operate the truck and accessory equipment. An estimated delivery cost for solid biomass on a 20-mile run would be \$6.00 to \$8.00 per ton.

(@) Obtaining Correct Cost Data: A seriously misleading tendency is to base the production costs of a herbaceous biomass candidate on its published yield performance as a conventional food or fiber crop. Yet, this is done routinely by otherwise highly qualified analysts (36,37,38,39). Sugarcane is an appropriate example. In Puerto Rico, sugarcane managed for sucrose yields 25 to 30 billable tons per

acre year at a cost of about \$600,00/acre (41), As an energy crop it can yield 80 to 90 tons per acre year with only moderate increases in production costs (40,41). Napier grass data are similarly misleading. There is a wealth of printed matter on the yields of napier grass managed as a tropical forage crop, that is, when harvested repeatedly at five or six-week intervals at moisture contents approaching 90 percent. As an energy crop, napier grass produces roughly two to three times more dry matter per annum at less cost than the cattle forage (16,40).

The concept of an "energy plantation," especially as applied to herbaceous plants, raises the

spectre of intensive production operations, a continual forcing of lush green plants to production levels beyond their usual means, and a frequent coming and going of assorted machines, all with sinister implications for the land and environment. Our own experience with tropical species indicates that just the opposite will happen (16,31,40,41). The decisive factor is the acceptance of herbaceous species as sources of dry matter rather than as food or forage commodities. This means

that the plants' maturation phases rather than human activities will be the main source of increased yield. The increased inputs of water and nutrients are actually extensive rather than intensive

---Page Break---

13

factors; a disproportionately greater time lapse is allowed for these to be assimilated in growth and maturation processes. The presence of heavy equipment will be reduced by more than half. Expenditures for transportation, fuel, labor, pesticides, seed, and seedbed preparation will also be lowered by a significant fraction. Land rentals, plus pre- and postharvest land maintenance costs,

will be about equal to conventional food- and forage-cropping operations. There is no point in the herbaceous energy plantation scenario where one can perceive clearly the producer doing more; there are many points where he is doing less. Again, it is largely the plants inherent capacity to make dry matter, and the grower's good sense in allowing them to do so, that validate the energy plantation as a correct and profitable enterprise.

## TROPICAL LEGUMES

### 1, The Need For Alternative Nitrogen Sources

(Cost and energy balance data for tropical grasses managed as energy crops underscore an imperative need to lower inputs of chemical fertilizer, particularly nitrogen-bearing fertilizers (16A0AL). A characteristic feature of the tropical grasses is their need for a significant input of nitrogen (N) to maximize yield (40,4243). For sugarcane, fully half of the total energy expenditure in optimizing dry matter can be traced to elemental N (41). Unfortunately, Puerto Rico must import her nitrogen in the form of nitrates, ammonium sulfate, and urea, at a time when both the manufacturing and importation costs of these sources are mounting drastically. Since the early 1960's the local sugarcane industry has been underutilizing mineral N owing to high fertilizer costs. Since 1974 these charges have become all but prohibitive for adequate field management of the cane plant

The option of developing tropical legumes as a local N source was an attractive concept for Puerto Rico more than 25 years ago (44-48). Little was done by way of investigating the co-production of legumes and tropical grasses, although some work was done on soybean

intercropping with food crops (46,49,50). A rather extensive range of wild, hardy, and highly-adaptive legumes was almost entirely overlooked as potential N resources. Even today some of the most productive herbaceous legumes on the island (*Phaseolus* spp.) are widely regarded as

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4

weeds and are destroyed by pre- and post-emergence herbicides.

## 2. An Underexploited Tropical Resource

The number and diversity of wild tropical legumes

is surprisingly large even to experienced

plant taxonomists. This is the consensus of a recent study by the US National Academy of

Sciences (51). An initial NAS listing of 150 "promising" species was quickly expanded to 400

species when brought to the attention of plant scientists throughout the world. As the study

progressed, an additional 200 species were nominated as potentially valuable resources for

developing nations. From a total of over 600 candidate legumes nearly half received top ranking by

at least one plant scientist. This is clear reflection of legume adaptability to the variations of soil,

rainfall, temperature, and sunlight found in the ecological life zones of the world's tropics

(51,52,53).

## 3. Puerto Rico's Native And Imported Legumes

A large number of legume species, both herbaceous and woody, are found in Puerto Rico but their modern taxonomy remains obscure. In part this relates to an inherent difficulty in distinguishing clearly between species at the genus level. Moreover, while individual scientists have shown periodic interest in the wild legumes there has been no concerted effort by Island research institutions to evaluate this family as an agricultural resource (54,44),

The earliest systematic survey of PR legumes dates back 75 years. It was published by J. R. Perkins as a Contribution to the U.S. National Herbarium (55), and is based on collected specimens obtained by the Royal Botanical Museum of Berlin. Perkins also used materials collected by Urban. She generally followed the nomenclature of Watt, Urban, Cook, Collins, and other reliable authorities of that period, but did not work with specimens in the field. Significantly, the editors of the "Contributions" series initially delayed publication of this work in anticipation of a complementary study on "agricultural relations" of Puerto Rico legumes. The latter did not appear and Perkins' work was published as a separate account

Perkins described 67 genera and 141 species of legumes in Puerto Rico. An apparent lack of endemic species was noted. Only one genus (*Stahlia*), with eight species, was considered native to

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Puerto Rico. Most were common to the Antilles, Central America, and South America. In 1974, Woodbury and coworkers (56) compiled a list of indigenous Puerto Rican legumes consisting of

three sub-families, 24 genera, and about 50 species (Table 4). Nodulation was extensive in both acidic and neutral soils. Nearly all of these species were thought to have potential agricultural value (56)

The entry of new legumes into Puerto Rico probably dates to the interisland movements of pre-Columbian times. The Caribs are thought to have used plant materials for food, shelter, tents and clothing (57). The process was definitely accelerated by the steady arrival of Europeans in the sixteenth century. In nature, a discrete species could be confined to a single hill, or require many centuries to spread even to its preferential habitats on the Island (57). This process was also speeded

up by the advent of roads and human commerce throughout Puerto Rico. In recent decades the entry and dispersal of new species could have occurred in a matter of hours. This is particularly true of small-seeded forms accompanying farm produce as "weeds," or as totally unnoticed occupants of highway vehicular traffic. For example, the species *Phaseolus lathyroides* is quickly discernible along roadsides and refuse areas in virtually every Puerto Rican town and district.

#### 4, Potential Co-Production With Tropical Grasses

An immediately attractive concept for tropical legume exploitation is their use as biological N sources for tropical grasses. Certain legume species would contribute an appreciable quantity of cellulosic biomass as well. Alternatively, some biomass potential in tropical grasses could be sacrificed in selecting candidates especially well suited for coproduction with legumes.

From prior observation there appear to be at least 80 to 100 wild legumes having some potential for either coproduction or intercropping with tropical grasses. The real number is probably much larger. Some of the more obvious legume candidates include species of the genera

Glycine, Phaseolus, Sesbanta, Desmodium, Lespedeza, Vigna, Leucaena, Acacia, Puereria, and Cassia

(Table 5). These range in size from small vines and bushes to semidwarf trees. All would be managed

as herbaceous N sources, including woody species in their juvenile growth period. Each category has

4 potential contribution to make in the production of short, intermediate, or longrotation tropical grasses (Table 5).

---Page Break---

16

Many additional legumes could be imported for evaluation as energy crops. As many as half of the 600 species identified by NAS (S1) are potential candidates. Examples of these include Medicago, Lathyrus, Coronilla, Cofanus, Crotalaria, Sesbania, and Vicia. Some are only partially represented on the Island, while others, such as the "Colorado River Hemp" (*Sesbania exaltata*) have only recently come to the attention of local biomass researchers. Certain legumes not ordinarily classified as "tropical" would be fully accepted if they serve the needs of tropical grasses

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table 1

PHYSIOLOGICAL ATTRIBUTES OF SACCHARUM  
AND ALLIED GENERA

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Table 2

SEASONAL INFLUENCE ON DRY MATTER YIELD 1/

X Of Total Yield, For ?

Period Sugarcane Napier Grass

Joly 15?tov, 15 47.0 36.6

Nov. 15?Mar. 15 18.0 22.8

Mar. 15?July 15 34.9 40.7

Af Mean of two ratoon crops.

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Table 3

DRY MATTER YIELD vs HARVEST FREQUENCY

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Interval Wo. of BY (Tons/Acre  $\times$ z) For

ths) Harves! pier

2 6 ut 3.6

4 3 23.4 9.7

6 2 274 15.9

2 1 2.5 29.0

A Average of three crop years (31).

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{MOFTCAL LEGS CLASSIFIED AS THOLGENONS TO PUERTO RICO (1974)

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Figure 2

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CARSON tUTADINE

° roe

LoI DIAGRAM OF A LICNOCELLILOSrE CHBCAL PLANT

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28

Figure 2

YATURATION CURVE FOR SORDAN 70A. WEEKS 8 TO  
10 ARE CRITICAL FOR DRY MATTER.

---Page Break---

29

Figure 3

Period of

Tissue Maturation

DRY MATTER (%)

eriod Of

?Tissue Expansion

0 30 30 Pry 30

AGE OF SPECIES

A schematic representation of the maturation profile of herbaceous plant species. With the visible growth phase (tissue expansion) essentially complete, the energy planter will gain much more dry matter by allowing a brief additional time interval to elapse before harvest.

---Page Break---

30

FIGURE 4

DRY MATTER (%)

v0 26 30 co 30

## AGE OF SPECIES (WEEKS)

Relative maturation profiles for Sordan 70A,  
Grass, and sugarcane over a time-course of one year,

These plants are representative of the short  
rotation,

rapid

+ intermediate

and long-rotation cropping categories, respectively.

---Page Break---

## TROPICAL FORESTS AS A PUERTO RICAN ENERGY SOURCE

>

>

Presented To The Symposium

>

## FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

> November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

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---Page Break---

---Page Break---

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?TROPICAL FORESTS AS A PUERTO RICAN ENERGY SOURCE

?Table of Contents

Topic

INTRODUCTION

CURRENT RATES OF STORAGE AND PRODUCTION OF ORGANIC MATTER IN  
PUERTO RICAN FORESTS,

PAST RATES OF PRODUCTION AND STORAGE OF ORGANIC MATTER BY  
PUERTO RICAN FORESTS

FEASIBILITY OF USING NATURAL FORESTS FOR ENERGY PRODUCTION

CONCLUSION

LITERATURE CITED

FIGURES

TABLES

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

?TROPICAL FORESTS AS A PUERTO RICAN ENERGY SOURCE

## INTRODUCTION

The rate at which ecosystems produce and store organic matter is dependent upon environmental conditions. In tropical environments with adequate moisture and fertile soils, production of organic matter and storage of biomass are both high. Higher storages of organic matter but slower rates of production are characteristic of very wet environments. In arid environments both storage and production of organic matter are low. Brown and Lugo (1981) have described these patterns which are summarized here in Figs. 1 and 2, Figure 1 shows the patterns of organic matter storage according to Life Zone designation, and Figure 2 shows the pattern of organic matter production in terms of rates of litter production according to Life Zone. Due to the close relationship of these parameters with Life Zone,

it follows that the Life Zone composition of

the country is an important factor

in its natural ecosystems.

Therefore, determining the potential biomass yield for energy purposes of

the forest ecosystems of humans can alter the rates of production and storage of organic matter of forest ecosystems within certain limits.



its by using a variety of management techniques. For example, by selecting the  
?Proper species and overcoming environmental Limiting factors, rates of organic matter production  
can be accelerated, Thus, irrigation makes up for the lack of rain in arid environments and  
fertilization may help overcome the poor fertility of leached soils in wet environments, The higher  
yields thus obtained are not free and they must be considered in relation to the costs associated  
With overcoming environmental limitations. This is particularly true for energy procuring systems  
which must be proven to yield net energy

In Puerto Rico we have forests representative of 6 of the 30 forested tropical and subtropical  
Life Zones (Ewel and Whitmore 1973), The distribution of these Life Zones sets an upper limit on  
the potential production and storage of organic matter that the Puerto Rican forest stands can  
Produce and sustain. Within each Life Zone there is a great diversity of plant associations and  
successional stages that further modify what the island forests can, and actually do, produce in  
terms of organic matter. The fact that we have 164 separate soil series (Lugo-López and Rivera

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1977) repres

ted in the 880 thousand hectares (ha) of the island, provides an i

of the potential

Diversity of forest types in Puerto Rico. It is not our objective in this paper to analyze this diversity of forest types but, instead, to calculate the amount of organic matter now stored and being produced by the forests of Puerto Rico, to look at the changes in organic matter storage that have occurred in our history as a result of changes in land uses, and to determine the feasibility of using forests for biomass energy production,

#### CURRENT RATES OF STORAGE AND PRODUCTION OF ORGANIC MATTER IN PUERTO RICAN FORESTS,

From the work of Ewel and Whitmore (1973) we know the Life Zone distribution on the island (Table 1). The most recent forest inventory (1973) by the Department of Natural Resources shows that forests cover 375.8 thousand ha or 41.5% of the island. We do not know the Life Zone distribution of these forested areas. However, we assumed that: the very wet Life Zones (Rain, Lower Montane Rain, and Lower Montane Wet) are completely forested, and that the remaining forested areas are distributed by the same proportions that the Life Zones are distributed (i.e. 61% Moist Forest, 25% Wet Forest and 14% Dry Forest). The resulting distribution of forest area in Puerto Rico is given in Table 1,

Using the regression equation

ions in Fig. 1 and areas of forests in Table 1, we arrive at the estimates of storage of organic matter in Table 2. The results show that the moist and wet forests store the largest amount of organic matter with the Moist Forest Life Zone storing almost twice as much organic matter as the Wet Forest Life Zone and more than half of the total storage for the island. Within a given Life Zone the soil may store from almost as much organic matter as the vegetation to about less than half as much. For the island as a whole, the organic matter storage in the soil is 33% of the total

Using Table 1 we multiplied forest area estimates by rates of organic matter production in order to estimate the potential organic matter production of the forests in Puerto Rico. Two calculations were made (Table 3). The maximum production possible, or gross primary production, was calculated from data reported in three studies done in Puerto Rico which used CO<sub>2</sub> exchange methods (Dugger 1978, Lugo et al. 1978, Odum 1970), Net primary produ

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equivalent to the actual amount of organic matter stored by plants after all their respiratory demands have been met, was estimated by assuming that net primary production was twice liter

production (Brown and Lugo 1981), Litter production was obtained from Dugger (1978) and Fig.

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Gross primary production on unit area basis peaks in the Rain Forest Life Zone and is lowest in the Dry Forest Life Zone. On an island-wide basis, the Wet Forest Life Zone contributes the most 1.08 primary production (52%). The Moist Forest Life Zone is second and the other Life Zones exhibit negligible amounts. The rates of net primary production are an order of magnitude lower than gross primary productivity. This is a reflection of the high respiration of tropical vegetation. The Moist and Wet Forest Life Zones account for almost all (90%) of the net primary production of the island's forests. However, on a unit area basis, the differences among Life Zones are small (the range is 10-14 tons per hectare per year (t/ha.yr) with the exception of the Lower Rain Forest and Dry Forest Life Zones which exhibit much lower rates of net primary production (about 4.5 t/ha.yr),

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In Table 4 we reconstruct the known history of forest cover in Puerto Rico. This is necessary to estimate past rates of storage and net production of organic matter by our forests. The highest estimates are for the period prior to the discovery when the island was nearly all forested. The maximum potential of storage ( $208 \times 10^6$  t) and net production ( $8.5 \times 10^8$  t/yr) of organic matter that can be expected from the island's natural forests occurred at the time of the island's discovery. The lowest estimates occurred early in the century when Puerto Rico was highly dependent upon the land for food and energy. Since then, forest storage and net production of organic matter has approximately doubled with much of this recovery of forests occurring during the last 20 years or

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## FEASIBILITY OF USING NATURAL FORESTS FOR ENERGY PRODUCTION

?As a starting point of this discussion we will use the present (1973) net organic matter

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4

production potential of  $3.8 \times 10^6$  t/yr and an organic matter storage of  $94 \times 10^6$  t for the island (Table 4), Because Dry Forests are slow to recover from any disturbance and very wet forests on slopes are difficult to harvest physically and economically, we will reduce the storage and net organic matter production values to  $84 \times 10^6$  t and  $3.4 \times 10^6$  t/yr, respectively. However, the net production value includes leaves and roots which we estimate present 60% of the net production, leaving  $14 \times 10^6$  t/yr available for use in the form of wood.

In previous analyses of forestry potential in Puerto Rico, Wadsworth (personal comm.) has suggested that  $344 \times 10^3$  ha of land in Puerto Rico is suitable for pine (*Pinus caribaea* var. *ondurensis*) production. These forest lands are located in the Subtropical Moist and Wet Life Zones. Assuming all these lands were available for pine plantations, annual wood production would be  $6.1 \times 10^8$  t/yr (Table 5), However, 56% of these lands are now forested, leaving  $153 \times 10^3$  ha available for reforestation with pine. These would yield  $2.7 \times 10^6$  t/yr (Table 5), if they were ?covered with pine plantations.

?The energy consumption in Puerto Rico was  $88.6 \times 10^{12}$  kcal of fossil fuels in 1973 (Sincher-Cirdona et al, 1975) and  $90.2 \times 10^{12}$  kcal of fossil fuels in 1979 (Office of Energy, Personal comm.). Using the island's 1979 energy consumption and the forest production values

shown in Table 6, one finds that in terms of heat equivalents, the best we could expect from the forests would be 30% of today's total energy consumption. To achieve this rate of energy production (30% of the total), much of the island would have to be planted with pine or with any species that produced organic matter at a similar rate (Table 4). If the energy production through forest biomass is corrected for quality in order to get a better idea of the capacity of the fuel to do work, we could expect 15% of the total island's energy demand to be satisfied by plantations [Natural forests could yield 4% of today's total energy demand (in fossil fuel equivalents) and a combination of natural forest and plantations could yield 10% of the fossil fuel equivalents used today in Puerto Rico.

The above calculations may appear conservative because we have not used all available forest lands to produce biomass for energy. Yet, lands that were not included are not suitable for fast biomass production because they are too dry or too wet. We have also not included levees and roots in the calculations because these should be left behind to maintain site fertility through

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decomposition, Their use to generate energy would be questionable anyway. Also, we have only used the net energy production of the forest lands in the calculations and have not included the

standing crop of biomass energy stored in the forests. It is very important that Puerto Ricans do not depend on the standing stock of wood in the forests, but rather adjust demand to the forest's annual net production. The standing crop of wood (about 75% of total biomass in vegetation) now present in the forests amounts of a fossil fuel equivalence of  $159 \times 10^{12}$  kcal or enough to supply current energy demand for 1.8 years. However, once destroyed, this standing crop could not be replaced for another 20-50 years during which time the island would be deforested and without the use of its forests. To avoid this catastrophe, the energy demands on the forests of the island must be proportional to the rate of annual production by the forest, and its standing crop of biomass must be protected.

If the analysis of energy need vs. forest production of potential energy is based on electric demand alone, a brighter scenario can be predicted. The justification for such an approach is that a significant fraction of the total energy consumption in Puerto Rico is in forms that would be hard to satisfy using wood (e.g. gasoline for vehicles). However, the use of wood for electric generation is a more realistic use of the resource. The approximate total electric consumption in Puerto Rico in 1978 was  $11 \times 10^{12}$  kcal of electricity or  $44 \times 10^{12}$  kcal of fossil fuel equivalents (about half of the total energy consumption of the island). Using results from Table 6 we find that plantations could satisfy 31% of this demand in terms of fossil fuel equivalents and the combination of natural forests and plantations could supply 21% of the electricity demand (also in fossil fuel equivalents).

When the island turns again to forests for energy, we will have to decide on the use of plantations vs. the use of natural forests. We will not address in this paper which alternative is the best. However, one advantage of plantations is the rapid rotation which allows for the production of significant amounts of wood in a short time (10-12 years). Natural forests also produce high amounts of biomass in a short time (13-15 t/ha.yr in the first 6 years, see Brown and Lugo 1981), but not as much in the form of wood. Ultimately the decision will have to be made based on such

criteria as the net energy yield of each alternative and implicit in the net energy yield calculation, the environmental cost of maintaining productive plantations year after year, Our ability to make an adequate calculation along these lines at this time is ni,

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## CONCLUSION

In summary, the energy future of Puerto Rico is bleak, particularly in light of the current high rate of fossil fuel consumption on the island and the expected increases in the price of oil. Earlier in history the island was dependent upon its forests and lands for food and energy. We can learn much from the energy use strategy of the island at this time.

In Table 7 we summarize the energy use and energy sources of Puerto Rico in 1910 when the island had a population density of 125 people/km<sup>2</sup> or 34 times lower than today. At that time, the energy use of Puerto Rico was 70 times lower than today's and the energy source was solar in contrast with the predominance of fossil fuels of today. By comparing the energy use of 1910 (Table 7) with the energy production potential of our forests in Table 6, it is clear that with adequate forest management, the forests of Puerto Rico could have supplied all the energy demands

of the island. Table 6 shows that the forests of the island have the capacity to meet all this demand. However, at the time of Murphy's study, the forests were being cut three times faster than they were growing. At the time, the island imported about 90% of its wood demand. By 1916 (Table 4) the island had lost 79% of its forest resources.



What we learn from this historic record is that without management, and in spite of a low population density (relative to today?

), natural forests can disappear very quickly (in less than 15, years, according to Murphy 1916). This loss occurred because demands on the land exceeded the land's capacity to convert solar energy. One hopes that we learned a lesson in land management and that the degraded conditions caused by senseless use of the land do not return to Puerto Rico in the future. However, the small amount of energy that can be concentrated via forests relative to the current uses of fossil fuels means that standards of living must decline when fossil fuels disappear from the market. As this happens, there will be efforts to maintain an abnormally high intensity of energy use by harvesting standing forests. But, to avoid serious longterm harm to society, forest cover must be protected and only the annual rate of organic matter production, not the storage, should be used. This annual rate of production adds up to a maximum of 15% of the 1979 energy demand and 31% of the electrical demand (both in fossil fuel equivalents). Since these calculations are based on high yields obtained in experimental plantations, it is likely that actual values are much lower.

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Organic Matter Storage (t/ha)

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PET /P (mm/mm)

Relationship between total organic matter storage and organic matter storage in vegetation and in soils grouped into Life Zone groupings, and potential evapotranspiration to precipitation ratio (PET/P).? The equations describing the relationships are significant ( $p = 0.05$ ) and are: total organic matter storage (t/ha) =  $625 - 281 \times \text{PET}/P$  ( $r^2 = 0.99$ ), organic matter storage in vegetation (t/ha) =  $392 - 169 \times \text{PET}/P$  ( $r^2 = 0.90$ ) and organic matter storage in soil (t/ha) =  $224 - 112 \times \text{PET}/P$  ( $r^2 = 0.96$ ).  
From Brown and Lago (1988),

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Litter Production

Fig. 2.

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PET/P (mm/mm)

Relationship between total Litter production and leaf Litter  
decomposition and potential evapotranspiration  
(PEP). From Brown ?

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Table 1. Areas of Life zones and forests in mainland Puerto Rico, 1973

Life zone \* are Forested Areas

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\* aan are euberopical.

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Table 2. Storage of organic matter in Puerto Rican Forests

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rors, 94.2 43.6 16.6

?\* PEr/P = Focential evapotranepivation to precipitation ratio for the wid

Diurnal temperature and precipitation values of Life Zone (c.f. Brom

and Lugo 1980 for details)

© From regressions in Fig. 1.

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12

Table 3. Production of Puerto Rican Forests

Life Zone Gross Primary Production Net Primary Production \*

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Fein Forest

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\* rocinated as 2 x leaf Litter production (Brom and Lugo 1981); Litter production data are from Dogger (1978) and Brom and Lugo (2981), © ope et at. (2978).

usser (978)

dun (2970).

© xcrapolaced (by eye) fyon relationship between PEI/P ratio and gross

peinury production of the 4 other Life Zones.

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?Table 4. Historical trends in the etorege end production of ortanie

seatter in Puerto Rican Forests.

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pate Forest Area" Sn Vegetation Production

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as 178.78 45.5 1

1950 ass.2f 54.9 2

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\* We assumed very wet Life Zones (Rain, Lover Montane Rain, Lover ootane

Wet) were always forested and che rensining forested areas were dle

tributed by the same proportions the Life Zones were distributed:

?From PET/P ration in Table 2 and regcessfon in Fi

from net primary production estimates ( $\phi$ /ha) See Table 2.

?Assumes 95% of the island forested and

ed area was in Hoist

Forest Life Zone.

Zon and Sparkhavke (2923).

Puerto Rico's Department of Natural Resources Inventory Program.

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Plantations in Subtropical Hoist and Wet Forest Life Zones See

Puerto Rico (Kadevorth, pers. coms.)

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S0f1 Conditions 05h) Producti

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shallow clay loses % a8

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?Using 19.5 ¢ dry weight/ha.yr for deap clays and 16 ¢ dry weight/haye for

?sandy and shallow loans (not including bark).

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?Toble 6. Energy content of Monaas production in forests of Puerto Rico.

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Forest Type asco Proguotion

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16

areas used in Puerto

Table 7. Energy consumption and types of energy

data in 1909. Data are from Murphy, 1916.

Type of Energy Source and Fossil Fuel,

Equivalent Equivalence?

Unit x 10<sup>8</sup> Unit x 10<sup>6</sup>

Year

Electricity 6,055 088

Anthracite coal 25,01 275,001

Coke 0 0

Oil 0 0

Other? 3,016 21

Total Fossil Fuels 286,301.4 286 501.4

Solar Toes

for commercial use 6,059,248,409

for domestic use 1,468,403,334

Total Solar Pole 1,818,327,909,163

Total Energy Consumption  $1.20 \times 10^{12}$  kcal forest fuel equivalents.

for Fuel/Forest Fuel 6.8 a7

used 1.0 kcal heat equivalent of wood = 0.5 kcal of fossil fuel (Odum and

Brom, 1975).

Assumed to be fossil fuels with heat equivalence of  $6.385 \times 10^6$  kcal/t.

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vi

Keynote Address

POTENTIAL COSTS AND BENEFITS OF A PUERTO RICAN CANE INDUSTRY

ORIENTED TO FUELS AND ALCOHOL

Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

Dr. Gary D. Martin, Director

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San Juan, Puerto Rico

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"The sugar fields of the Caribbean are worth more than all the gold in Peru." This observation, was made in the 17th century. Since that time gold has risen greatly in esteem while sugar has been on the decline. Nowhere has that decline been as steep

in Puerto Rico in recent years where the area planted has dropped from over 390,000 cuerdas (.97 acre) in 1952 to less than 90,000 cuerdas at present. One doesn't have to project the trend line very far to see the end of sugar in Puerto Rico, has rung up through the yea

to be just a matter of pulling the plug on its life support system.

?specially considering the losses that the Sugar Corpo

?There are many who will welcome its passing for reasons other than elimination of the red ink,  
Like King Cotton in the southern states, sugar never matched in human terms its contribution in

economic terms, Because of the nature of it

introduction, cultivation, and processing, very few of

?the people most closely associated with its production were ever able to live good life on account  
of sugar. From the beginning it depended upon large amounts of involuntary labor or the labor of  
very desperate people. Cutting cane by hand was~and still a very unpleasant task and those who  
did it were assured of an income only a few months of the year. Worst of al for the general welfare,  
the income went mainly to those who owned the land and others who owned the sugar aftr it left  
the land.

?The expression ?sugar island? has connoted an overpopulated, poverty-stricken, racially mixed  
up, socially uprooted, politically explosive society dominated by a few powerful figures from within  
?and without. Seldom has the wealth generated by sugar served as a springboard, or what the  
?economics call an ?export base,? for genuine economic development. The Virgin Islands, whose  
European and African settlement was predicated upon sugar, have now abandoned the crop

completely with hardly a regretful look back. National leaders from Cuba to Barbados have vowed to purge the captivating weed from their islands, but sugar keeps hanging on and coming back.

Sugar comes back because demand for it continues to grow around the world causing the price to soar every time there is a temporary supply setback in some important sugar producing areas. In this, it is hardly different from all commodities, whether they be rice, beans, coffee, coconuts, cinnamon or soybeans. Right now we are on one of those upward spirals as the price of sugar has risen from 8 cents to 42 cents per pound in the last 17 months. But this very volatility of price ultimately constitutes just another page in the catalog of the ills of sugar. Small national economies heavily dependent on this one commodity ride the same kind of prosperity:poverty cycle over long,

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Periods that the sugar worker experiences every year,

Sugar also hangs on because of the miraculous quality of the crop itself. In the words of Dr Alex Alexander, "Sugarcane (Genus Saccharum) is the finest living collector of solar energy which functions on a year round basis to store this energy in forms of fermentable solids and fiber." This remarkable ability of sugar to collect and store solar energy in huge quantities

per acre of land has

been at the root of its success as a luxury human consumption crop, and this property portends extremely favorably for its continued success in the world and its revival in Puerto Rico. Translating the amazing biological productivity of sugar cane into economic terms, Erich Zimmerman made an

estimate in the 1940's that the proceeds of the sale of Puerto Rican sugar extracted from the cane grown on one acre bought in terms of corn, oats, rice, wheat, dried beans, and potatoes, the products of 8.2 acres in the continental United States. At today's sugar price, the ratio might well be high

For a host of reasons I'm sure I will not be able to list them all~Puerto Rico in the 1980's is the right place at the right time for sugar, not for sweetness, but for fuel. Going down the list of sugar's ills, one can see that they would not or need not apply if the crop is grown for fuel.

First, as a fuel, sugar would free itself of the curse of commodities, the rising and falling of price on the world market. At least for the foreseeable future the price of energy is going only one way, up. This would be an excellent way for an oilless island such as Puerto Rico to hitch a ride on OPEC's wagon.

Next, whatever happens to sugar's price, the island economy has grown too big for sugar ever to be as dominant as it has been in the past. There is no reason for it to become an export again. Using Combustion Equipment's estimates of energy output in its proposed 15,000 acre project, even if we could plant the acreage of 1952 again, we could replace only 20% of our total petroleum imports in 1978. The domestic market is more than big enough to absorb all that could be produced.

Alternatively, as the Center for Energy and Environment Research envisions, the liquid portion of the cane could be used to satisfy the needs of the local rum industry, which are significant, and again the output is tied to a product whose price is not subject to the vagaries of world commodity markets. Either way the product is used, it becomes an integral part of our modern economy rather

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than an anachronistic appendage standing in the way of development.

Perhaps the most welcome departure from the past offered by an energy cane regime is the possibility of operating the sugar mill throughout the year. In the year just completed the average grinding period for the 7 mill still operating was 112 days with an average time lost of 42 days for a final effective average of 70 days out of the 365. In a society geared to year-round work and the 40-hour week one must wonder what our 3,000 sugar mill workers do the remainder of the year, or anyone could afford to keep them on the payroll for 365 days.

With regard to another of sugar's traditional evils, Puerto Rico has already recognized the bad social consequences of too great a concentration of ownership of the land, and this has been dealt with. There are legal safeguards against the re-emergence of massive corporate control of the Puerto Rican patrimony.

In any energy cane project, we must be sure that they are adhered to,

Continuing on the positive side of the ledger, alternative fuels of this type are very high on the national agenda in the United States, the idea being to lessen dependence on imported oil. The 1.6 billion dollars that Puerto Rico spends annually on foreign oil weakens the dollar and lowers U.S. living standards every bit as much as would the same purchases by the state of Kansas. Electoral votes aside, there is just as good a reason for the United States Department of Energy to support energy self-reliance in Puerto Rico as in the mainland. Perhaps, with Puerto Rico's growing strategic importance in the Caribbean, there is even more reason.

The recent agricultural emphasis in Puerto Rico has been upon food production to substitute for imports. Given the high level of local food purchasing power and the high cost of transportation of many food items, this policy makes a great deal of economic sense. Where freshness is of paramount consideration it also makes sense to produce some items that can be imported more cheaply. The fact that 56 percent of agricultural income in Puerto Rico in 1979 was made in the import-substituting commodities of meat and dairy products is an altogether healthy development. We can apply the same logic and make similar inroads into the vegetable and fruit produce section of the supermarkets.

But we should also recognize the limits of any food-import-substituting policy. Unless the people are willing to accept a drastic change—one might say reduction in their standard of living, Puerto Rico will continue to import most of its food. One need only take a stroll through the local

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4

supermarket and ask himself as he goes through, "Could that product be made here? If so, should it be made here? If it were made here, how much would it cost to persuade people to buy it?"

Product by product the would-be Puerto Rican producer finds himself up against companies which, for a wide variety of reasons, have risen to the top in a tough game of survival of the fittest. The two main advantages most of these companies have over the would-be Puerto Rican producer are economies of large scale production and superior resources for product design and marketing. The first advantage stems from the relative proximity of abundant land, well suited for certain temperate zone food crops, on which very capital intensive techniques can be used. The second advantage is a function of the wealth and experience of the companies. We can match neither of these in the foreseeable future,



[As a substitute for imports, fuel from sugarcane would have some definite advantages over food. We would continue to cultivate a proven tropical crop. We could then sell the final product in the deflated market. The food market

far more competitive, Fuel would not be faced with the brand-name identification problem, Suitably priced it will sell. And the need to substitute for fuel, imports is even greater than for food, in 1979 we imported \$1.78 billion in fuel versus \$1.20 billion in food.

Biomass for energy has also been compared unfavorably with food on moral grounds and on employment grounds. Addressing the moral question first, we must admit that a great deal of the energy created would be wasted. Working in buildings whose design necessitates heavy air conditioning expense and simmering in traffic jams reminds us constantly of the squandering of energy. But at the same time, energy is an important part of all our necessities, our vital transportation, our shelter, our clothing, and, indeed, our food.

We should be reminded, furthermore, that not one of the big three money crops in Puerto Rican history could be regarded as a necessity, those being sugarcane, coffee, and tobacco. The widespread cultivation of grains for animal feed in the United States is also an extremely wasteful

use of land, nutritionally speaking. And a recent news report stated that the premier agricultural

state in the United States, California, may now count as its principal money crop marijuana. From a monetary standpoint, people can do, and have done, a lot worse things with their land than producing energy.

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5

(On the employment question, I think we must face the fact that no modern agricultural project will generate the same level of employment per acre as did traditional agriculture, nor will it create the same number of jobs per acre as does sugar production currently. The only way that could be done would be for us to turn back the clock in wages and living standards, or for the government to provide massive subsidies as it is currently doing through the Sugar Corporation. [Even with considerably less employment per acre, total sugar related employment could be increased over time, as land that had been in sugar before is put back into sugar. Of equal importance is the fact that the jobs would be year-round and, if the project is basically sound, the jobs would be much more secure and better paying than are most agricultural jobs at present. Our main consideration in the revitalization of agriculture should be restoring productivity in economically sound projects, not the number of jobs we can sustain per acre of cultivation.

We arrive, then, at the basic question to be answered, "Is the growing of sugarcane for the purposes of energy economically sound? Will it yield a sufficient return on investment to be worthwhile for a private company?"

I don't think anyone can answer that question with complete assurance at this time. We won't really know until it is tried on a commercial scale in Puerto Rico. The numbers I have seen tell me that such a project would have a very good chance to succeed. If biomass for energy makes sense anywhere in the United States, then sugarcane in Puerto Rico does. It is the most energy-efficient

crop yet tested and Puerto Rico is the best place under the U.S. flag to grow it. If its time has not

yet come, it soon will,

fuel prices continue in their inexorable upward course,

Finally, we must recognize the very large stakes in the world energy game. Our supplies of food, mainly from the United States, are relatively secure, One need only open today's newspaper to be reminded that our supplies of fuel are not. We are still experiencing an energy crisis even though the word is no longer in vogue, Puerto Rico is accustomed to looking to the United States for leadership in time of crisis. We now have the opportunity, with successful biomass-to-energy project, to provide leadership for the United States. We should not pass up that opportunity.

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THE DECLINE OF SUGAR REFINING IN PUERTO RICO: HISTORY

AND PRESENT OUTLOOK

Presented To The Symposium

## FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

?November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

M.A. ROMAGUERA & ASSOCIATES

?Mayaguez, Puerto Rico

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## DECLINE OF SUGAR REFINING IN PUERTO RICO: HISTORY

?AND PRESENT OUTLOOK

Mariano A. Romaguera/

Mechanical Engineer, and Consultant

'PR Sugar Corporation,

OVER a period of years, output of the Sugar Industry in Puerto Rico has experienced @ decline?from a peak of 1,310,000 tons of mw sugar produced in 1953 to a production level in 1980 that was slightly over 176,000 tons. Major factors in this decline have been:

+ Lack of agricultural labor caused in part by the migration of workers to the continental U.S.

?+ Forced field mechanization without a logical transitional period.

+ Deterioration in the performance of cane varieties resulting in lower yields in tons cane/curia and in sucrose content nthe cane. This deterioration has ben teceleated by Although production of raw and refined sugar usually go hand in hand in the sugarcane Industry, ths has not been the casein Puerto Rico, Refined sugar production was linked directly to the capability of selling the refined product to the mainland and this capability was restricted; the federal goverment set limits on the amount of refined sugar that was permitted to be sold to the continental U.S. in order to assure large marketshare to mainland refiners. Even at the time of peak raw sugar production, Puerto Rico refined a maximum of slightly over 240,000 tons, and although raw sugar production has plummeted to roughly 15% of its former level, refined sugar ?output has only decreased to about 40%,

1s 1943 there were six refineries producing refined sugar, some utilizing the Suero Blanc process, others using activated carbon. At present, there are two refineries operating with ample ?capacity to produce over 160,000 tons of refined sugar.

## PROBLEMS OF PUERTO RICAN REFINERIES

?The decline of raw sugar production indirectly affected the operation of the existing refineries.

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The intermittent grinding, due in part to field mechanization problems and the necessity of continuous operation in refining, caused excessive consumption of fuel.

ue to agricultural problems, the quality of the raw sugar left much to be desired. We have ?been plagued by low filtrabilty, aw sugar of very high colors, high ash content, and poor overall performance. Since our existing refineries are ted up to our raw sugar houses, we are forced to accept this low quality rime material,

Our local refineries, contraty to those in the Continental U.S.A., make only one grade of supa. This means that our refineries cannot get by with second grade liquors that can be utilized by

various indust

\*. This places an added burden on our existing facilities,

## PRESENT OUTLOOK

?Whether we like it or not, the problems analyzed here will not pass away. The sugar industry  
outlook as a whole is one of restraint, Our Government is embarked on an agricultural  
diversification program that allocates enough land for cultivation of sugarcane to produce roughly  
the same amount of raw sugar we produced this year. The main purpose will be to supply our basic  
needs plus a small reserve, and the present production fits allright. Refined sugar will tend to  
?maintain its present position, that is, « production level of around 110,000 to 130,000 tons of  
?refined sugar, which is ample for our present needs.

?The world market's latest projections indicate a sustained low production for the next two to  
three years The cost of producing raw and refined sugar has increased three-fold in hind world  
countries. This means that the present world market price for raw sugar, around 40 cents per  
Pound, will not come down as it did in 1975 after the 63 cents per pound peak. Puerto Rico  
experienced her greatest cost increases in the decade of 1970 to 1980. It is expected that this cost,  
although not stable, will rise proportionally at a lower rate than that of the rest of the world,

Unless our local Department of Agriculture has a change of priorities, refined sugar production  
{in Puerto Rico will maintain its present level. It is expected that, at present, changes in the refineries  
will improve somewhat; sugar could be produced in a single refinery, depending on the availability  
of sugarcane in the specific area.

Although the present outlook is one of a very limited nature, present projections do not

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envision an increase in production. Statistical curves on production of raw and refined sugar have bottomed out. It is expected that this low plateau will maintain a stable; even line for the immediate future,

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MARIANO A. ROUAGUERA & ASSOCIATES:

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?THE ENERGY CANE CONCEPT FOR MOLASSES AND BOILER FUEL.

Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Pusrto Rico

?November 24 and 25, 1980

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?THE UPR CENTER FOR ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT RESEARCH,

Biomass Division, Rfo Piedras, Puerto Rico

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

3

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?THE ENERGY CANE CONCEPT FOR MOLASSES AND BOILER FUEL,

?Table of Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

ENERGY CANE IN PERSPECTIVE

Yield And Cost Considerations

2 Juice Quality And Sugar Yield

MAXIMIZING ENERGY CANE BIOMASS

1. The Worst Case Scenario

2. The Best Case Scenario.

?YEAR-ROUND PRODUCTION

Maitiole Species Management

4. Integration Of Maturity Profiles

## B. Solar Drying vs Mechanical Dewatering

### 2 Alternative Products From Energy Cane

#### a. Fiber Product Alternatives

#### ' . Sucrose And Fermentable Solids

SUMMARY

REFERENCES

?TABLES

FiguRES

B

18

---Page Break---

?THE ENERGY CANE CONCEPT FOR MOLASSES AND BOILER FUEL

?Alex G. AlexanderL/

ead and Senior Scientist, CEER-UPR Biomass Division

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ABSTRACT

SINCE 1977 the US. Department of Energy has sponsored research in Puerto Rico on sugarcane and other tropical grasses managed specifically as renewable energy sources. The term

?energy cane? refers to sugarcane that is managed for its total growth potential rather than sugar.

?The energy cane concept is basically a concept of management rather than of varieties, species, or

taxonomy. Averaged yields from three crop years indicate that more than 80 tons of millable cane can be produced per acre year, Production costs are in the order of \$10.12/ton of millable cane, or about \$840,00/acre year. Juice quality was low but sugar yields averaged about 5.5 tons sugar/acre (ESA). Yields for both biomass and sugar were appreciably higher for energy cane than for conventional sugarcane in Perio Rico, Production costs were higher on a per act bass but lower per ton of cane.

?While the energy cane studies are far from complete, the implication of present data trends is

quite clear: Whether the PR sugar industry intends to produce sugar, molasses, or biomass, its goals can best be met by managing sugarcane as a biomass energy crop rather than a sugar crop.

?Terresent address: UPR Agricultural Experiment Station, P.O. Box 781, Rio Piedras,

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## ?THE ENERGY CANE CONCEPT FOR MOLASSES AND BOILER FUEL.

### INTRODUCTION

?THE TERM ?energy cane? was coined in 1979 by Dr. Amador Cobas! while preparing a symposium paper on alternative uses of sugarcane (1). He had observed, correctly, that sugarcane studies by CEER-UPR were emphasizing total biomass for energy rather than raw sugar, refined sugar, or molasses,

It seems ironical that sugarcane is a better producer of biomass than sugar. As an agricultural entity we have long associated this plant with the commercial sweetener sucrose. However, as a botanical entity, sugarcane is first and foremost an effective collector of solar energy. It is a solar

collector that operates day and night, 24 weeks per year, to convert sunlight to storage carbohydrates. Its botanical ?preference? is to store this energy in the structure of new plant tissues (Giver) rather than to accumulate it as soluble sugars (fermentable solids). Rarely, however, do growth-regulating factors such as climate, water, and nutrients allow sugarcane to sustain growth at maximum rates.

In the upshot, sugarcane produces both fiber and fermentable solids in considerable abundance. The conventional sugar planter (with an eye for sucrose and backstrap molasses) will

tend to constrain new tissue growth beyond that amount which is needed as a storage vehicle for sugar. For the energy planter the tissues themselves are a prime objective and a salable commodity of potentially great importance. Hence, the energy cane concept is basically a concept of management. It is a concept of revised management for an existing plant resource, but one that focuses clearly on the energy-converting capabilities of sugarcane.

## ENERGY CANE IN PERSPECTIVE

Sugarcane planting for energy will differ from conventional sugar planting in several ways: (2) yields will be higher and production costs lower; (b) juice quality will be lower and sugar yields higher; (c) the harvest season will be longer (approximately 8 months in Puerto Rico); and (4)

W Romer President, University of Puerto Rico, Presently Constant to the PR Energy Office  
CEER-UPR. + ¥ ~ and

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Energy cane will be one of several tropical grasses contributing to year-round biomass utilization operations.

### 1. Yield And Cost Considerations

As @ worldwide average, sugarcane planted for sugar yields about 22.6 tons of millable cane/acre year (Table 1). Puerto Rico's average yield is moderately higher at around 28.0 tons/acre

year. This is a deceptive figure, however, since it reflects some adverse conditions prevailing in the



industry today rather than the yield potential of the plant itself. For example, Puerto Rico's cane yields in the years immediately preceding 1936 averaged 45 tons of cane/acre year (2). These yields

were obtained with varieties much inferior to those available today.

Many reasons can be given for the modest cane yields shown by our sugar industry in recent years. It can be argued, for example, that it simply costs too much to plant sugarcane in Puerto Rico today. The average hourly wage has risen from 16 cents in 1939 to over \$3.00 in 1981 (Table 2). Depending upon one's source of information, it cost between 22 and 35 cents to produce @ Pound of sucrose in Puerto Rico during 1979. During the same period sucrose was priced between 12 and 15 cents/pound on the world market,

Today's sugarcane production operations in Puerto Rico cost approximately \$600.00 per acre year for "primavera" cane. The position taken by energy cane advocates is that yields can be more than doubled with production inputs costing only about 10% more than present operations, ie, approximately \$900,000/acre year. The decisive factor would be the management of production operations for maximum biomass rather than sugar. The higher tonnages realized from energy cane

would also yield an appreciable quantity of sugar even though rendement values would be relatively

low,

Since 1977, under sponsorship of the U.S. Department of Energy, CEER-UPR has conducted research on sugarcane and other tropical grasses managed specifically as energy crops (3,4, 5).

Total

dry matter is the decisive yield parameter rather than sugar or cattle feed. Controlled variables

have

Included varieties, row spacing, harvest frequency, fertilization, and water supply. Averaged yields for three crops (the plant crop plus two ratoon crops) indicate that more than 80 tons of millable cane can be produced per acre year (Table 3), Production costs are in the order of \$10.12/ton of

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9

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millable cane, or about \$840,00/acre year (Table 4),

The energy cane studies in Puerto Rico are far from complete; however, results to date very strongly suggest that the yield and cost data from Puerto Rico's commercial cane industry are not a true indicator of sugarcane's potential as a local energy resource. Rather, they appear to be an artifact of Government policy and other circumstances unfavorable for the continued planting of cane as a sugar crop in Puerto Rico,

## 2. Juice Quality And Sugar Yield

An important feature of energy cane management is the continuous forcing of growth

roveses and crown expansion. There is no clearcut period of growth decline, maturation, and natural ripening such as that which characterizes the final months of a wellmanaged sugar crop. A primary need of the cane plant at this time is to hydrolyze sucrose to invert sugars; these in turn serve as sources of carbon and energy for the structuring of new plant tissues. Relatively little sucrose accumulation is expected in the plant's storage tissues,

Four analyses for three crops of energy cane verified the relatively low quality of these plants for a sugar crop (6). There were variations among crops, varieties, and row spacing, but sucrose content rarely exceeded 8.0 percent for any treatment/. Average Brix and fiber values were in the order of 12 to 14, and 16 to 18, respectively,

In computing sucrose yields on a per acre basis (tons sugar/acre, of TSA), the poor quality of cane was effectively compensated by the high tonnage of millable stems. The three-crop averages for standard and narrow row spacing were 6.04 and 5.13 tons sugar/acre, respectively (Table 5). Narrow.

Row spacing is already eliminated as a practical consideration for Puerto Rico, so a superior-yielding capability of about 6.0 TSA is assumed for energy cane.

It should be noted that a sucrose value of 6.0 tons/acre year is more than double the yield attained by the PR Sugar Corporation in recent years. A yield of 4.0 TSA would be considered good by present standards. It should also be noted that the 6.0 TSA value for energy cane refers to sugar in the field, not sugar that has been recovered in the mill. Low yields by the PR Sugar Corporation for TW Variety NCo 310, a standard row spacing in the first ratoon crop, yielded the highest sucrose content to date at 10.26.

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are less a reflection of sugar in the field than of inadequate harvest equipment and procedures used in recovering this sugar (15), For energy cane, it is believed that by combining a continuous whole-cane harvester (the Klass Model 1400, or a suitable modification of this machine) with revised management of harvest operations, a sucrose recovery of at least 70% will be obtained, If so,

«final sugar value in excess of 4.0 TSA could be realized for energy cane. This would exceed by a significant margin the sucrose yields presently obtained by Puerto Rico's sugar industry.

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## ?MAXIMIZING ENERGY CANE BIOMASS

### 1, The Worst Case Scenario

?The cost

timates presented in Table 4 represent a ?worst case? scenario in which indicated costs are higher than an energy planter would reasonably expect to pay. There are several reasons for this: (a) The assumed production operation is that of a private farm family having only 200 ?acres planted in energy cane. This family would need to hire major equipment items (cane planter, cane harvester, delivery trucks) together with licensed equipment operators. (b) A private farmer ?will not ordinarily charge himself for ?and rental? and ?management? (items 1 and 14, Table 4). ?These two entries make up about 15% of the total production cost (c) No Federal credits or

subsidies are considered for this operation. As a future alternative fuel enterprise in which one or more products are for fuel substitutes the energy planter could be eligible for some level of government support,

A fourth reason relates to the use of yield averages rather than practical yield trends. The energy cane yield shown in Table 4 is an average figure derived from several varieties, row spacings, and cropping years. An energy planter is a practical man, not a statistician; he will employ the superior variety, row spacing, and cropping interval for his region. In this instance the superior variety is NCo 310, at standard row spacing, yielding 92 tons/acre of millable cane as opposed to the average figure of 83 tons/acre actually used in making the cost estimates,

A fifth reason was the omission of energy cane trash as a biomass yield component. In the cane sugar industry the term "trash" refers to leaf and leafsheath tissues that have desiccated and detached from the sugarcane stem. During the course of a year an appreciable quantity of trash will

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5

accumulate. This material is normally left in the field or eliminated entirely in a pre-harvest burning operation. Energy cane studies by CEER-UPR (6) indicate that significant tonnages of trash are produced both by sugarcane and napier grass (Table 6). For variety PR 980 the trash component

made up more than 23% of the total dry matter yield (Table 7). In future energy cane enterprise {in which cellulosic materials are a valued product the trash will be harvested and credited to the total biomass yield. Moreover, because trash can be solar-dried and baled independently of cane-milling and bagasse-drying operations, production costs for the trash fraction could be significantly lower than the costs for millable cane.

## 2. The Best Case Scenario

As noted above, a revision of field management objectives is vitally important in attaining the maximum biomass yields from sugarcane. It is equally important to recognize that the experimental energy cane yields obtained to date are only a fraction of the ultimate yield potential for energy cane. From 1977 to 1980 we were obliged to use the best conventional cane varieties then available

in the sugar industry (3, 4, 5). Each of these varieties had been bred for sugar planting rather than energy planting. Even if one uses the most productive variety and row spacing, forces growth with increased water and nutrient inputs, and credits trash to the total yield, the maximum output would be around 90 millable tons/acre year, or about 33 dry tons/acre year. It is very probable that the upper yield potential for energy cane lies in the order of 150 tons of millable cane and 50 tons of dry matter per acre year.

The potential for yield improvement through hybridization of *Saccharum* is indeed enormous. The interspecific cross, which is known in a limited number of crop plants, is common among the extant species of *Saccharum*. The intergeneric cross, extremely rare among agricultural plants, is relatively common between *Saccharum* and other genera of tropical grasses. Hence, controlled crosses for increased yield proficiency can be made between *Saccharum* and such diverse genera as

?Sorghum, Erianthus, Miscanthus, Zea, Sclerostachya, Pennisetum, and Bambusa (7-11, 14),

Within the genus *Saccharum* the potential for yield improvement is similarly much greater than is generally recognized. Ironically, the genetic make up of most commercial sugarcane derives from

only five or six gametes from among thousands within the genus *Saccharum*; other genera that will

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6

Crosses with *Saccharum* contribute nothing at all (12, 13). Cane breeding programs still utilize germplasm from the ancient Indonesian variety 'Kassoer' and *S. sinense* germplasm from 'Chunnee' and 'Co 281'. Some breeding programs have no *S. robustum* germplasm from any source in their parental lines. Arceneaux (11) notes that we have 'barely scratched the surface' of the known *S. spontaneum* pool, while many authorities have complained of the sparseness of *S. robustum* and *S. sinense* germplasm in modern interspecific hybrids. As aptly stated by Price (13), "the great diversity of wild plants that hybridize with sugarcane has been sparsely used."

In terms of production input costs the yield gains expected via cane breeding should be largely free. For example, the production inputs already expended in attaining 83 tons of energy cane (Table 4) represent a kind of input plateau, beyond which additional expenditures would not be needed irrespective of the variety or species being grown. Critical inputs such as 400 pounds of elemental nitrogen/acre year, or 4.5 acre feet of irrigation water/acre year, are optimized factors to be utilized more effectively by future hybrid canes. Basic charges for seedbed preparation, labor, harvest and delivery operations, and a range of capital investments will change proportionately little

as productivity increases from 80 to 150 tons/acre year.

Absolute yield increases are not the only improvements to be gained through *Saccharum* hybridization. Additional benefits could include: (a) Increased disease resistance; (b) increased tolerance to insect pests (c) improved suitability for mechanical harvest; (d) improved suitability to extended harvest season; and (e) improved composition (higher sucrose and  $\alpha$ -D-glucans, lower ash and sulfur). There are potential benefits of even greater importance. Examples of these include an increased adaptability to marginal land and rainfall regimes, and an increased tolerance to cool climates.

## YEAR-ROUND PRODUCTION

### 1. Multiple Species Management

Under tropical conditions the year-round production of tropical grasses is both botanically and agronomically feasible. In temperate and subtropical countries, climatic factors dictate that biomass must be produced on a seasonal basis. For a tropical nation to do so would be a gross

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mismanagement of its finest natural resource,

In Puerto Rico and most other sugarcane growing countries sugarcane is grown on a year-round basis, but it is harvested and milled on a seasonal basis. Puerto Rico's present milling season covers a

6-month period from January through June. Individual mills operate only three to five months since there is insufficient cane to maintain a longer grinding season. Hence, the long "down time" for PR sugar mills constitutes an uneconomical use of some very expensive capital investments. Similarly, a conventional sugar mill is a less than optimal source of feedstocks for biomass processing and utilization operations requiring year-round inputs,

An important feature of energy cane management would be the lengthening of milling operations to about eight months. For Puerto Rico this period would extend from early December to early August. The increased yields of millable cane would enable the energy cane industry to 40-40; in fact, cane could be ground almost continuously through the year if sufficient tonnages were available. In Puerto Rico this would not be practical owing to the heavy rains which occur from August through November. Nonetheless, the sugar mill itself could be used continuously as a center for biomass drying, processing storage, and electrical power production,

(c) Integration Of Maturity Profiles: As indicated elsewhere (16), sugarcane, like other herbaceous plants, must be harvested after a period of tissue maturation in order to maximize its dry matter yields. Energy cane will require at least 12 months between harvests to complete its tissue expansion and maturation processes. A whole range of planting and harvest dates must therefore be planned and coordinated by field managers in order to assure an 8-month input of millable cane,

To assure a year-round input of mature biomass, energy cane production would be integrated with several other categories of tropical grasses. The energy planter would produce a series of short,

intermediate, and longrotation species having chronologically-distinct profiles of maturation. The profiles of three such species (Sordan, napier grass, sugarcane) are graphically illustrated in Figure 1.

By this means, botanically mature biomass could be harvested at 2- to 3-month intervals for Sordan, at 4 to 6-month intervals for napier grass, and at 12-to 18-month intervals for energy cane (Table %).

---Page Break---

8

(b) Solar Drying vs Mechanical Dewatering: As diagrammed schematically in Figure 2, energy cane would supply about 2/3 of the annual feedstock input for a proposed processing and Utilization center for tropical biomass (17). This cane would be partially dewatered in a conventional mill tandem, and then further dehydrated by use of waste stack heat. The remaining 1/3 of the incoming feedstock would consist of thin-stemmed, fibrous, non-sugar bearing tropical grasses. These would not be sent to the sugar mill for dewatering; rather, they would be solar-dried and baled in the field as part of the harvest operation. The baled material would have a moisture content of approximately 15 percent. It would be sent to the processing plant for storage and subsequent utilization during the 4-month period when no energy cane is being milled. This biomass can be supplemental with a range of miscellaneous materials, ie, weeds, roadside clippings, tree branches, crop residues, et. (Figure 2).

?There are many advantages of multiple species usage as biomass feedstocks: (a) The year-round ?sowing season is utilized to the maximum possible degree; (b) an energy planter can capitalize on the divergent growth habits of discrete tropical species; (c) solar drying can contribute as an economical means of water removal; (d) dry biomass is made available as an alternative fuel each day of the year; (e) sugar mill facilities are maintained in operation for a longer period of time; (f) employment is increased in field and factory operations; and (g) new jobs are created for rural suppliers of supplemental biomass (For offseason processing)

## 2, Alternative Products From Energy Cane

?The energy cane concept was first proposed to the Commonwealth Government in 1979 (17), ?sentially as a sugar mill modification project as diagrammed in Figure 2. At that time Puerto Rico was in growing need of two products from energy cane: (a) Fiber, as a boiler fuel substitute for, and (b) fermentable solids as a feedstock for the local rum industry (18). Both products are more ?gently needed today than they were in 1979,

(a) Fiber Alternatives: Several new options emerged during the past year for energy cane Utilization, It is improbable now that the fiber components would be burned directly in sugar mill furnaces for electrical power production. CEER-UPR has received repeated inquiries on the

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availability of tropical grasses for pelletized fuel manufacture. The same materials may have a role as backup fuels for Puerto Rico's future coal-fired power plants. Because of new developments in cellulose conversion technology (19), bagasse or solar-dried tropical grasses might eventually serve as fermentation substrates.

Of considerable interest to CEER-UPR are recent advances by Combustion Equipment Associates, Inc, in the development of powdered biomass fuels that can be burned as an oil substitute in existing oil furnaces. One CEA product, AGREFUEL, apparently can be manufactured from sugarcane bagasse and other tropical grasses. CEER-UPR has joined with CEA and the Battelle-Columbus Division in seeking Federal support for feasibility studies on the production of AGREFUEL from tropical grasses in Puerto Rico and Florida,

(c) Sucrose And Fermentable Solids: The total diversion of energy cane sugars to high-test molasses, as indicated in Figure 2, would be reconsidered in the light of recent price increases for sucrose on the world market. Less than a year ago sucrose was valued at only 14 cents/pound while local production costs exceeded 20 cents/pound. Under these circumstances it was advisable to send the entire sucrose component of energy cane to the rum industry as a constituent of high-test molasses,

At this writing (October, 1980) the value of sucrose has risen to 41 cents/pound. Under  
\_Present circumstances it could be profitable to recover part of the sucrose for local consumption or  
{for sales abroad. This might be accomplished at minimum cost by retaining the "first strike" at the  
sugar factory, representing perhaps 60 percent of the sucrose contained in the raw juice. The  
remainder would go to the rum industry as a component of a moderately lower quality high-test  
molasses,

## SUMMARY

It is in the production of dry matter rather than sugars or nutritive components that the tropical  
"casses" most naturally excel. An appropriate example of this is seen in the genus *Saccharum*. Of the  
six extant species of this genus, only one (*S. officinarum*) has any appreciable aptitude for storing  
sugar, but the entire group of species is proficient in producing dry matter. Even the high-sugar

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10

yielding members of *S. officinarum*, given a warm climate, an adequate soil, and high inputs of  
water and nutrients, will opt to produce biomass rather than sugar.

Energy cane is sugarcane managed to maximize its growth potential rather than sugar. The U.S.  
Department of Energy has sponsored energy cane studies in Puerto Rico since 1977. Although this  
work is not complete, data trends for three crop years indicate that yields of both biomass and  
sugar can be increased appreciably over those obtained in recent years by the PR Sugar  
Corporation,

Production costs were higher on a per acre basis but lower per ton of cane, owing to nearly

?threefold increases in yield, Similarly, juice quality values for energy cane were lower than  
?conventional sugarcane, but sugar yields/acre (TSA) were higher by virtue of the increased cane  
tonnages.

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---Page Break---

43

9

Table 1

MILLABLE CANE PRODUCTION POTENTIALS

9

Parameter Tons/Acre Year 2/

World Average 22.6

9 Puerto Rico Ave. (1979) 28.0

FR Energy Cane (1980) 83.0

Estimated Theoretical 2/ 12.5

A/ Without trash. 2/ N. I. Janes (20), 1980.

9

9

9 Table 2

## HOURLY KAGES IN PR CANE INDUSTRY

° Year average (\$/tiour) ¥/

1939 0.16

1957 0.35,

1968 0.69

1977 2.10

1981 3.19

A/ US Dept. of Labor, 1980.

2) Estinated,

\

\

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4

Table 3

AVERAGE MILLABLE CANE YIELDS AT  
STANDARD & NARROW SPACING

Tons/Acre At Row Spacing

crop 4/ 15050 ce

Plant 75.8 1S

First Ratoon 92.0 90.2,

Second Ratoon 84.0 84.3,

Mean 83.9 82.0

A/ A2-nonth harvests. Average of

Three varieties

---Page Break---

US

tebe 4

[PRODUCTION COSTS FOR MILLABLE SUGARCANE MANAGED AS aN ExEacY caop 2/

lend Aes: 200 Acres

Production Interval! 22 Yonths

Millable Cane Yield: 83 Short Tons/Acre; Total 16,600 Tone

cont dnalyase

cost (sites)

Land Rental, at \$0.00/Aere 30,000

2, Seadbed Preperation, at 15.00/here 3,000

3. Water (500 Acre Feet at 25.00/tt) 12,000

4. Rater Applicetion, at 48.00/Aere Year 9,600

5. Seed (For Plane Crop Pus Two Fatoon Crops),

1 Ton/here Year at 15-00/Ton 3,000

6, Fertilizer, at :80,00/Acre 36,000

1. Pesticides, at 26.50/Acr® 5,300

8. Harvest, Including Equipment Charges,

?Equipment Depreciation, And Labor 20,000

9% Day Labor, 2 Man Year (2016 tre at 3.00/hr) 2/ 6,048

30. cultivation, at 5.00/Acre 2,000

My Land Preparation & maintenance (Pre- Post-Harvest) 600

22, Delivery, at 2.78/ton/3 Nites of Haul 46,200

33, Subtotal: 152,706

me 120% of Subtotal 15,275

a 168,023,

36, Cost /Ton (168,003 + 16,600) 10.2

37, Cost/acre (168,003 = 200) 840.15

LU bor contract no. DE-ASOS-TeerZ0071.

I Labor which is not included in other costs

---Page Break---

16

Table 5

AVERAGE TONS SUCROSE/ACRE (TSA) AT

STANDARD & NARROW SPACING



TSA, At Row Spacing v-

crop 150 cm 50 cm

Plant 5.38 4.29

First Ratoon sis3 Sta

Second Ratoon 6:20 5.69

Mean 6.06 5.13

A/ Average of three varieties.

Table 6

TRASH YIELDS BY CANE AND NAPIER GRASS 1/

Species Variety Dry Tons/Acre Year

cane PR 980 6.81

No 310 an

PR 64-1791 4.276

Napier Grass Merker 3.20

?? Oe TT

A/ Average of three 12-nonth erops and two row

Spacings.

---Page Break---

a7

Table 7

0

TRASH YIELD AS % OF TOTAL CROP

trash of

° Variety (& of Total mo

BR 980 23.5

No 310 35.5

PR 64-1791, 16.7

Napier Grass M8

A// Average of three 12-month erops

land two row spacings.

Table 8

o

CATEGORIES OF TROPICAL GRASSES FOR BIONASS

LEE SRRSSES FOR BIOMASS

type Maturation Time

° Category Species Gtonths)

Short Rotation Soréan 77 23

Intermediate Rotation Napier Grass 4-6

Long Rotation Sugercane 12-18

---Page Break---

18

Figure 1

Sugarcane

DRY MATTER (X)

o © 20 30 7% 30

## AGE OF SPECIES (WEEKS)

Relative maturation profiles for Sordan 70k, napier  
Brass, and sugarcane over a time-course of one year.

These plants are representative of the short, interne:  
Giate-, and long-rotation cropping categories, respectively.

---Page Break---

Figure 2

FIELD OPERATIONS

SOLAR-DRIED GRASSES

?75% GREEN CANE: 8 MONTHS

1000 TONS/DAY =?\_\_|

COGENERATION ?SUR BAGASSE

PLANT BIOMASS DRYER +

BAGASSE: 8 MONTHS

\*

WIGH-TEST MOLASSES

if ?i

BIOMASS FUEL STORAGE ?CROP RESIDUES

?WOODY SPECIES

Integration of energy cane and other biomass sources to  
?produce a year-round fuel supply for an industrial-scale cogenera-  
tion plant, plus high-test molasses for the production of rus.  
Basically modified sugar mill, major innovations found in Field  
Operations and the Biomass Dryer make possible the continuous  
operation.

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?SOIL AND WATER MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS FOR ENERGY CANE PLANTATIONS

Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

?November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

?THE UPR DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL ENGINEERING

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---Page Break---

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# SOIL AND WATER MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS FOR ENERGY CANE PLANTATIONS

?Table OF Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

SUGARCANE RESPONSE TO WATER INPUTS.

?THE NEED FOR IRRIGATION TO OPTIMIZE GROWTH

?THE NEED FOR DRAINAGE TO OPTIMIZE GROWTH

?A SOIL AND WATER MANAGEMENT SYSTEM FOR ENERGY CANE

SUMMARY

REFERENCES

FIGURES



---Page Break---

## Soil And Water Management Concepts For Energy Cane Plantations

William F. Allison!

Head, UPR Department Of Agricultural Engineering

Mayaguez, Puerto Rico

### ABSTRACT

WATER inputs approaching that of pan evaporation are essential to the growing of sugarcane for biomass production, as the crop growth responds directly with water inputs to this level. Excessive water retards growth, requiring surface and subsurface drainage along with good irrigation management. A soil-water management system must be compatible with the mechanical harvesting system which generally requires a smooth flat soil surface that can be accomplished by land forming and grading followed by precise planting and cultivating.

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present address Department of Agricultural Engineering, Mayaguez Campus, Mayaguez,

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## INTRODUCTION

SUGARCANE has for centuries been recognized for its large growth potential as well as for its high content of fermentable solid, including sucrose. Therefore, when the need arose to develop alternative fuels and chemical feedstocks that will substitute for fossil fuels sugarcane became one of the prime candidates and has proven to be one of the superior candidates in climatic zones in which it is suited. However, water, along with the warm climate, is a basic need of the crop. The growth rate and production of sugarcane are directly related with water availability and management,

## ?SUGARCANE RESPONSE TO WATER INPUTS

Within limits, the growth of sugarcane responds directly with soil water availability, requiring approximately 137 kg of water to produce one kg of dry matter (5), as presented in Figure 1. Generally, the plant is unable to survive in nature and produces its minimal crop when annual rainfall is less than 1000 mm (40 inches). As water inputs increase above minimal to equal pan evaporation, sugarcane growth increases in a direct relationship. As water availability begins to exceed pan evaporation, growth tends to decrease (4), as illustrated by Figure 2.

From Figure 2, one can conclude that water inputs equalling pan evaporation result in the

highest levels of production, with higher rates of water inputs reducing production just as lower rates do. Therefore, when water

abundant and cheap, a water input equaling pan evaporation is

ideal. However, when water supplies are in short supply or expensive, the proper input is about 86 percent of pan evaporation, since reduction in water input of 14 percent only causes about 5 percent reduction in growth,

Research has clearly shown that excess soil water reduces production from 30 to 60 percent (G,6), depending on the degree of water excess. Normally, sugarcane responds to the lowering of the

water table to depths of 75 to 100 cm, with the greatest response occurring from lowering of the water table from the soil surface to 75 cm,

Thus, to obtain high production of sugarcane, inputs of water should be in the order of 85 to 100 percent of pan evaporation during the growing period when the plant has a full leaf surface. There should be lesser inputs at crop initiation and toward maturity, as shown in Figure 3. Also in

---Page Break---

2

lands having subsurface drainage problems, water tables should be held below 75 cm, and when fertigation is the major source of water, then water tables should be maintained below 100 cm and preferably below 180 cm. This is because of soil salinity problems that are invariably associated with irrigated agriculture,

Sugarcane with its extensive root system is able to fully utilize the water storage capacity of the soil and thus does not respond to light frequent applications of water as well as to larger quantities applied less frequently. This was very capably demonstrated by Ewart in Hawaii (2). This ability to utilize the soil water storage capacity generally lowers the cost of irrigation because irrigation cost is normally associated with frequency.

#### THE NEED FOR IRRIGATION TO OPTIMIZE GROWTH

As previously discussed, sugarcane needs water constantly; however, few climates provide this constant input of water even in humid areas. This is because rainfalls generally seasonal, with dry periods exceeding 120 days being quite common. Usable water storage in the soil seldom exceeds 15 to 20 cm, with monthly demands of the crop being on the order of 8 to 17 cm, depending on the stage of growth and season of the year. As can be observed from Figure 3, the crop demand exceeds the probable rainfall of the south coastal plains of Puerto Rico every month of the 45 month top level, except for the first four month period when the crop is initiated. Even this slight precipitation excess can be stored in the soil for future use or preferably utilized to leach the excess salts from the root zone that have accumulated from irrigation. Figure 3 clearly illustrates the need for irrigation to give suitable levels of production and to provide for the survival of the plant. The 3400 mm of rainfall over the 45 month crop cycle, if totally effective, would only produce about 126 tons of dry matter (56 tons/acre, or about 15 tons/acre year), and more likely only about 100 tons/ha. With adequate irrigation the production should be on the order of 277 tons dry matter/h. This represents an increase of 177 percent with an input of approximately 4070 mm (160 inches) of effective irrigation.

Similar comparisons can be made of the other climatic zones of Puerto Rico, but the greatest need for irrigation is along the southern coastal plains from Guayama to Boquerón. However, during certain periods of the year, water deficiencies exist throughout the island

---Page Break---

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### THE NEED FOR DRAINAGE TO OPTIMIZE GROWTH

As has already been discussed, water

necessary input to make sugarcane grow. However, too much water in the system has a depressing effect on production. Thus, both surface and subsurface drainage is required to adequately manage the water resource to optimize production. In an area severely affected by both surface and subsurface drainage near the mouth of the AMASCO River, on the Island's west coast, this author supervised research and field trials in 1968-70. The production history of this area was in the order of 16 tons of dry matter/ha/year.

With a

quate surface drainage, the production was increased to 33 tons/ha/year, and with both surface and subsurface drainage the production rose to \$6 tons dry matter/ha/year, an increase of some 40 tons/ha, with 23 tons attributed to subsurface drainage, Similar results were obtained on the north coast near Vega Baja.

#### ?A SOIL AND WATER MANAGEMENT SYSTEM FOR SUGARCANE AS A BIOMASS CROP

In the past, suarcane has been managed for the production of sucrose. The factory lereley controled the quality of the feedstock delivered for processing. The miller demands raw material high in sucrose, clean, and containing only sufficient ber to provide process energy. Namely, the miller wants only the mature portion of the stalk, fre of sil, leaves tops, and trash, As a biomass cop the objectives become the production of fiber as well as fermentable solids, of which sucrose is only apart and not the controlling portion,

Soil fertity, tit, and structure, along with varieties and management, re just as important as water in the growing process; however, the harvesting of the crop is also highly important. A silwater management system for biomass production must be compatible with mechanical harvesting.

?The mechanical harvesting of sugarcane for its sucrose isa formidable tas, especially withthe

traditional mores associated with past culture. As a biomass crop, to mechanically harvest the total above ground portion of the crop becomes even more challenging, especially at first glance.

?mechanically harvesting are caused by field practices, such as furrowing and ditching, along with the

---Page Break---

4

separation of the tops, leaves, and other undesirable material from the stalk that contains the ?sucrose. Furrows are especially undesirable in the mechanical harvest for biomass production since

?they trap and tend to hold plant material that may fall into the furrow, making harvest more difficult and dirty. Separation of the so-called extraneous material may not be required for biomass ?harvest as this material has an energy value that is greatly reduced when dropped on the ground and soil is picked up when harvesting this residue, The soil contributes to the ash content in the processing and utilization of this material.

?Therefore, for biomass production, field surfaces need to be uniform and flat. This requires land forming and grading for irrigation and drainage, With land forming, irrigation can be easily accomplished with border irrigation, which just happens to be the most economical method of supplying irrigation water (8). On land unsuitable for land forming the center pivot or wheel line system of sprinkler irrigation may be use.

Harvest is best accomplished when the top 45 cm of the soil is dry, because harvest equipment

can severely compact the soil and materially reduce production of succeeding crops, Subsoiling can give temporary relief for soil compacted by the harvest equipment, provided the compacted soil is relatively dry. The subsoiling of wet soil may be of no benefit and can even create a more severe problem.

Harvesting systems have been developed that can harvest the biomass energy cane provided they have been made as part of the planning and management process. Bringing the whole plant to the mill greatly simplifies field harvesting and in Puerto Rico would probably have little effect on mill performance. In many cases, harvesting the whole plant would probably enhance milling, as soil content could be almost eliminated by having flat field surfaces and never dropping the crop on the ground,

## SUMMARY

Sugarcane growth responds to water and soil management. A fertile soil in good physical condition in Puerto Rico can produce approximately 27 tons of dry sugarcane biomass per month when provided with adequate water management, Irrigation is required throughout the Island to maximize production, but the south coastal plains having the least rainfall give the highest returns

---Page Break---

5

to irrigation. The north, east, and west coastal plains require both surface and subsurface drainage to remove excess water. Biomass plantings need to facilitate mechanical harvesting which can be greatly enhanced by preparing flat uniform field surfaces.



---Page Break---

6

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---Page Break---

Kg of Water Used

150

100

° 200400 800 3000~= $\ll$ 3200-??= $\ll$ 4400

Grams of Dry Matter

Fig. 1. Dry matter produced in a controlled environment compared to water used. (Redrawn from Jen-lu Chang et al.).

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Percent Relative Production

0.6 08 1012

Relative Water Availability

Fig. 2, The effect of water availability on cane

production

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HYBRIDIZATION OF TROPICAL GRASSES FOR FUEL AND ALCOHOL

Presented To The Symposium

## FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

(Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

?THE UPR CENTER FOR ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT RESEARCH

?Biomass Division, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico

---Page Break---

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## HYBRIDIZATION OF TROPICAL GRASSES FOR FUEL AND ALCOHOL

?Table of Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

TROPICAL GRASSES AS AN ENERGY CROP

Biomass Potentials

2 Alcohol Potentials

GENETIC POTENTIAL FOR BIOMASS IN SACCHARUM

1, Initial Evaluation Of Saccharum spontaneum

2 Second Generation Candidates

HYBRIDIZATION PROGRAM FOR SACCHARUM

1. The 1978 Breeding Season

2 The 1979 Breeding Season

?CONCLUSION

REFERENCES

TABLES

---Page Break---

HYBRIDIZATION OF TROPICAL GRASSES FOR FUEL AND ALCOHOL

Tetvting Chul!

Plant Breeder And Director, AES-UPR Sugarcane Breeding Program

?Gurabo Substation, Puerto Rico

ABSTRACT

IN VIEW of the increasing interest being directed toward the tropical grasses as a renewable

energy source for Puerto Rico, a review is presented of our initial exploration of the genetic potential for biomass in the tropical grasses, with special reference to the genus *Saccharum*. The potential parental material, combinations, and the preliminary evaluation of performance for hybrid vigor for biomass production rather than sugar are discussed. On the basis of available information it is believed that there are extensive opportunities for the plant breeder to develop new biomass resources within *Saccharum* and the allied tropical grasses. These can be developed through breeding and selection specifically for the attributes of high yield for total dry matter and fermentable solids,

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---Page Break---

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## TROPICAL GRASSES AS AN ENERGY CROP

PUERTO RICO'S dependence on imported fossil energy has spurred local interest in energy

resources that are both renewable and domestic. Among energy alternatives for Puerto Rico, the US, National Academy of Sciences has identified biomass as the most important renewable energy source for the Island's intermediate future (17). If managed as a major agricultural activity, NAS estimates that up to 10 percent of Puerto Rico's electricity could derive from biomass fuel. CCEER-UPR estimates are considerably higher (20).

## 1. Biomass Potentials

Species such as sugarbeet, casava, maize, sweet sorghum, and tropical grasses have been recently as candidate crops for the production of boiler fuels and alcohol (2,6,10,11,12,15).

However, considering the Island's needs, climate, and historical background, the tropical grasses have probably the largest potential as an energy crop for Puerto Rico. Within this group of species sugarcane is widely reputed to be a relatively efficient collector of solar energy. It can perform

stu

solar energy collector on a year-round basis in the tropics and seasonally in subtropical regions @,10,10.

The tropical grasses are well qualified to produce biomass. The maximum growth rate (dry matter production) for C3 plants has been placed at 34 to 39 g/m<sup>2</sup>/day, while C4 species such as sugarcane, corn, and sorghum can produce up to 40 g/m<sup>2</sup>/day (13). Thompson (16) estimates that



Irrigated sugarcane should have a photosynthetic efficiency of 1.7 percent; rainfed cane in South Africa has an efficiency of about 1.1 percent. These figures correspond roughly to 11.0 and 7.5 g DM/m<sup>2</sup>/day, respectively. DOE-sponsored studies in Puerto Rico (3) revealed an average DM yield of 21.5 g/m<sup>2</sup>/day on a year-round basis, and 27.1 g/m<sup>2</sup>/day on a "seasonal" basis (180 days),

The theoretical maximum yield for sugarcane has been estimated in the order of 280 millable tons/ha/year, or about 113 tons/acre/year (5,11). Workers in Puerto Rico (3) attained 92 green tons/acre/year, with the first-ratoon crop of conventional sugarcane varieties managed for total growth. It is believed that yields in the order of 150 green tons/acre/year could be commonplace if certain breakthroughs are achieved in the breeding technology for *Saccharum* species (18). The Puerto Rico sugar industry is currently producing about 28 green tons/acre/year as an island-wide

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average (2).

The hybrid tropical grasses Sordan 710A and Sordan 77 are leading candidates for short-rotation energy crops in Puerto Rico (1,18). Each was produced from sorghum-Sudan grass parents. Pennisetum sp. (api

sass and naper hybrid) are superior intermediate-rotation species,

Such grasses under management as solar-dried forages could fill the timeframe when sugarcane bagasse is not available as a fuel or as a feedstock in Puerto Rico (2). Sorghum x Sudan grass hybrids have also been produced by the Dekalb Company, and several appear to be more tolerant of

ard conditions than Sordan 70 and Sordan 77 (4), Breeding stuies in Puerto Rico have utilized a  
?malesterile Rhodesian Sudar-grass to develop superior Fy hybrids. Certain of these have produced  
?more than 20,000 kg/ha of dry matter in 140 days (14). These local hybrids should be screened  
locally as candidates for short-cotation energy cropping

## 2. Alcohol Potentials

?As an alcohol source, sweet sorghum has been evaluated by DOE contractors on the U.S,  
?mainland (12). Total U.S. production from this plant has been estimated in the order of 25 to 30  
billion liters of ethanol/year, at a cost of \$0.32/liter, by the year 2000,

For ethanol production from sugarcane, yield estimates amounting to 3,700 to 15,000  
titers/ha have been published (4,11). A net energy ratio (energy output/energy input) ranging from  
1,9 t0 2.7 has been reported for rainfed and irrigated regions, respectively, in South Africa (15),

As discussed by Samuels (19), aleohol from sugarcane in Puerto Rico is generally depicted in  
terms of rum production rather than total ethanol/acre or ethanol/ton of cane. Rum distillers  
?ordinarily utilize ?blackstrap? molasses (from which part of the sucrose has been removed) for this  
Purpose, but they also use ?igh-test? molasses (molasses from which sucrose has not been  
removed). The composition of molasses varies considerably with the variety of cane planted and the  
?management it has received from the time of planting until delivery at the sugar mill. One gallon of  
?blackstrap molasses contains approximately 6.8 pounds of sucrose and will yield about 0.75 proof  
sallons of rum, As an Island-wide average, PR sugarcane today yields about 6,0 gallons of  
blackstrap

?molasses and 17.6 gallons of highest molasses per ton of cane (19). One gallon of high-test  
?molasses will yield around 1.13 proof gallons of rum.

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## GENETIC POTENTIAL FOR BIOMASS IN SACCHARUM

?The genetic potential of the genus *Saccharum* as an energy crop is indeed large, but for the  
?most part this potential remains unexplored (2,6,10). In Puerto Rico, as elsewhere, the breeding of  
?*Saccharum* with fuel and fermentable solids as the key objectives has not been attempted until  
very

recently

### 1, Initial Evaluation of *Saccharum spontaneum*

Our first attempt to identify candidate clones for biomass production rather than sugar was  
?made with original *S. spontaneum* clones and *S. spontaneum* hybrids. These candidates derived  
from F<sub>1</sub>, BC<sub>1</sub>, and BC<sub>2</sub> generations imported into Puerto Rico from USDA collections during the  
?mid-1970s. The importations were made by the AES-UPR Sugarcane Breeding Program in an  
effort

?to broaden the genetic base of our local germplasm pool (6). As a result the S. spontaneum hybrids

US 67-22-2 (BC), B 70701 (F), SES 231 (S. spont.), and an unknown (wild) 5, spontaneum hybrid were identi

4 as having exceptional promise as biomass producers (3).

## 2, Second Generation Candidates

Both US 67-22-2 and B 70701 are regarded as leading ?second generation? biomass canes in Puerto Rico today (4). Yet, for each clone there are both advantages and disadvantages. US 67-22-2, for example, has excellent germination, rapid early growth with abundant tillering, excellent ratooning ability, resistance to mosaic and rust diseases, and an erect growth habit. It also has @ higher than average sugar content, which, for an energy candidate in a sugarplanting world is @ positive attribute of decisive importance. There are two disadvantages of US 67-22-2: It has a ?relatively low fiber content and it flowers profusely. The clone B 70701 also has rapid early growth, 4 good ratooning ability, and resistance to mosaic and rust. Its germination, erectness, and tillering features are less pronounced than in US 67-22-2. Similarly, its internodes are perceptively longer and the overall plant height is considerably greater. Like US 67-22-2, it has the disadvantage of an early lowering habit.

In view of the characteristics noted above, US 67-22-2 is regarded as a major candidate for

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?energy cropping where both cellulosic feedstocks and fermentable solids for alcohol are required products. B 70701, on the other hand, seems to be a fiber (biomass) producer with limited prospects for fermentable solids. It should be noted that, when sufficiently high tonnages of millable cane are harvested, the per acre yield of sugars can be very appreciable even from cane having otherwise low juice quality (18).

(Other promising clones include US 76-7 and US 76-82, each a second back cross progeny of the *S. spontaneum* parent US 56-15-8 (Table 1). The latter clone, a Thailand *S. spontaneum*, has already demonstrated exceptional growth potential and a source of genetic material for breeding high-tonnage cane (9). US 56-15-8 was imported into Puerto Rico during September of 1980, together with other canes viewed as potential breeding stock for developing high-biomass yielding hybrids

Out of nine intergeneric hybrids imported into Puerto Rico during October of 1978 (6), only US 61-666 (*Saccharum* x *Sorgo rex*) and US 6437 (*Saccharum* x *Selerostachya fusca*) have demonstrated good biomass potential in small field observation plots. These are continuing under survey as biomass resources in 20° x 20° plots at the AES-UPR Gurabo Substation.

## HYBRIDIZATION PROGRAM FOR SACCHARUM

### 1, 1978 Breeding Season

In view of an enormous, untapped genetic potential in the genus *Saccharum* (2,6,10), a limited hybridization program for biomass was initiated by the author during the 1978 breeding season. This work is being performed in conjunction with the AES-UPR Sugarcane Breeding Program. Three

?crosses were performed in which biomass rather than sugar was the primary objective. In the first

cross (US 67.222 x B 70701) both parents are regarded as superior biomass producers in their own right. Two additional crosses were designed to incorporate germplasm of an extremely vigorous *S. spontaneum* hybrid into high-yield and high-juice quality canes previously developed by the AES breeding program (7). The *S. spontaneum* hybrid is an early-flowering cane found in the wild near Piedras and Bayamón. It served as the male parent in these crosses. The two female parents are

mid- to late season flowering, but some synchronization of tasseling was attained by using the cut

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5

back method on select stands of the early-flowering male parent (3). The highest selection rate (16.3%) was obtained from the cross PR 67-245 x *S. spontaneum* hybrid (Table 2).

The Brix, fiber, and sucrose values were determined for each of fourteen F hybrid progenies and their parents using the pot ratio method (Table 3). Samples consisted of five whole canes from each hybrid. Within this progeny group, Brix values ranged from 8.32 to 12.63, and fiber ranged from 17.7 to 25%. By contrast, the parental clones (PR 67-245 and the *S. spont.* hybrid) indicated Brix values of 16.25 and 4.68, respectively, and fiber contents of 13.1% and 40.14, respectively,

The highest sucrose content (rendement) for the same 14 progeny was 9.16%, for the selection PR 794.2. The lowest sucrose content was 4.87%, recorded for PR 79-4-1 (Table 3). These initial results seemed to indicate that fairly good juice quality could accompany the high fiber and vigorous growth expected of first generation (F) hybrids of *S. spontaneum*.

F, progenies of the cross US 6722-2 x B 70701 indicated a remarkably vigorous growth performance plus a high number of stems/seedling. A majority were characterized by long internodes, a trait apparently inherited from the male parent B 70701.

In order to accelerate the evaluation process leading to better selections, twenty four of some 47 selected hybrids, together with their parents, were planted in a field-plot trial at the Gurabo Substation during May of 1980. A partially balanced incomplete block design with three replications was employed. Experimental plots consisted of single rows, 30 feet in length and spaced five feet apart. A 15-5-10 fertilizer ration was applied at the rate of 600 lbs/acre to each plot at the time of planting. Samples consisted of 10 stems harvested from each plot at approximately five months after planting. Stem length and diameter measurements were recorded together with total green weights. Plant number, on a per hectare basis, was computed from total stem counts for the three plots of each progeny. Stem volumes/hectare were then computed from available data (Table 4).

In terms of stalk volume/hectare, the selection PR 79-1-10 exceeded that of the female parent (US 67-22-2) by some 90 percent (Table 4). This value derives from both high stem counts and an exceptional length of stems. An additional five F<sub>1</sub> hybrids exceeded the female parent in stem volume by more than 40 percent. This appears to suggest that the cross US 67-22-2 x B 70701 has a high probability of producing offspring with outstanding growth potential.

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6

2. The 1979 Breeding Season

Additional crosses were performed during the 1979 breeding season in which biomass was the primary objective (Table 5). All crosses but one were designed to maximize fiber and fermentable solids. Three clones served as male parents: US 67-22-2, 87 NG 54 (*S. robustum*), and the wild *S. spontaneum* hybrid. They were crossed with a series of high yielding, good to high juice quality canes developed in Puerto Rico or introduced here by the AES-UPR sugarcane breeding program. Unfortunately, certain crosses of considerable interest (NCo 310 x US 67-22-2, NCo 310 x B 70701, and B 70701 x 57 NG 4) failed to produce sufficient viable seed. These crosses will be attempted again during the 1980 breeding season. Judging from initial growth and tillering performances of F<sub>1</sub> progeny, the crosses PR 980 x *S. spontaneum* hybrid, PR 67-1070 x *S. spontaneum* hybrid, and PR 68.355 x 57 NG 54 all appear to be potentially good sources of new genotypes favoring the biomass attribute (Table 5)

The clone US 67-22-2, serving as a male parent, was hybridized with a series of high quality canes developed locally or abroad as conventional sugar varieties. Since US 67-22-2 is an early-flowering cane,

crossing with intermediate- and late-flowering canes was accomplished

by a

leaf-trimming technique developed to synchronize the period of tassel emergence (8). The apparent effect of this method is to delay tasseling by restricting the production or translocation of an unknown flowering hormone produced in the sugarcane canopy. A large number of selections from



these crosses are presently under evaluation in field-plot trials at four AES-UPR Substations

## CONCLUSION

Only a very limited hybridization program for high biomass has been attempted to date in Puerto Rico. Nonetheless, in view of certain highly promising selections that have already emerged, and from seedling performance trends with very limited amounts of seed, it is safe to state that a whole range of new opportunities await the plant breeder seeking superior biomass-yielding hybrids in the genus *Saccharum*. It is very probable that these opportunities extend to the "Allied" tropical grasses, and to other genera of tropi-

grasses that will cross with *Saccharum* but have never been examined as energy crops per se,

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xl

ENERGY BALANCES FOR FUEL AND ALCOHOL FROM PUERTO RICO  
ENERGY CANE

Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FOODSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

THE UPR CENTER FOR ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT RESEARCH.

Biomass Division, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico

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ENERGY BALANCES FOR FUEL AND ALCOHOL FROM PUERTO RICO

ENERGY CANE

Table of Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

SOME CONCEPTUAL PROBLEMS

All BTUs Are Not Created Equal



Energy Balances Are Neither Btemal Nor Univers

Define Your Processes

What Are Energy Inputs?

?What Ate Energy Outputs?

Externalities

3

4

5

6

1

& The Allocation Problem

?What Are We Trying To Optimize?

SYSTEM DESCRIPTION: AGRICULTURAL PHASE

SYSTEM DESCRIPTION: CANE MILL PHASE

?SYSTEM DESCRIPTION: DISTILLERY PHASE.

ENERGY BALANCE

## REFERENCES

## TABLES

## FIGURE

Page

---Page Break---

## ENERGY BALANCES FOR FUEL AND ALCOHOL FROM PUERTO RICO

## ENERGY CANE

Lowis Smith

Consultant, CEER-UPR Biomass Division

Ro Piedras, Puerto Rico

## ABSTRACT

RECENT Middle East developments underscore the long-term folly of Puerto Rico's dependence on imports for 99 percent of its energy and 88 percent of the molasses used for its rum. Puerto Rico urgently needs alternatives to imported petroleum. One of these alternatives is "energy cane," a concept of sugarcane management developed by the CEER-UPR Biomass Division under sponsorship of the U.S. Department of Energy. Energy cane is sugarcane managed for maximum yield of combustible materials rather than sugar

"One way of evaluating such an alternative is to determine its "energy balance," ie, the energy

value of other fuel forms replaced (especially fuel imports) less the energy value of inputs. The inputs may be energy products themselves or products such as machinery which required energy in their manufacture. This paper concludes that, despite some conceptual difficulties with energy balances, they are a useful first-stage screening device for new energy systems. Energy balances are

obtained for two alternative uses of energy cane. In Alternative A, cane is milled to produce bagasse and high-test molasses (HTM) for the rum industry. The bagasse plus cane "trash" is dried and "burned" to supply the mill and other plants with steam. The energy output/input ratio is estimated at 11.4, when bagasse consumed by the mill is excluded from both inputs and outputs. When included, the ratio is 4.0. In Alternative B, the HTM is converted to ethanol for gasohol. The "ethanol" ratio is 1.8, and the overall ratio is 2.9. :

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---Page Break---

ENERGY BALANCES FOR FUEL AND ALCOHOL FROM PUERTO RICO

ENERGY.CANE

## INTRODUCTION

THE CURRENT war between Iran and Iraq, the hostages held by Iran, the renewal of fighting in Lebanon and other Middle East developments of the past few years underline Puerto Rico's risk in depending on imports for 99% of its energy and 88% of the molasses used in the manufacture of rum, which supplies about one seventh of the recurring revenues of the Commonwealth Government.

In the last few years, under the leadership of the Center for Energy and Environment Research of the University of Puerto Rico and primarily with funds from the Department of Energy, a great deal of work has been done to develop alternatives to imported petroleum fuels. Some of the most successful efforts are the result of work by CEER's Biomass Division. This division has developed a number of energy crops which appear to be ready for commercial production and definitely competitive with petroleum fuels,

One of these crops is energy cane, sugarcane chosen and managed, not for nutritive values, but for its yield per acre of combustible solids. As shown by Table 2, page 19, impressive yields have been attained,

Unfortunately the yield record of Puerto Rican agriculture has been fairly miserable for years, so it is hard for those not familiar with the Division's work to believe the results. Also the numerous controversies over the energy balances of corn-based ethanol for gasohol have created a large number of doubting Thomases as to the net energy benefits available from energy crops,

This paper, then, explores the conceptual problems of energy balances, describes a system for producing biomass for direct combustion, and highest molasses for rum (Alternative A) or for ethanol for gasohol (Alternative B). The energy balances are found to be significantly favorable in all cases, but policy questions about the use of molasses are raised. Energy output/input ratios of 40 are estimated for alternative A and 2.9 for alternative B, including bagasse consumed in process both input and output (see Table 6).

## SOME CONCEPTUAL PROBLEMS

---Page Break---

2

Anyone who sets out to estimate an energy balance for all but the simplest processes will find the mathematics fairly straightforward. But the underlying concepts are full of hidden assumptions and other intellectual booby traps.

Indeed, the estimator will be somewhat in the position of an economist who tries to calculate the real economic situation of an internationally funded organization which operates in many countries, with different currencies, different consumption patterns, different price structures and different inflation rates. Like the Special Drawing Rights of the International Monetary Fund, BIU's give only the appearance of comparability. Thus it is well to review some of the methodological difficulties, before we undertake the task at hand,

### 1. All BTUs Are Not Created Equal

It is well known in industry that different fuels have very different qualities (of combustion, control, convenience, pollution, etc.) and are not readily substitutable in a given use, at least not on short notice. Even where substitution is possible, it often requires a time-consuming and expensive conversion or replacement of equipment. Moreover, a particular fuel (eg, natural gas) may be preferred over a wide range of relative prices, precisely because of characteristics other than its calorific content. It may even take a law, a regulation or severe difficulties with suppliers to persuade a manufacturer to switch. This applies both to fuels of different origins (e.g. biomass fuels versus petroleum fuels) and to fuels of the same origin, where one is a transformation of the other to a higher form (e.g. bagasse to fuel pellets). In brief, BTU's, like price, are only part of the story.

Yet, many researchers blithely compare fuel values, or quote costs per BTU, on the basis of high heating values (HHV), as if the different fuels were so many interchangeable boxes of laundry soap, bought off the shelf of « supermarket.

Reviewing recent literature on biomass energy costs (1), little more than a year ago, Kathryn A. Zeimetz wrote, "None of the estimates include the cost of conversion from chemical energy in (unprocessed) biomass to a more usable source of energy, ..A serious defect is that, in current research generally, the estimates of the costs of, and the land needed for, biomass production, per energy unit, is calculated on the total energy content (HH) of the harvested biomass."

"Thus, if energy values are to be comparable, different fuels must ultimately be expressed in

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terms of some common denominator such as steam of a given psi, gasoline equivalents electricity or the fuel whose imports will be reduced by the proposed alternative energy source. Sometimes, of course, the practical difficulties will be insurmountable, but at least the attempt should be made.

The foregoing applies to energy balances as well, even though they can be expressed in dimensionless terms, i.e. in terms of energy ratios. This is because the production of energy, or its transformation to a higher form, each require energy as an input. And, in many cases, the energy input will consist of several fuels other than the one which constitutes the output. For example, in the case we will study, diesel fuel, among others, will be used to produce energy cane on the farm. In turn, energy cane will be used to produce bagasse in the cane mill and also high-test molasses (GFT). The bagasse serves as fuel for the mill and possibly the distillery, where the HTM is turned into still another fuel, ethanol.

## 2, Energy Balances Are Neither Eternal Nor Universal

Outside of residential use, energy is normally but one of many inputs to the production of goods and services, albeit an important one. Thus, a given energy balance is a function of such factors as costs and prices, laws and regulations, markets, operating and maintenance practices, past

investment decisions and technology, not just immutable physical laws. In the case of biomass energy fates, we must add agricultural patterns, climate, rainfall and soil conditions. Since most of these factors change from time to time, and some may be highly site specific, a given energy balance may not "travel well" nor be valid for your children,

### 3. Define Your Processes

Precisely because of the first two difficulties, one should specify the critical aspects of the manufacturing and combustion processes for which a given energy balance is calculated. As an illustration of the complexities involved, see Table 1, page 18, which shows possible relations between bagasse moisture content and boiler efficiency, based on Hawaiian experience. Moreover, in translating increased output of one fuel into savings in the use of another, one must also take account of the different combustion systems which may be involved in each case,

For example, if one ton of bagasse with 3% sugar and 30% moisture has an HEV of

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4

111,540,000 BTU/short ton by Hessey's formula! it will not substitute for No. 6 fuel oil with an HUV of 6,216,000 BTU per barrel in accordance with the ratio  $11,540/6,216 = 1.86$  barrels per ton. Assume it is possible to burn the bagasse in a cane mill boiler at 74% efficiency, and the fuel oil, in a utility boiler, at 85% efficiency. Ignoring psig differentials, on a steam equivalent basis, the correct ratio would be 1.62, or about 13% less. On an electricity equivalent basis, due to differences in generating facilities, the ratio would be even lower.

The problem is not solved by resorting to comparisons based on low heat values, instead of high ones. It is true that low heat values assume that the water vapor, formed by the oxidation of free hydrogen in the fuel, goes up the stack, rather than condensing and releasing useful heat. This is often realistic. However, what if stack gasses are used for drying? Moreover, in any case, there are other causes of heat losses in boilers. These include moisture in the atmosphere, moisture in the



fuel, how tightly the latter is bound, incomplete combustion, variations in fuel composition and moisture content and the stack gas ambient temperature differential. Moreover, if electricity is the common denominator, one must take account of energy losses in the turbine and generator stages.

In addition, scale effects are important. An energy balance carefully estimated for one size of plant may not be valid for one 25% smaller or 25% larger. Also, in dealing with proposed facilities, one must be aware of possible differences between stand alone facilities and those operated in tandem with coproduct processors; between grass roots construction and conversion or upgrading of existing facilities (3).

In summary, the safest procedure would seem to be to define the combustion system, from fuel through common denominator or end product, and, if system efficiency is not easily approximated, estimate all significant sources of energy loss, one by one, starting with the HAV of the boiler charge. (The latter is most frequently used, both as an energy value and as the denominator in calculating efficiency.) Obviously, the entire facility of which the combustion system forms a part must be defined as well, Boiler fuel is seldom the only energy input to an energy producing or transforming system.

$LU_{utny} = 8,345 - 22.14 - 83.63W$ , where  $S$  = sucrose % and  $W$  = moisture @, (In BTU/lb). See (2), Figure 1, page 25,

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#### 4. What Are Energy Inputs?

Should we consider only energy inputs which are consumed in the form of energy? What about the energy used to transport inputs to the facility under study, or the energy consumed in the fabrication of buildings, structures and equipment used by the facility, or the energy consumed by the employees of the facility in the course of their work? And how should these inputs be measured? There are no easy answers to this problem (4).

One could trace back product and energy flows indefinitely, in a form of infinite regress.

Fortunately, one remove (direct energy consumption by inputs) is usually sufficient to capture significant energy inputs of the indirect form. However, this is not a trivial question, for what inputs to include and what not helps to define the boundary between the thermodynamic system and its surroundings. And it is this thermodynamic system which really determines the energy balance,

rather than the battery limits of the alternate fuel facility.

5. What Are Energy Outputs?

Typically, energy outputs are considered to be either (a) salable energy products or (b) these plus those other products which substitute for purchased fuels. However, (c) waste heat (such as stack gasses) used in the facility, or even heat losses in the combustion system, could also be considered output which the facility manufactures and sells to itself. Again there are no rules engraved in stone, However, the energy balance and the energy ratio will obviously be different, {depending on the method used.

## 6. Externalities

It is well known, from cost-benefit analysis and environmental impact studies, that most human activities have effects (both favorable and unfavorable) which are not captured by or reflected in their accounting, costing, pricing or statistical systems. Indeed, many of these effects can only be expressed in energy or monetary terms crudely, if at all. To the extent that an alternative fuel facility has an impact outside the system,

8 defined for purposes of the energy

balance, or changes the energy behavior of other facilities and organizations, we should try to

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take these effects into account, Such external

?may be particularly critical in calculating the

?energy balance for gasohol systems,

## 7. What Are We Trying To Optimize?

?An energy balance is @ ?snapshot? of only one aspect of a human activity, It fs not complete,

?any more than it is eternal or universal. Nevertheless, it is snapshot of a very

port aspect. How

then to take it into account?? What ian energy balance good for?

If you are a ?one issue? person and that issue is enerey conservation, the answer is obvious.

However, most people and most countries have multiple objectives which, in an imperfect world,

«an only be partly attained, Thus we are forced to estimate and evaluate trdeofts~between more

Of this, and tess of that. Given the state ofthe analytical arts, the best way todo tis asa practical

(not an ideological) matter, would seem to be to optimize the economics ofa system, subject to

?nergy, environmental and other constraints, However, this does not releasat

neray balances to the

sideline, They can provide a useful screening device for determining the classes of facilities to be studied by the optimizing process.

Regardless of what we optimize, we still must define what it is we want to do with energy

?What is to be our principal criterion for separating energy sheep from energy goats? Save total energy, decrease energy imports, increase energy efficiency, decentralize society? or some combination thereof? If we are primarily concerned about security of supply, and [think Puerto Rico should be, then we would emphasize the second goal. However, we should recognize that ?imported BTUs saved have a greater social and economic value than an equal number of domestic BTUs consumed. Also, that businessmen do not necessarily perceive a new fuel made locally by a ?new firm with a new technology as ?more secure? than No. 6 fuel oil made from imported crude oil.

## 8. The Allocation Problem

Energy production from biomass frequently results in multiple products (some non-energy) from integral processes, Many costs and inputs, including energy, may therefore be both joint and variable with respect to outputs,

---Page Break---

9

standard processes exist for their manufacture. Thus, any errors in estimating the energy value of the inputs to the agricultural sector are of small consequence in the energy balance of the entire system,

#### SYSTEM DESCRIPTION: CANE MILL PHASE.

In this phase, adapting (8), we hypothesize 2 conventional Puerto Rican cane mill modified so to burn efficiently 100% bagasse dried by flue gases to 30% moisture, The mills assumed to grind 5,000 green tons of millable cane per day, six days a week, eight months a year. Such a facility would require more than 12,000 planted acres of energy cane, or somewhat less than 15,000 acres of farmland, in the supporting agricultural phase

The materials balance and flows for the biomass energy system through the cane mill are shown in Figure 1, page 25. An inspection of this figure shows two obvious inputs, loose trash recovery and mill cane. There are also three obvious products, the loose trash as a source of energy sales, the bagasse as a source of energy sales and the HTM, But what about the bagasse for

process heat? Since we have the alternative of putting this material into energy sales and buying No. 6 fuel oil to supply process heat, we might consider it a product, in which case we should consider it an input also, So right away, three of our difficulties appear: What is an input? What is an output? And how do we allocate the joint inputs of energy?

As before, we evaluate outputs in terms of the energy value of the No. 6 fuel oil displaced, using Hessey's formula and the same assumptions, except that trash is assumed to have zero sugar and 15% moisture, as boiler feed

Note here that the common denominator is steam, If the excess steam cannot be sold or used economically, or if it must be converted to electricity, the energy balance, however calculated, would be less favorable, This is an argument for further processing excess biomass before burning,

Let us consider first, Alternative (A), in which all HTM goes for the manufacture of rum, There are a number of ways in which we could allocate the joint energy inputs; but, to keep things simple, let us always allocate them in proportion to the oven dry weight of the outputs, whatever these may be, Still we may consider two allocation methods. According to the first method, output consumed for process heat is excluded from both inputs and outputs, Agricultural energy inputs are

---Page Break---

10

allocated by oven-dry weight among the three sources of external sales: Loose trash, bagasse for energy sales, and HTM. According to the second method, the bagasse used for waste heat is both

an

input and an output. Agricultural inputs must be allocated among all combustibles. Process heat is allocated between bagasse and HTM. These two methods (and we could devise others) give different

energy balances and energy ratios as shown by Table 4, page 21. If we were to throw in waste heat used in drying the bagasse as an additional input and an additional output the energy balance would undoubtedly increase over method No. 2, while the energy ratio would decrease again.

In the case of Table 4, both the energy ratio and the volume of inputs turn out to be quite sensitive to the definition of inputs and outputs. This suggests that one should be very careful about comparing ratios for different states, especially where they have been executed by different means. Even where the estimates of inputs and outputs are carefully done, the ratio may be very sensitive to changes in the state of operations.

More meaningful would seem to be the net energy balance as compared with some resource commitment. For example Table 4 implies that there will be a reduction in crude oil imports of 30 to 34 barrels per year, for every acre planted to energy cane. (The assumed alternative to biomass energy is No. 6 fuel oil, but we further assume that a reduction in one barrel of this product backs out one barrel of crude. Obviously, because of refinery balances, there are limits to such an assumption in the short run). Alternatively we might compare the net energy balance with the initial outlays required to establish the biomass energy system as a going concern.

As for allocation methods, the author is inclined to those which treat energy produced and



consumed in the same facility as both an input and an output, whenever the alternative is to purchase energy. Otherwise an essential input will not be treated consistently over time or over facilities. However, it must be recognized that our own energy use or efforts to waste heat may lower the energy ratio, even when they increase the balance, as happened in Table 4. If people are misled by this it will tend to penalize efforts for energy conservation and efficiency. One may even conceive of cases where use of our own energy or waste heat may lead to reduction in the balance, in exchange for savings in cost and/or an increase in the security of supply, the stability of costs, etc. Once again we are back to tradeoffs, .

Regardless of these difficulties, Alternative (A) seems to be a very profitable operation from.

---Page Break---

it

From an energy point of view, moreover, the energy balance and ratio of this alternative do not reflect two important energy benefits from this project. The first is the increased security of supply which comes from substituting a domestic source of energy for foreign one. The second is the fact that the energy balance in terms of imported fuels is even better than shown by Table 4. All of the outputs displace imported petroleum, but a good portion of the agricultural energy inputs probably represent the use of oil produced in the US.

With regard to Alternative (B), still another allocation method comes to mind. Since all products are now energy products, we may value them in terms of the barrels of imported crude

which they back out of the economy, assuming again that one barrel of product is equivalent to one barrel of crude oil. In the case of the HTM, it is valued on the basis that one gallon of HTM will yield about 0.64 gallon of ethanol (calculated from reference (8)), and one gallon of ethanol will directly replace 0.8 gallon of gasoline (3). In the case of the other products, they are valued in terms of No. 6 fuel oil equivalents, as before, divided by 6.216 million BTUs per barrel. Inputs are then allocated in accordance with the appropriate crude oil equivalents.

The results of allocation method No. 3 are shown in Table 5. For the energy obtained by the direct combustion of biomass, the results are more or less like those obtained from method No. 2. (See Table 4). However, we have balanced the first two phases of Alternative (B) in the same way as we will balance the third, distillery phase. Also, we know how many BTUs of input we must carry forward to this latter phase. Finally, the balance for ethanol in Table 5 gives us a preliminary notion of what the final balance will be for that product.\*

#### SYSTEM DESCRIPTION: DISTILLERY PHASE.

The design of the fermentation and distillation processes for ethanol, and the choice of fuel for the distillery, are perhaps the most critical factors in determining the energy balance for a Bohol system, due to the wide variation in energy inputs that is possible. This variation plus the additional variation induced by differences in feedstocks, byproducts and byproduct energy accounting explains most of the wide differences in energy ratios for gasohol systems. As noted

Since all BTUs are not equal, ideally Table 5 (and Table 6) should be expressed entirely in crude oil equivalents. BTUs of No. 6 are retained to facilitate comparison with Table 4. It is

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RB

previously, these differences have generated considerable controversy and confusion. According to the Office of Economic Assessment of the Congress of the U.S, an energy efficient, stand-alone com ethanobforgasohol distillery cn consume in operation the energy equivalent of half gallon ?of gasoline, in order to produce a gallon of ethanol which directly replaces 0.8 gallon of gasoline fas

an adaitive in gasoline (3)

For these and other reasons, in some east it may not be posible to achieve a favorable energy balance for a gasohol energy system. And to achieve a favorable balance in terms of imported ?energy alone, it may be necessary to approve laws which (a) prohibit the use of imported fuels in thanol dstileris for gasohol, and (b) require the use of lower octane gasoline for blending into sohol 3,9),

Following is a range of estimates as to the BTUs consumed in operating an ethanol distillery, ?er gallon of ethanol produced (Grom molasses, except as noted):

Source BTUs/Gal

Chambers, etal feorn (11)) 141,500

Hopkinson & Day (10) 43,400

Missehorn (12)

Conventional Process 36,600?46,6001/

?Two-Pressure Distillation 2s,0001/

OTA com (3))

?Natural Gas & Waste Heat 29,2502)

Petroleum Fuels -46,800?70,2002/

Coal 50,000?70,000

Rodriguea-Torres & Horta (8) 108,000

(Ofoti & Stout (13) 68,400

?Schroeder Process (corn (14)) 31,900

Y mata from Table 2 Cieaton, fermentation and detain only.

231 In gasoline cquivalenta: Exchides byproduct wate heats me

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7

Now accountants, who must prepare monthly financial statements, have invented various and {ingenious allocation techniques to del with just such situations, Unfortunately, the only way to ?optimize such processes economically is to ignore the allocation methods and maximize the total contsibution of al products to joint costs, after deducting from revenues those costs associated with

one product exclusively. Under the circumstances, any allocation of costs is arbitrary and liable to be suboptimal, no matter how reasonable the particular allocation method (5).

An analogous optimization procedure could be defined in energy terms. However, it would prevent us from calculating a meaningful energy balance for an individual product. Thus we must allocate joint energy inputs among outputs in some one of several rational ways, with the understanding that what we are doing is somewhat arbitrary and should not be used for optimization of the overall system.

#### SYSTEM DESCRIPTION: AGRICULTURAL PHASE

We shall now describe the agricultural phase of a system to produce biomass energy products in Puerto Rico from energy cane. The primary objective of this system is to reduce our dependence on imported crude oil. A secondary objective is to reduce our dependence on imported molasses for our rum industry. Two alternatives were considered: (A) The direct combustion of biomass energy products, with the HTM being used for rum; and (B) with the HTM used to manufacture ethanol for Bschol. This is not a complete biomass energy system, as indicated elsewhere (6), it should be complemented by intermediate rotation crops, such as energy Napier grass (pasto elefante?

and

short-rotation crops, such as Sordan 70A. Furthermore it is probably desirable to add a processing step to convert the dry grasses and bagasse into higher forms of energy, such as Combustion Equipment Associate's

?Agrifuel? or ?Woodex fue pellets? However, the energy balance aspects

?of these other crops and steps are relatively straightforward and quite favorable, so they will be left for another day.

?The agricultural facility consists of 60 ?energy farms? of 200 acres each planted in eneray cane on a three year planting cycle, Harvests take place at the end of every 12 months, and replanting every three years. Yields are those described in Table 2, page 19. For convenience, these

Yields are those obtained in experimental work at the Lajas (Puerto Rico) Substation of the

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8

Agricultural Experiment Station of the University of Puerto Rico. This work is funded by the Department of Energy and carried out jointly with the University?s Center for Energy and Environment Research (7).

?These yields are considered attainable in commercial operations on cane lands throughout Puerto Rico for the following reasons (6):

1. Botanically, cane isa better fiber producer than a sucrose producer. Indeed, despite inferior varieties and emphasis on sucrose, Puerto Rico averaged yields of 45 green tone of millable cane during the early 1930's, compared with 28 tons today. (Some farms obtained 100 tons!)

- 2.The energy gain is totally managed so as to maximize the yield of combustible solids per

cre, not the percentage of sucrose or other nutritive values, In particular, varieties, row sh  
harvest frequency, fertilization, water supply and machinery have all ben chosen with the formet  
in mind,

3. The manager of a commercial energy farm would undoubtedly vary practices to meet soil  
{onditions and climate in other locations. Irrigation would be used everywhere, to some degree, {0  
better control water intake. Also the manager could be expected to select the best varieties for his  
location. in Lajas, the best variety was NCo 310, whose second ratoon crop attained 92 green short  
{ons of millable cane per acre, with standard spacing, versus a thee-ariety average of 839 ton, fOr  
re same crop.

4. Table 2 omits cane tops and attached dead matter, which are removed before the cane is  
fent to the mill. On a commercial farm, most of this material would be collected a a source of  
biomass energy, in addition to the loost trash shown in the Table. Note that trash can be solar  
ried, baled and bumed or further processed, without milling

5. Breeding work has barely explored the potential of cane for producing combustible  
?materials. Yields of 150 green tons and 50 oven dry tons per acre are Teasonable long-term  
objectives.

?The energy inputs required for such an operation are estimated in Table 3, page 20. Because  
?the primary sources of the data for energy per unit are numerous and the magnitude of the inputs  
is  
small relative to outputs, conversion problems not handled in the original are ignored.

Note that, in terms of No. 6 fuel oil equivalent, at 148,000 BTU's per gallon, we are talking, roughly speaking, about 189 gallons per acre per year, or 6.4 gallons per oven-dry short ton of combustible material. By comparison, bagasse dried to 30% moisture could displace 91 gallons of No. 6 fuel, per short ton of oven dry material. (In fact, if the No, 6 is to be burned in a cane mill boiler, the displacement would be even higher.) Moreover, over half the energy inputs to the agricultural phase are represented by the energy value of fertilizers, whose use can be controlled and

measured quite closely. The chemical content of these products is also known with exactness, and.

---Page Break---

13

From the above we select the Misselhorn estimate of 25,000 BTUs per gallon, for the following reasons

1, It is the lowest commercial scale figure for ethanol from cane.

2 Starcosa GmbH, which supplied Brazil's first ethanol plant in 1960 (13,200 gallons per day), designs and supplies distillation systems based on the two-pressure concept.



3 This estimate is derived from an integrated dig and knot hodge poe of pieces of

Now per Figure 1, we obtain 1,643 gallons of HTM per acre per year. This yields (at 64%) almost 1,052 gallons of pure ethanol, so we will require 26.3 million BTUs of energy per acre per year to operate the distillery. Nearly all of this is in steam, which, per Table 4, can readily be supplied by the cane mill. Per (10), we estimate the energy incorporated in the distillery itself at approximately 4% of the energy requirements for operations. Hence our total energy inputs for the distillation phase are 27.3 million BTUs per acre per year.

However, we have not yet disposed of all the energy considerations related to this phase. The fermentation process produces about 5 lbs of CO<sub>2</sub> per gallon of pure alcohol, which can be recovered, scrubbed and purified for sale. The slops from the distillation process may be evaporated

for cattle feed, concentrated for foundry core binder or for adhesives, or dried and calcined for the extraction of activated carbon and potash fertilizer. These byproduct processes introduce further energy inputs and raise problems of energy allocation (12, 15). Since the potential markets in Puerto Rico for additional amounts of such products in large quantities are speculative, we will omit them from the energy balance,

Given the need for 12,000 planted acres plus to support the cane mill phase, we must distill around 12.7 million gallons of pure alcohol per year. This is equivalent to 13.4 million gallons of 98% alcohol, or about 41,000 gallons per day at a 90% operating rate,

We have now completed the description of each phase and may proceed to estimating the final energy balance. Hopefully the reader has become aware of the necessity of defining the process

## ENERGY BALANCE,

Table 6 shows the energy balance for the entire Alternative (B), in which all products are

---Page Break---

14

energy products. The total energy balance is broken down between ethanol and other energy products (the latter in full oil equivalents). Since allocation method No. 3 does not substantially change the results for the direct combustion products the "Biomass" column in Table 6 may be considered to represent Alternative (A),

which all HTM goes for the manufacture of rum.

One important externality is included in Table 6. Since ethanol tends to have a higher octane than the gasoline with which it is blended, the octane of the gasoline can be lowered in a compensatory manner. If this is done there is an energy saving in the refineries which the Office of Technology Assessment estimates at 0.36 gallons of gasoline equivalent per gallon of ethanol (3). For the purposes of Table 6, we have assumed that this saving would be only half as great in Puerto Rico, due to the lower octane in use here.

Given the externality, Table 6 is not too different from Table 5, for the saving in refinery operations (which the Commonwealth could probably achieve) coincidentally compensates for most of the energy input to the dist

ing phase.

?Again the energy balance is favorable, both overall and for each of the components ethanol for gasohol and bagasse for steam. Of course, the bagasse is more profitable energy wise than the ethanol. The energy ratio for biomass is 4.0, versus 1.8 for ethanol. Overall, depending on refinery feedstocks, design and operating condition, imports of crude oil will be reduced by approximately 44 barrels of crude oil for every acre of energy cane planted and processed in accordance with Alternative B

What the energy balance cannot answer is whether the incremental saving in gasoline costs and improvement in gasoline security of supply is worth depriving the rum industry of security of supply of molasses, and possible protection against exorbitant price increases by would-be speculators. However, we note commonwealth revenues of \$21.00 per gallon of pure ethanol (\$10.50 per proof gallon) for Puerto Rican rum sold in the states. Also we can solve most of the rum industry's problem with HTM, but only a small part of the motorists problem. Gasohol, after all, 90% gasoline, made from imported crude in Puerto Rico's case. In our opinion, the rum industry deserves priority in the use of HTM,

HOW DO WE COMPARE?

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Because of the wide variety of methods used for calculating energy balances and ratios, we must recalculate our figures almost every time we compare ourselves with others. However, the

comparisons are always favorable, For example, see Table 7 (based on the estimates collected by Zeimet (1)) and also Hopkinson and Day (10). The latter estimate an energy ratio of only 1:8, assuming all process heat from bagasse and counting this heat as both input and output. Per Table 6, the corresponding ratio for Puerto Rico is 2.9. For corn-based ethanol, fractional ratios are possible (3)(13).\* The most critical factor in these comparisons is the energy cane itself, particularly

due to the high yields per acre obtainable in a subtropical climate with management for energy, not nutrients,

ie, the energy balance is negative,

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BOTLER LOSSES AND BOILER EFFICIENCY

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Bagasse Basher Keneas ?Efficiency

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Adapted from Table E-3, reference 15.  $L_{\phi}$  \* losses from  
ss of combustion;  $L_a$ . due'to moisture in  
airs TF = flue temperatures 8 due to moisture

se)  $L_n$  = losses due to moisture of combustions

Lother " other boiler losses.

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19

Table 2

ATTAINABLE ANNUAL YIELDS FROM ENERGY CROPS IN PUERTO RICO

(short tons per acre planted)

?Type of plant, harvest frequency

?and row spacing

snellT jer grace?

Ae Rothe "pisoothe

Type of material and crop 150°ce 0m

Groen aavter?!

Plant crop (1st yx) 77.8 75.0

1st ratoon (2nd yz) 93.6 93.1

2nd ratoon (3x8 yz) 63.9 83.0

Ave. for cycle 85.1 85.7

Dry matter

Contained in green matter 4

Plant crop as

tse ratoon 29.5

: a? 22.4

?Ave. for cycle 26.4

Conveined in loose trash 4

Plant crop 38

Let ratoon 6.0

2nd ratoon 5.7

Ave. for cycle 5.2

Total dry matter

Plant exop 25.4 25.4

Ase ratoon 35.5 33.5

2nd ratoon 27.8 24.6

Ave. for cycle 29.6 2

¥) Werage

2 variety (paste

3) For entegy cane, aitlabie can {cludes cops and attached  
ay Sead poeeey gnich are removed Sp the Field.) "0P\* M8 8

th 6 uonth hervest, loose trash picked up by bailer with cuttin

Sources: Ref (7), first quarterly reports poy =

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table 3

?AMAL, ENERGY INPUTS REQUIRED FOR ENERGY CANE IN PUERTO RICO



Energy Energy pery

bette | per ante \_ area PIO)

Input, Unse, per acre Bava ~ cat jaa

Fertilizers

Nitrogen w 400 33,333. 13.33 8.30

Phosphorus 1b 200 6,032 0.60 0.38

Potassium we 200 4.167 0.83 0.52

Sub-total 14.76 9.20

Fuel (diseillate) gel 64 138,690 8.86 5.52

Herbicides and

pesticides » 12.85 43,652 0.56 0.35

Labor br 25 2,159 0.05 0.03

Machinery 3.37 2.20

Seed » 183 2,410 0.48 0.27

Total 28.08 7.47

Note: Area refers to area planted.

Fuel includes transportation £0 ml!

Sources: Units per acre - reference (7)

Energy per unit (except fuel) - reference (10)

Ruel energy per gallon - reference (16)

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Table 4

ENERGY BALANCE FOR ALTERNATIVE A

(iiigh test molasses (HIM) to run)

1 \_Bresy balance (206

Ave, annual

yield), Method 1 Method #2

St/screM Bt/acre \_BTU/acre

\$\$ Biers Bifecre

Energy output by source?!

Loose erase! 5.2 25 25

Bogasse for

?process heat!/ 6.2 - 83.6

Other bagasse4/ 9.6 229.5 129.5

Total outputs 20 © ?202.0 285.6

Energy inputs

Bagesse for

?Syrocess beac!! - 23.6

Jess BIU's chargecS!

dese 029.6)

cure? phase 28.0 28.0

fron Table 3)

less Brus charge?!

fo Hn 0.3) «.2)

Total inputs 17 73.8

Energy balance

Net energy gain 186.3

Couette! Less snputs)

| Boergy ratio

Ourputs/inpurs m6 39

?Oven dry short tons, fron Figure 1,

Evaluted at high heating velue of No. 6 fuel of1 displaced, on

ean equivalent, basis. Bagaose, boiler eff ciency 94

Inv eeleslaced by Hessey formula (2) for OI sugar, 452 moisture

material, then conversed fo oven Sry beste,

4) Sane as 3/, but with 31 suger and 301 moisture.

B/ See text? for description of allocation methods

Wo. 6, 85%.

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Table 5

ENERGY BALANCE FOR ALTERNATIVE B

(high test molasses to ethanol)

AGRICULTURAL AND CANE MILL PHASES

Energy balance (10°)

Allocation method #3

Crude of

equivalent Ethanol Biomass Total?

?bbi/acre BTU/acre \_BTU/acre BIU/acre

Energy output by source

Loose trash?! 7 - 72.5 72.5

Bagasse for



process heat<sup>2/</sup> 13.4 - 83.6 83.6

Other bagasse<sup>3/</sup> 20.8 - 129.5 129.5

and<sup>4/</sup> 20.1 98.4 98.4

Total outputs ? 66.0 98.6 2886 386.0

Energy snout!

Begesse for

so process hei 30.9 52.7 83.6

Agricultural phase 85 195 28.0

Total inputs 394 722 in.6

Energy balance

Wet energy gain

(output - Total inputs) 9.0 272.4

Energy ratio

Outputs/inputs 2.5 40 34

L/ From Table 4, except for HTH willion

B/ Converted to barrels of crude oil at 6.216/B10 per barrel of No. 6

fuel oil, and one barrel of No. 6 = one barrel of crude oil,

3/ Astumes, per Table 2 and Figure 4, reference (8), one gallon of

methanol = 0.6 gallons of ethanol (pue).. Converted at 0.8 gallon

of gasoline = one gallon of ethanol, 4.914 million BTU per barrel

of Gasoline, which = one barrel of crude oil. See also ref. (3)\_



Crude oil equivalence may vary

4) Allocated on the basis of appropriate crude oil equivalents of outputs.

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9

23

table 6

ENERGY BALANCE FOR ALTERNATIVE 8

(High test molasses to ethanol)

(ALL PHASES)

aS

Energy balance (x106)

Allocation method #3

Ethanol Bion Total

BYU/acre BTU/acre ? BTU/acre

Energy outputs by source

Loose trash - 72.5 72.5

Bagasse for process heat - 83.6 83.6

Other bagasse ~ 129.5 129.5

Righ test molesses 98.4 - 98.4

Octane reduction in 4,

refining (externality)\* / 2.2 - 22.2

Total outputs 120.5 265.6 06.1

Energy énpu

Distitiery? / 27.3 - 27.3

Bagasse for process heat 30.9 52.7 83.6

Agricultural phase 85 19s 28.0

Total inpucs 67 Ta 138.9

Energy balance

et energy gain 53.8 213.4 267.2

(outputs less inputs)

Energy ratio of

Outputs/input Le 40 29

L/ ?Equivalent £0 0.18 gallon gasoline per gallon of ethanol. (One

H) Ralt B.S" saving shun in fable Ts Pefebenas? 35,

2) Ste texe tor source.

Sources: Table 5, except where noted.

ay

"in crude of1 equivalents 2.3 4.0 3.2

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reute'7

?COMPARISON OF ESTDMTED YIELDS FROK ENERGY croes 3/

(after Zeteots! Table 5)

aru\_ cao?

Crop end "Bry tone" Bae Tape rere toerey

Tecasion per acre FEFTon per sare per'acre balance eatis

?Reto nico!

a6 148 wet aay. 18.2

wo 55 36.8 as su.

Text 2 aa mea A wa own

Fie 2,313.0 155.6 a8 ms ae

Yootetane 8.8 ne.4 19.7 788

MGtttornt?! 63 a3 0 oa ns 90

paleo a6 a ne 24s

reorasta2/ 4,613.0 ny a2 sa

denies 38 4.7 139 Meas

aitaite

Tow 330 ss ona

Gushe 3.23.0 57 36.03

com

Missourt 9,013.0 va ane m3 38

AP Ostpue value tv heating value of dry harvested material with no allowvsnce for  
oases in converting tones to higher forms of eneray, nor for energy input  
fo conversion process. Puerto Ries Alteraative (A) exivies high test nol  
(Ci) used for run and also excludes Mita share of energy inputer Inpot  
nergy represente value of fertilizers, {uel and pesticides only

2) then tertgation,

Sources: Puerto Rico - Tables 3, 4 and 6 preceeding. A other Joeattons -

esleulated fron Table 3, page 11, reference (I). With regard te Table 5,

Seealso pager 12 and 3 of ().

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Figure 1

## MATERIALS BALANCE AND FLOW FOR ENERGY CANE IN PUERTO RICO

(oven dry weight, except where noted)

5.2 ST/A Field 85.1 green ST/A

Loose trash operations Millable cane

recovery 100% (one ac:

122 1b/ST NC

» be

2,000 green 1b/ST





Csne will

operations

(Bagasse)

ste

13.6 320

Fercentable

solids 2.2 51 ?"?"\_

Total ?15.6 37t (cane jusee)

8.6 ST/A

Fermentable solids?!

203 lb/ST KC

14.8 ST/A 6.2 St/A 1648 gaa

For energy For process Righ test molasseel/

sales heat 3/

see abyst me nes anyst wc 19.3 gal/st me

Key: S1/A = oven dry short tons per acre (61 moisture)

1b/St ~ pounds per short ton

18/81 Me = oven dry pounds per short ton of (green) millable cane,

B/) 16k of (green) millable cane.

Zy With? 60% extraction (conservative)

37 Assumes stack-gas drying of bapasse to 30% moisture and 74%

hoiler fficiency. Ceyleted rem Figure 5. reference. (@)

AJ Assumes 10.5 pounds of fermentable e

ids per gation.

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BIOMASS FROM THE ENGINEERING PERSPECTIVE

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Presented To The Symposium

5 FUELS AND FOODSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

?November 24 and 25, 1980

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Conteibuted By

2 ?THE UPR CENTER FOR ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT RESEARCH

?Biomass Division, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico

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FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

November 24, 1980 ? 4:00 RM.

PANEL: BIOMASS FROM THE ENGINEERING PERSPECTIVE

Ing. Julio Negroni, Chairman

Engineer Héctor Rodríguez

parading Sugar Factory Operations for Improved Energy Utilization

?Sugar mills in Puerto Rico operate their steam boilers at low pressures resulting in inefficient thermodynamic conditions. Advantages of high pressure steam generation are presently being assessed. Two cases are compared. In one case a 600 psi pressure boiler is ?considered with enough steam generating capacity to fully use the energy potential of the bagasse. This case requires disposing of excess steam in an associated industrial operation, ?The second case uses a smaller capacity boiler to satisfy the sugar mill steam requirements. But excess bagasse will be available for sale,

Engineer Modesto Iriarte

Biomass for Unity Botlers

CER has shown that biomass fuel can compete very favorably with coal in stoker

fired boilers. Cost comparisons included desulfurization systems for coal fired boilers.

Very recent studies by CEER show that biomass derived fuels can still compete favorably with coal, in the planned PREPA suspension type pulverized coal fired boilers.

Flow process, energy and mass balances, costs and biomass derived fuel specifications for 4 fuel fabrication facility will be discussed,

3, Engineer Rafael Sardina

?Biomass fueled boilers as the lowest energy alternative, excluding nuclear

Studies performed indicate that, excluding nuclear power which it shown to be the lowest cost energy alternative, biomass represents the lowest cost energy alternative when compared to OTEC, wind, photovoltaics, coal and oil.

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MEMORANDUM

Miguel Angel Garcia Mendes

Presented To The Symposium

## FUELS AND FOODSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS:

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

?THE UPR CENTER FOR ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT RESEARCH

?Biomass Division, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico

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?MEMORANDUM

Miguel Angel Garcia Méndez/

1 appreciate having this opportunity to offer some observations in this important meeting of

?experts discussing the potential of fuels and feedstocks from tropi

sources for petroleum.

1 biomass as alternate energy

Since the beginning of 1977 I have been emphasizing to the Commonwealth government Authorities, and specifically to the Governor of Puerto Rico, the need for a pragmatic approach to transform the sugar industry to one focussing on the production of ethanol or molasses and biomass using sugarcane and bagasse respectively. And I have recently learned of the successful achievements of distinguished scientists, such as Dr. Alexander, De, Bonnet, Dr. Smith, Dr. Werner, Dr. Gary Martin, Marcos Lugo Ramirez and Michael Senyi and others in Puerto Rico and G.T.A. Bends in Louisiana and Al Mavis in Illinois; engineer Fernando Caldas in Costa Rica; Dahiya, Bardegs and Dhamija in the Agricultural University of Hissar in India; and a large number of chemists from Puerto Rico, Brazil and other parts of the world among them distinguished participants in this Seminar who have been working to develop alternative sources of energy so as to free us from an economic tyranny set up by OPEC.

An encouraging movement-growing at an extraordinary pace-in Brazil has promoted the Production of gasohol in huge quantity and also many plants which change over to that fuel engines that previously used gasoline, And I have read that in the United States more than thirty plants

devoted in great part to the processing of corn are getting ready to produce gasohol after the investment of many millions of dollars.

I believe that in Puerto Rico we are now ready to initiate on our farm lands a new chapter in

?our agricultural/industrial history: the Energy Chapter

?The auguries for the success of this meritorious endeavor are as follows:

8) Puerto Rico has produced in the past up to 1,320,000 tons of sugar from 13,200,000 tons

4 Present address: Western Federal Building, Mayaguez, P.R. 00708

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?of sugarcane (one ton of sugar from each 10 tons of cane) harvested from 450,000 acres planted to

In order to produce sufficient sugar for local consumption-less than 200,000 tons?but at a ?prohibitively high cost using traditional approaches, only about one-seventh of the land previously used for sugar is needed. That isto say, sixsevenths of the 450,000 acres previously cultivated are, in effect, surplus.

In addition we have thousands of uncultivated acres which would be a fine base for tropical 148s which would serve to increase the production of biomass and use to capacity the machinery and equipment that wil give us molasses and/or gasohol from sugarcane,

?) Instead of using technicians and laborers only 100 days a year (which used to be the normal standing period in the times of high sugar production) there could be work almost year-round, with ?he resulting high employment average and money influx into the Island?s economy.

©) The U.S. Department of Energy programs, covered by Public Law 95-238, authorize up to



2 billion to stimulate the production of alcohol fuel. Also, under Law 932, the Synthetic Fuels Corporation provides, with the purpose of attaining a volume of 10% of the estimated total gasoline consumption in the U.S, loan guarantees and price guarantees and agreements of up to \$1.2 billion. The US. Department of Agriculture, through Farmers Home Administration is implementing a program of guaranteed loans up to \$100 million and direct loans up to \$10 million to facilitate the production of alcohol to fulfill the presidential goal of achieving the production of \$00 million gallons in 1981.

4) If the expense incurred in purchasing gasoline and other carburetants from abroad in 1979 was in excess of one thousand million dollars (\$1,000,000,000) and if the goal of eliminating as much as 10% of such expense could be achieved, the result would be a big increase in the employment of workers not only in the field but also in the industrial sector along with a further multiplier effect in the transportation of agricultural supplies and finished product, raw material, etc.; internal income for small farmers would increase with corollary benefits; and we would reduce the balance of payments deficit between imports and exports from foreign countries for the first time in many years (our trade balance with the United States has recently been favorable).

©) If gasoline is substituted up to 20% by alcohol (gasohol) no change in engines is required in

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cars and trucks and such engines would run at lower temperatures.

?In summary, i this idea to devote the production of sugarcane and tropical grass to substitute for part of our consumption of gasoline and fuel oil is successful, we would have the satisfaction of Producing energy and jobs in the Island and possibly exporting proteins abroad.

trust that the noble efforts of so many devoted scientists in ths interesting symposium will lhave great benefit to the industrial and economic progress of Puerto Rico, our Nation, and the Western hemisphere of which we are a part

?We surely hope that, with God's help, it will be so.

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FOSSIL FUELS OUTLOOK FOR PUERTO RICO'S PRIVATE  
INDUSTRIAL SECTOR

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Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

"November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

Eng. Carlos Yepes

PUERTO RICAN CEMENT COMPANY, INC.

2 Ponce, Puerto Rico

---Page Break---

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FOSSIL FUELS OUTLOOK FOR PUERTO RICO'S PRIVATE

# INDUSTRIAL SECTOR

?Table of Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

DEFINITION OF TERMS

INTRODUCTION

ORIGIN-COMPOSITION-CLASSIFICATION OF FOSSIL FUELS

ENERGY: THE PROBLEM OF THE CENTURY

FOSSIL. FUELS INVENTORY

PUERTO RICO AND THE WORLD'S ENERGY SITUATION

ENERGY AND PUERTO RICO INDUSTRY

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REFERENCES

Page

---Page Break---

FOSSIL FUELS OUTLOOK FOR PUERTO RICO'S PRIVATE  
INDUSTRIAL SECTOR

Mr. Carlos Yepes!/  
P.M. Manager, Puerto Rican Cement Company, Inc  
Ponce, Puerto Rico

ABSTRACT

A SHORT history of fossil fuels is presented, from their origin to present times as energy producing natural resources in America and the world. The present and future energy situation resulting from the indiscriminate use of our energy resources is briefly analyzed. A presentation is also made of the distribution of the world's energy resources.

The price escalation of fossil fuels is discussed in the context of its effect on Puerto Rico's industrial development and economy, both for the present and future, Energy conservation, together with the use of other conventional and non-conventional energy sources, is evaluated as a Puerto Rican option, Also presented is a brief analysis of Puerto Rico's energy policy today, and the eventual discovery of oil in Puerto Rico,

## DEFINITION OF TERMS

### 1. Fuel

Any material, solid, liquid or gas which burns in the presence of air or decomposes liberating considerable heat energy.

### 2. Fossils

Applied to substances of organic origin, more or less petrified, found in earth strata. (Fossil fuels, coal, natural gas, oil shales).

### 3. BTU

Unit of heat energy used to measure the heat capacity of fuels. Its equivalent to the heat necessary to raise the temperature of one pound of water by one degree Fahrenheit,

#### 4. Kilowatthour

Unit of electric energy equivalent to 3,412 BTU's

#### 5. Hydraulic energy

Kinetic and potential energy contained in the flowing river waters

#### 6 Biomass -

Conversion to energy of anything biological either thru burning or decomposition.

#### 7. MBDOE

Millions of barrels per day of oil equivalent.

#### 8 OPEC

Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries.

Algeria, Ecuador, Gabon, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Nigeria, Qatar, Saudi

Arabia, United Arab Emirates (Abu Dhabi-Dubai Sharjah), Venezuela.

#### 9. WOCA

World Outside Communist Area

10, North America

US. and Canada

11, Wester Europe

Denmark, Finland, France, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, U.K, Austria, Belgium,  
Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Luxembourg, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland,

Teiters note: Author definitions are given as received in the original manuscript.

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## INTRODUCTION

WHILE peering into the future to see where man is going relative to energy sources, it would also be well to look back in time, Modern man, especially in the industrialized world with all of its energy consuming conveniences, tends to lose sight of his much more humble beginnings. It is hard

for us with cars, and electric lights, and central heating, and air conditioning, and radio, and television and other conveniences we enjoy, to imagine man in his more primitive state, In 1700 the world population was about 600 million. By 1900 it had shot up to 1,500 million, and it is predicted to reach 7,000 million by the year 2000,



In the United States we use more energy per capita than any other nation. In 1972 we used approximately 346 million BTU per person, equivalent to 2,306 Bble. of oil per year. To maintain an improving standard of living, we will require roughly 380 million BTU's per person in 1985, This is equivalent to 2,530 gallons of oil per year. By the year 2000 this figure could increase to a per capita rate of 450 million BTU's per year, equivalent to 3,000 gallons of oil per year.

The problem, of course, is that the fossil fuels, which are the current primary source of energy, are finite. We cannot deny that the amount of fossil fuel on earth is limited. If we keep relying on it to the extent we do now, someday we will run out. The only question open for debate is when that may be.

The problem of limited supply is compounded by three other factors: One is pollution, another is the type of fossil fuel now being used, and the third is where these fuels are coming from. In the US, oil and natural gas make up 75% of our consumption and 7% of our reserves. Coal, on the other hand, constitutes about 90% of our country's reserves,

While the demand for oil has been rising at more than 5% per year, domestic production has been dropping at a rate of 6% a year since 1970 when production peaked. The picture is similar for natural gas. What we have done to close this gap is to buy additional needed fuel overseas. We experienced the disastrous results of this trend during the 1973 embargo and the subsequent price hikes. So we are faced with increasing demand, a diminishing supply, and an increased dependency on foreign sources.

What are we going to do about this problem?

The newly-created U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) outlined the effect it sees each of these

---Page Break---

2

measures having. In general, increasing the efficiency of energy use (conservation) can have the greatest immediate impact on the nation's energy system between now and 2000. The expansion in

the production and use of existing fuels, such as oil and natural gas, coal, and uranium, can also provide a substantial contribution to solving the nation's energy problem between now and 2000.

DOE, the main conduit for Federal funds into energy research and development, is planning to spend billions of dollars in the next few years. About \$700 million will be devoted to the Fossil Fuel Development Program, DOE has noted, however, that some new technologies, such as solar heating and cooling, geothermal, biomass, and oil shale utilization are likely to make significant contributions to the pre-2000 energy picture. Other potential energy sources currently under investigation include a means for harvesting the potential energy in oil shale, tar sands, and the geothermal heat below the surface of the earth. Work is also being done to recover presently unreachable oil and gas deposits.

Although much of the future is in question, there are a few things of which we can be sure, (Oil, gas, and coal will run out. But the sun, the sea, the winds, the rivers and the plants will be here forever, Let us best learn to live with and make the best possible use of these forces of nature,

Don't expect miracles in the short term. We had better face the fact that for the next 25 years we are going to rely on coal, nuclear power, gas and oil.

## ORIGIN, COMPOSITION, AND CLASSIFICATION OF FOSSIL FUELS

Fossil fuels are combustible materials of organic origin, produced by nature through long decaying, heating and pressure of accumulated decomposed vegetation in previous geological ages,

They are, chemically, composed chiefly of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen, with lesser amounts of nitrogen, sulfur, and varying amounts of moisture and mineral impurities. Fossil fuels may exist in the solid state (coal), the liquid state (petroleum), or in the gaseous state (natural gas), depending on how much heat and pressure they were subjected to and for how long

## ENERGY: THE PROBLEM OF THE CENTURY

There can be no longer any doubt that the world has reached the end of an era in its energy history. Increasing oil imports, the basis for three decades of unparalleled economic growth, will not

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be available anymore.

Complex factors ranging from increasing consumption to rising fuel prices and environmental considerations are the most important contributing elements to the very serious situation we will be facing during the next decade or so. Fortunately, the world is not running out of potential sources of energy. It will, of course, take a major effort and considerable lead time to develop new resources to meet future needs.

The United States will remain the largest oil consuming country and will become increasingly dependent on imported oil at least for the next ten to fifteen years. The world will be dependent on the Middle East for an increasing share of oil supplies for some years to come. Efforts to find new oil will not be as easy as in the past. Our industry has to search in increasingly difficult environments such as the Arctic and North Sea. The very large fields in the Middle East represent discoveries whose size is unmatched in the history of oil

cult

Even if demand growth were moderated, as we believe it must be, we need to face the fact that the world's conventional oil resources will not indefinitely support increases in production. To prepare for such a situation and for an orderly transition into a new energy era, consuming nations must create the political and economic environments that will encourage energy conservation and speed the development of other conventional and nonconventional energy sources. The United States has wider choices than any other nation because of the scale of our basic energy resources. The current crisis is a warning of the energy problems the world will be facing if supply and demand trends continue the way they are headed. Failure to recognize the importance of this problem and to take appropriate and timely action will almost certainly result in a world of confrontation and conflict. Higher energy prices, as the supply/demand imbalance becomes more apparent, will have pressing effects on the economies of the world and will frustrate the aspirations of the less developed countries. The longer the world delays in facing this issue, the more serious the danger will be. Even with prompt action the margin between success and failure in the 1985-2000 period is slim. Time has become one of the most precious of our resources. Recognizing the importance of

time and the need to respond can help us through the period of transition that lies ahead, The years up to 1985 are critical ones, Events and policy decisions in the decade before 1985 will determine the success in demand reduction, fuel substitution, or additions to supply in the 1985-2000 period.

---Page Break---

4

The transition away from primary reliance on oil will be well under way by the year 2000, For this to be a smooth transition, greater international cooperation among increasingly interdependent nations is essential. Vigorous research, development, and demonstration of new supply sources, plus conservation and fast-switching programs, must move forward on an international scale.

The period to the end of the century will be one of energy transition away from oil as the world's dominant fuel. It will be a challenging and critical period. Our energy world then, and in the

21st century, depends on it

## FOSSIL FUELS INVENTORY

Fossil fuels (oil, coal, natural gas) are found in the earth in sufficiently large quantities to take care of all of the work

energy needs for 100 to 150 years at today's rate of consumption. At the present time, 66% of present oil reserves are in the Middle East and North America. About 50% of total reserves are in the countries bordering the Persian or Arabian Gulf. Total oil reserves are distributed in approximately the following pattern

Mideast East 53%

Africa 16%

Russia & Communist Countries 15%

Europe 26

North America 7%

South America 5%

Indonesia 26

{In relation to natural gas, proven reserves are distributed as follows:

OPEC 38%

North America 13%

Western Europe 9%

Rest of World 8

(Communist areas 32%)

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?The estimated world natural gas reserves are equivalent to 386 billion barrels of oil

(Coal will again be the world's dominant commercial fuel. Today's leading coal producers are the major industrialized countries of the western world and the communist area. Three countries, the United States, Russia, and China, account for nearly 60% of world output, with Poland, West Germany, and the United Kingdom producing over 15%. The single largest producer and consumer of coal is the United States, with nearly half the production and over half of the known reserves.

?The world possesses vast reserves of coal, far in excess of those of any other fossil fuel. The total estimated recoverable reserves of 737 billion tons are enough for over 200 years of consumption at the current rate of coal usage. Expressed in terms of oil equivalents, this is equal to around 3,000 billion barrels, from 4 to 5 times the current level of proven reserves of crude oil,

?The world's recoverable coal reserves are distributed approximately as follows

United States 34

Western Europe 6%

Rest of WOCA 7

USSR and Eastern Europe 39%

China 148

United Kingdom & Canada 1%

Energy sources other than oil, natural gas, and coal could make a growing contribution to energy supply before the year 2000. These supply sources include other fossil fuels such as oil shale, oil sands, and heavy oil.

Known deposits of oil sands, heavy oil, and oil shale, are much larger than the world's proven reserves of conventional oil. Such deposits represent a potential means for supply of petroleum long after conventional oil and gas fields are exhausted.

In Canada, oil or tar sands lie in beds 50 to 100 feet thick under an area of 12,000 square miles near the Mackenzie River in Northern Alberta. It is estimated that 300 billion barrels of oil are recoverable if fully exploited. Such oil sand reserves would produce 3 MBD for 25 years.

Significant deposits of heavy oil have been found in Canada and Venezuela. In Canada, estimates of recoverable oil are in the order of 2 to 45 billion barrels. In Venezuela, in the Orinoco

---Page Break---

6

oil belt the thickness of the oilsands is greater than the originally estimated oil equivalent of 700 billion barrels

Oil shale is another significant energy resource. The largest known reserves are in the USA, with significant amounts found also in Brazil, Canada, Burma, USSR and China. US oil shale deposits are estimated to contain 2,000 billion barrels of oil. However, only about 6% of the deposits are sufficiently accessible and commercially exploitable



## PUERTO RICO AND THE WORLD'S ENERGY SITUATION

The effects of the world's energy situation are particularly serious for Puerto Rico. We, in Puerto Rico, depend on oil for about 99% of our energy needs. Puerto Rico not only consumes a relatively large amount of energy, but we do so in a very inefficient way. Oil is the only source of energy for our petrochemical industry, for the production of electric power, and to run our system of transportation. These are the most energy-consuming activities in our daily life. Most other activities such as industry, agriculture, and others are also greatly dependent on oil.

To solve this problem of inefficiency and high energy consumption, the only available alternative is the wise and prudent use of energy in the different sectors of our activities.

Puerto Rico currently imports 120

million barrels of crude oil and naphtha. Venezuela supplies

about 40 to 50% of this amount. It is estimated that nearly 40% of all imported crude oil and naphtha are exported as refined products or petrochemicals, mostly to the eastern U.S.

Approximately 60% of imported petroleum is consumed in processing (10%) and supply of local energy needs (50%). This means that 60 to 70 million barrels of imported petroleum are required to meet our internal energy demands.

We must stress the concept of energy conservation as our only way to reduce our consumption of oil and to reduce our dependency on imported petroleum, at least for the present and near future, and until we are fortunate enough to discover our own oil deposits, or to develop other sources of energy, including the use of other fossil fuels (coal), solar, hydraulic, nuclear, biomass, etc.

?You may not believe this, but the Puerto Rican spends a higher percentage (8%) of his income on energy than a mainland resident does (5%),

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?The PR Government has already prepared a document that presents a public energy policy for Puerto Rico, It is @ plan for the careful administration and control of our energy consumption, based primarily on the saving of energy combined with the ev

tual substitution of present

conventional fuel (i), The immediate goal is to save 5 to 64 of our actual consumption in 1980,

?This saving will represent approximately 3 to 3.5 million barrels of petroleum every year, of an

equivalent of 50 to 60 million dollars. The two most critical areas for control of energy are transportation (gasoline) and residential/commercial (air conditioning and illumination). This program requires the joint effort of government, industry, business in general, and all citizens as well.

All of the above measures should help save energy and some money but will not free us from our oil dependency at all. There are only two ways in which we can get away from our need of importing petroleum: To discover oil in Puerto Rico, or to change over from oil to coal.

The discovery of oil

in Puerto Rico would, of course, be the most welcome event. If, unfortunately, it does not occur, we will definitely have to base our energy future on the use of coal which is quite abundant in America and much cheaper than petroleum. If oil is present in Puerto

Rico, natural gas should also be available. Then we may count on two very important sources of energy which will completely change our energy picture. Let us hope and pray that this is true. There are, fortunately, a few renewable natural sources of energy quite abundant in nature. These are solar energy, wind energy, and hydropower. There is no solid waste.

These are potential future alternatives for development before we run short of the three primary energy sources, oil, coal, and natural gas. Which of these renewable resources will help us

better face our energy situation is hard to predict, This may ultimately depend on what kind of «  
are the sun, the ocean, the winds, and bioms

decision we make and how we develop a successful alternative energy program.

## ENERGY AND PUERTO RICO INDUSTRY

?The three most intensive energy consumers in the industrial sector of our economy are:

Petrochemicals, electric energy utilities (PREPA) and the cement industry. I will present to you, gentlemen, a short review of the cement industry in relation to the energy problem, which I suppose will be relatively alike in effect, if not in dimension, to other large industries,

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8

?As you very well know, the cement industry is a high energy consumer. Fuel oil and electric power represent almost 60% of all current operating costs. The industry consumes 1.5 mi

barrels of fuel oil each year, now costing approximately 35 million dollars. It consumes 200,000,000 KWH of electric power costing 14 million dollar annually. These costs may very well rise to \$50 million and \$20 million, respectively, in the next five years or so,

?There are a few alternatives we have been considering as possible solutions to our energy problem. These are:

1, Change from wet process to dry process.

2 Change over from oil burning to coal burning.

?Use biomass energy.

Alternative No. 1 is the most attractive one in terms of heat energy saving and increase in production obtained, but the investment involved in the change is very high. The dry process is indeed a revolutionary approach to the saving of energy in the cement industry. While in the wet process the average energy is approximately 1,000,000 BTU/barrel, in the dry process it is reduced to 550,000 BTU/barrel. In a 6,000,000 barrel plant such as ours, this could represent a saving of approximately 500,000 barrels of fuel oil every year amounting to 13 million dollars. Besides this saving in fuel oil, conversion from the wet to dry process could mean an increase in production by the converted unit of approximately 408,

This indeed would be a very attractive proposal if it were not for the large investment involved of about 125 to 150 dollars per ton of capacity. In our case the investment could amount to 150 million dollars. Very few industries

Puerto Rico can afford to spend that much money. We are among the very many who cannot.

Alternative No.2 is actually the most viable in terms of time, availability of coal, and also in terms of investment involved and savings through the use of cheaper fuel. It is also a less complicated conversion. We have already gone through most of the preliminary studies and we hope

to be able to move along with this project in a short time. This change means the complete substitution of oil with coal.

?At present prices the conversion from fuel oil to coal may represent in our case a good saving.

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9

of approximately \$1.50/million BTU, or about 10 to 12 million dollars per year. The approximate investment required for the conversion could be around 10 to 15 million dollars. This could be a more realistic approach to our energy problem in terms of economy, availability of fuel, and time required for conversion,

?The third alternative is biomass energy. We have been in contact with a few individuals interested in this matter, but as of now it looks as a possible alternative by the end of the century.

?There are quite a few problems involved in the conversion to coal burning in almost every case,

?but nothing could be worse than our running short of oil before we are able to use coal and other energy sources. Therefore we had better get started to make whatever adjustments we have to in

order to keep our utilities, industries, and transportation operating without any serious difficulties,

We are very much involved in this energy situation and we must make our particular decision

in this respect in the very near future, We agree with the general opinion that coal is the best

?immediate practical alternative to solve our energy situation,

We know what the problem is all about. Fortunately, we have the solution. It is time to make a

decision and start moving in the right direction.

## ?CONCLUSIONS

?The future of oil supply is uncertain. However, one conclusion is very clear: Potential oil

?demand in the year 2000 is unlikely to be satisfied by crude oil production from conventional

sources. The supply of oil will fall to meet increasing demand, most probably between 1985 and

1995,

?The world is near the end of an era in its energy history. Increasing supplies of oil will not be

available any more, The end of the era of growth in oil production is probably, at the most, only 10

to 12 years away. Increasing our consumption of oil, in the hope that more optimistic estimates

might prove to be correct, is to run the risk that the peak in oil production could be brought

forward, making the necessary adjustments in energy consumption much more severe.

?Large investments and long lead times are required to produce alternative fuels on a scale large

enough to compensate for the prospective shortage of oil. The task will be to manage a transition from dependence on oil to a greater reliance on other fossil fuels, nuclear energy, and later

---Page Break---

10

renewable energy systems,

Demand for energy will continue to grow even if governments adopt vigorous policies to conserve energy. The continued growth of energy demand requires that energy resources be vigorously developed. Electricity from nuclear power is capable of making an important contribution to the world's energy supply. Coal has the potential to contribute substantially to our future energy supply. Coal can bridge the transition from the fading petroleum era to the next century's renewable sources of energy. It is the only fuel capable of doing this in large enough quantities within the time available. Because prices of coal are likely to be based on costs, over the long term, the present price advantage of coal over oil and gas is likely to increase. The major coal use in the year 2000, as today, is projected to be in electric use, which now consumes 60% of total coal

Although the resource base of other fossil fuels such as oil sands, heavy oil, and oil shale is very large, they are likely to supply only small amounts of energy before the year 2000.

Other than hydroelectric power, renewable resources of energy like solar, wind power, and wave power are unlikely to contribute significant quantities of additional energy during this



21st century. They are likely to become increasingly important in the 21st century

Conservation will become, over the next 20 years, one of world's largest energy

sources. A

25% projected energy input per unit of activity would reduce the amount of increased energy needed by almost as much as the projected three-fold expansion of coal, Policies for energy conservation should continue to be Key elements of all future energy strategies,

achieving

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How MUCH COAL Mow MUCH coal

we ?HAVE WE NOW USE

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Known Reserves of Current Energy Sources

Energy Fuels Inthe U.S.

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A\_COMPARISON OF OIL\_AND COAL RESERVES

(UNITS: Billion Barrels Oil Equivalent )

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COMBUSTION SYSTEMS FOR BAGASSE AND FOSSIL/BAGASSE  
FUEL BLENDS

Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

?November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

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(COMBUSTION SYSTEM FOR BAGASSE AND FOSSIL/BAGASSE

FUEL BLENDS

?THIS PAPER reviews the critical components of combustion systems that are dedicated to the firing of bagasse and fossil/bagasse fuel blends,

on

?The use of oil poses no special problems. Add on systems would be installed as completely separate systems with their own storage and conveying equipment. There would be no common elements with bagasse or coal systems. On the other hand, coal or bagasse systems cannot be retrofitted to most boilers designed primarily for oil without a severe reduction in capacity. The firing chambers are too small and they have no provision for ash handling facilities. Coal/oil ?mixtures and pulverized coal burners of the BlawKnox type help to overcome some of the

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## BAGASSE AND COAL.

Except perhaps for the conveying and delivery systems, bagasse and coal are compatible for firing in the same combustion chamber. The vibrating grate stoker and the underfeed single retort, Stoker with dump grates can be designed to handle equally well bagasse or coal. The designer must have information about the amount of ash, ash fusion temperatures, coal size and moisture,

Both bagasse and coal require spacious firing chamber that allow long flame paths to give the time needed for complete combustion and to minimize deposition of slag on the boiler tubes.

Both bagasse and coal require similar levels of excess air. The placement of air tuyeres for both underfire and overfire

air would be similar for each.

Conveying and delivery equipment should be kept separate. That is, one system could not be equally capable of handling coal as well as bagasse or vice versa. There are widely different design criteria for each material,

## DRYERS

More and more attention is being given to using fuel gas to reduce the moisture of fuels such as

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bagasse and wood. They have an inherently low BTU value and a high water content, The successful

exploitation of these biomass fuels will be moved forward considerably by the application of this

technique. By reducing the moisture, a greater portion of the fuel BTU value is available for useful work,

Such a system was operated by A.CLL at Central Coloso in 1978. It was found that by reducing the bagasse moisture level, the excess air rate could be reduced. For instance, when the bagasse was

fired at a 43% moisture content, the excess air could be reduced to 10% without the formation of detectable carbon monoxide. That is, less than 0.1'. In consequence, a second significant increase is

realized in the energy available for useful work,

The drying of bagasse can be employed toward a second equally valuable end, the storage of bagasse for future energy requirements, The moisture content must be reduced to prevent decomposition and degradation.

Figures 1 through 6 show the evolution of a boiler dryer system. The stepwise progression demonstrates the flexibility of design to satisfy various ends, The system is designed around two boilers, although all the elements can be practiced in a single boiler. Drying the bagasse in two steps

reduces the fire hazard, In this system, low moisture bagasse is exposed only to dryer gas with a very low oxygen content. In addition, a two-boiler system would permit easier control in load swing situations, The system parameters and design, in particular for the dryer, are based on the results obtained in the Central Coloso test.

Figure 1 shows the first step in the dryer system. The boiler conditions are patterned after the typical bagasse boiler found in the sugar industry. Combustion takes place with an excess air rate of 50%, This is necessary with a moisture level of 32.5%, Below 50% excess air, combustion efficiency would degrade rapidly. The factory load requirement is assumed to be 200,000 steam/hr. and boiler one is being fired to carry half the load,

In Figure 2, the 32.5% moist bagasse from the first dryer is fed to the dryer of the second boiler before going to the combustion chamber, In the second dryer, the bagasse is further dried from 32.5% moisture to 20% moisture in an oxygen depleted atmosphere. Since Boiler #2 needs to Produce 100,000 steam/hr. to meet demand, all of the 20% moist bagasse is not fired. The remainder may be stored. Note that if the remaining bagasse were fired at the conditions of Boiler

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2, would produce an additional 60,5008 steam/hr. Therefore, where present typical firing conditions would produce 200,000 steam/hr. (2x Boiler 1), drying the bagasse Before combustion

2s in Figure 2 would produce 260,500 steam/hr. for an increase of 30.25w in the use heat value of the bagasse,

Note in Figure 2 that the boiler temperature profile is different in the two boilers. The two boilers are the same and the steam from each is used at the same pressure of 180 PSIA. The temperature profiles are affected by mass flow rate, specific heat, inlet temperature and change in ratio of radiant to convection heat transfer. For these designs, the ratio of radiant to convection heat transfer is assumed constant. The radiant heat transfer is proportional to the 4th power of the temperature but there are other variables affecting emissivity, in particular gas composition. It is true, that to a high degree, the various interrelated factors cancel out overall. Therefore the new temperature profiles are found by

$U A_{tm} = w c_p \Delta t$

here = combined conductance X surface area

= constant for boiler

$t_m$  log mean temp. difference, gas and saturated water

$t_i$  = gas temp, entering tube bank

$t_2$  = gas temp, leaving tube bank

$T_s$  = saturated temp, of boiler water

$W$  = weight flow of steam

a= mean specific heat of as

?The length of time that 20% most bagasse can be stored without serious degradation is still an unknown, So, let's see what can be done to obtain a drier bagasse for storage.

In Figure 3, we state that it is necessary to fire more of the bagasse from the Boiler? dryer in order to reduce slightly more the bagasse for storage. We have also reduced the quantity remaining for storage. We can pursue this direction further as in Figure 4 and get down to 17% moist bagasse for storage, but have even smaller amount, in fact, a very small amount. This approach has serious constraints, To get drier bagasse, we have to consume more and, in consequence, generate more steam which will have to be wasted if the factory can't wait. Also, to get drier bagasse, we get less

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of it, It seems as though 17% moist bagasse is the limit. If we try to go drier, there will be virtually none to store.

?The dryer, like any mass transfer device, is subject to rate constrained mechanisms, If time

were not a factor; that

finite, the materials would come to true equilibrium, For instance, if the

?example in Figure 1 were given infinite time to equilibrate, the final conditions would be those

shown in Figure 5 where the bagasse moisture is reduced to 27.6% compared to 32.5%. At greatly increased capital expense and/or operating expense, the dryer efficiency can be increased,

However, let's take another approach. Figure 6 shows this other approach where Boiler 1 is operated at 100% excess air. Some boiler output is sacrificed, but the bagasse is dried to 20% moisture. Continuing, Boiler 2 is fired at a rate to compensate for the reduced output of Boiler 1 so the total steaming rate is the required 200,000 steam/hr. Now the bagasse remaining from Dryer 2 is down to 3% moisture and in such quantity that were it fired in Boiler 2, it would produce another 64,500 steam/hr. The increase in bagasse useful heat value is 32-1/2% over the present typical firing method (see Figure 1). I am letting the 3% moisture stand only to demonstrate the theoretical Potential of the technique. It is presumed otherwise that the hygroscopic nature of bagasse below about 15% will result in equilibrium at some higher moisture level.

What we accomplished here is to establish a heat pump. The energy deficit from Boiler 1 raises the BTU's of the extra excess air to a higher energy level to increase the driving force that produces drying—the drying effect being greater than the deficit could produce in the former fashion.

Again, I would like to note that these effects can be combined in a single boiler/dryer system with similar end results. I do not show that here, since it is important to preserve the condition where low moisture bagasse is treated with oxygen depleted gases.

Referring to Figures 2, 3 and 4, and the available energy yield from the remaining bagasse; the available steam/hr. figures were based on firing the remaining bagasse under the existing conditions of Boiler 2. If the firing were done in another boiler/dryer, the ultimate yield in each case would equal that in Figure 6. We have not in any case affected the true ultimate yield under maximized conditions with the equipment available. What we have done is to create a highly

flexible system whose operation can be tailored to meet almost any end objective.

To complete the picture, refer to Figure 7. This would be the case where there is a temporary

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increase in the need for steam. One boiler is shown, but the same applies to both. All the bagasse from the dryer is fed to the boiler with the boiler operating at 10% excess air. Conditions will equilibrate such that the boiler produces 132,750 steam/hr. and the bagasse is dried to 41% moisture. For the two boilers the output would be 265,500 steam/hr. bagasse for an increased useful heat value of 32.7%.

## PREHEATER

A preheater is a heat saving device that reduces the heat loss going out the stack. The result is an increased yield in the useful heat value of the fuel. The examples worked out above in the figures

do not use a preheater. It would appear that the preheater, by reducing the temperature of the

stack

1s would reduce the ?drying capacity? of the flue gas. But other parameters are changed by the preheater, such as flame temperature, and therefore boiler temperature profile. It is not intuitively obvious what would happen, and the cases have to be worked out. For now, it is an open question, ?but my educated guess is that it will not detract from the increase in fuel useful heat value afforded by the dryer.

## ?CORROSION

?When firing coal in a low pressure boiler, attention must be given to the flue gas temperature. It must be maintained above the dew point of SO<sub>2</sub> or else the rate of corrosion will be serious. This applies in particular to the superheater and preheater, This temperature is usually considered to be about 350°F., but with high levels of coal sulphur, it will be higher.

## ?ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.

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28.5 TH

52% Moist

8300 BTU/y Dry, ALP.

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?BOILER

overall Ef. = 5h.4t%

845 TPH

52h voit

8300 BTU/# Dry, A.P-

FIGURE 1

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BOILER 2

Overall Bff 78.4%

TO STORAGE

Soh TPH 16.8 TPE

19h Hotet 19% Wott

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CENTRALS LAFAYETTE AND AGUIRRE AS POTENTIAL SITES FOR  
ENERGY COGENERATION

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## CENTRALS LAFAYETTE AND AGUIRRE AS POTENTIAL SITES FOR ENERGY COGENERATION

### BAGASSE: A FREE FUEL IN P.R. SUGAR MILLS

BAGASSE is the fiber residue left after grinding sugarcane. Its most important characteristics are its heating value, fiber content, moisture content, and ash. Bagasse has always been used in Puerto Rico's sugar mills as fuel for the generation of steam, which in turn is used for moving the mill engines, for processing (and evaporation), and for the generation of electricity.

?The total bagasse produced during the 1980 crop in all the Puerto Rico sugar mills amounted to approximately 827,213 tons (equivalent on an undried basis to 1,109,293 barrels of fuel-oil, which at current prices would amount to \$23,572,476). Since not all sugar mills in Puerto Rico have steam-measuring instrumentation, it is not readily known how much steam was actually produced in the sugar mills from bagasse. But using the Aguirre steam production data we can get a rough figure of what the steam production could have been. In this way we have figured a total steam production of 1,216,320 pounds of steam per hour. After using 60% of this steam for cane grinding, we then have left 486,528 pounds of steam per hour. This amount of steam could be used to produce 12,637.1 kWh of energy in the mill power plants (from bagasse fuel only), as surplus energy which could be sold to the P.R. Electric Power Authority. This would have a value of \$3,022,890.00 for a 125-day crop,

Bagasse, being

solid fiber, has different burning properties as compared to fuel oil. Whereas fuel oil, being a liquid, is very easy to transport, convey, manipulate, heat and atomize, it constitutes a fuel that is relatively easy to control. With bagasse the picture becomes quite different. Bagasse is a bulky fuel that tends to pack, has a relatively high moisture content, and is not easily dried. It also carries with it variable amounts of soil, which depends on the cane harvesting methods employed and to the extent to which the sugarcane is cleaned prior to grinding. Furthermore, bagasse does not lend itself to easy conveyance through a piped system, and it is relatively difficult to meter. It also presents a problem in its handling due to fugitive dust, and to store because of its

Potential for spontaneous combustion. Therefore, the process of bagasse burning in a boiler furnace is quite different from the burning of fuel oil, and more like that of burning coal. That is why

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Modern bagasse-burning furnaces and auxiliary equipment are related to those used in coal-burning boilers,

There are two principal types of furnaces for bagasse burning: The horseshoe type furnace in which bagasse is burned in a pile inside a horseshoe (or round refractory lined furnaces, where air is made available from the sides or in some cases from under the pile also), and the most recent method where bagasse is burned in a spreader stoker over a grate, much like those used in coal-burning furnaces. In the first type, bagasse is fed by gravity through a gate whose opening is adjusted manually. In this case the operator feeds the needed amount of bagasse to maintain a constant height in the bagasse pile and in actual practice the amount of air seldom varies. This is one of the crudest ways of burning bagasse. It is the method most used in the sugar mills of Puerto Rico. In most cases there are no indications of the most basic parameters of combustion, like furnace temperature, air flow, or steam flow (boiler load).

The few spreader-stoker type bagasse boilers that are in use in P.R. mills make use of bagasse-motoring devices for feeding bagasse into the furnace, instead of the chute and gate

system.

Yet these metering devices are also controlled manually by the boiler operator, and there is little or no air flow control. Boilers of this type could be easily improved by means of automatic combustion control which would adjust automatically the bagasse and air flow in direct relationship to the variations in boiler load, much as is done with coal-burning boilers.

For these reasons, there is still a long way to go in improving Puerto Rico's bagasse-burning boilers for an efficient burning of bagasse. This is certainly one of the main reasons for the large amount of fuel oil that was burned during the past crops, while at the same time throwing away enormous quantities of excess bagasse. For 1980, sugar mills in Puerto Rico burned 3,872,070 gallons of fuel oil, while at the same time all mills in Puerto Rico had to throw away excess bagasse.

#### LAFAYETTE SUGAR MILL

Central Lafayette, cane growers cooperative facility located at Arroyo, has remained closed since milling the 1973 crop. It ground the cane from Arroyo, Pails, and Maunabo. There are still some 105,700 tons of cane harvested there, mainly colono cane which is now milled at Central Aare, The Lafayette mill has since been maintained in good condition by the Lafayette Coop,

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and the factory is still complete. The interesting fact about Central Lafayette is that it looks suitable for energy cogeneration. The cane from this area could be Bought from the Colones, and the factory could be put into a relatively economical operation of cane milling for electric power co-generation and the production of high-est molasses. The operation costs could be kept low by ?sing and repairing only the equipment needed for sich purposes, This includes the cane storing and handling equipment, cane milling station, boilers, power plant, clarification equipment, and the ?evaporation and bagasse-handling equipment.

?The proposed operation at Centra Lafayette could be accomplished using approximately 30 to 35 men per shift. Some 3,000 tons of cane could be ground daily. By grinding « high fiber cane (20%) which could render 40% bagase (SO% moisture) per ton of cane, some 1,200 tons of bagasse would be produced daily. Ths the equivalent of 272.7 tons of fuekoil

### 1. Milling Equipment At Contral Lafayette

For the handling of sugarcane, Central Lafayette has two Wellman Hammer Head cranes, one of 10 tons capacity and the other of 15 tons capacity, There i also a truck dumper which unloads trucked cane into the carrier for immediate grinding. There are two sets of cane knives the frst has 8 300 hp electric motor and the second a 200 hp motor. One mill has a 2-oll crusher, sized 36? x £87, four other mills have 3-roller crushers with 36? x 84? rolls. The crusher is driven by a 24? x 42? Corliss engine. The fist three mils are driven by a 40? x 60" Cotlis engine and the 1st mill is

driven by a 26" x 48" Cotas engine

The steam plant is composed of an Erie City, spreaderstoker type furnace steam boiler having a capacity of 150,000 lbs of steam per hour; « Horseshoe Furnace type Combustion Engineering Boiler, rated at 90,000 lbs of steam per hour; and two smaller horseshoe furnace Stirling Boilers, rated at 40,000 lbs of steam per hour. The electric plant consists of one GE Turbo-Generator of 1,500 kw capacity, and a smaller Turbo-Generator having 200 kw capacity.

There are also two clarifiers, sized 26 ft. diameter and 20 ft. diameter, plus four juice heaters for a total of 5,250 sq ft. of heating surface. There are also two vacuum filters for handling mud from the clarifiers. The evaporator system has a 15,000 sq. ft. pre-evaporator and a 20,000 sq. ft. quadruple-effect evaporator. There are also five vacuum pans.

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2. Operation Of; Central Lafayette:

The grinding operation would use only the crusher and first two mills. The bagasse production; a 20x. fiber cane would be around 50 tons per hour (based with 50% moisture: This would result in a steam production of some, 206,250 pounds per hour. By deducting 60% of this steam for grinding, there would be 82,500 pounds of steam per hour for energy cogeneration. This would amount to 2,142.8 kwh. Since the actual capacity of the Lafayette power plant is 1700 kw, of this amount around 1,500 kw can be used for the grinding process, there is no generating capacity for additional energy to be sold at this moment. This means that, for energy co-generation at Central Lafayette; « 2,000 kw. Turbo-Generator would have to be added to its power plant) This is the only drawback found at Central Lafayette in terms of energy cogeneration,

## AGUIRRE SUGAR MILL

The Aguirre sugar mill located some 15 miles west of Lafayette, could possibly be utilized for energy cogeneration. Central Aguirre is still in operation and for this year's crop ground 401,000 tons of cane; although having a capacity to grind over 6,500 tons of cane per day. The Aguirre mill consists of two tandems for cane grinding. One is an 18-roller Farrel System driven by six individual steam engines and having a capacity of around 3,800 tons cane per day. The other is a 17-roller Fulton tandem, grinding 3,000 tons cane per day, and driven by three Corliss steam engines. It has a two-roller crusher moved by electric motor,

For the purpose of this study we have considered using only the Fulton-tandem for energy cogeneration.

The equipment, related to this tandem, and which would be utilized for energy cogeneration, includes: (a) A. Railroad car tippler and truck dumper cane table; (b) Three cane-conveyors for cane handling; (c) two cane knives, 300 hp each; (d) the 17 roller, 6-1/2 ft roller, Fulton tandem, moved by two 28" x 54" Corliss engines; (e) a 24" x 48" Corliss engine and a 200 hp electric motor for moving the two-roller crusher; and (f) Five bagasse boilers, four of which are horseshoe type bagasse furnaces, one actually, producing 80,000 lbs of steam per hour and having a capacity to produce around 60,000 lbs of steam each.

Also available is one spreader stoker furnace boiler with a capacity of 120,000 pounds of

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steam per hour, Each boiler is already equipped with an emission control apparatus (scrubber), Alto, there are four clarifiers, eight juice heaters, a tripleeffect evaporator, and a quadrupleeffect evaporator (For a total of 7 bodies). There is «salt water pumping station type barometric condensers, plus filters, pumps, etc, and a Power Plant, consisting of two, 2,500 kw-hr General Electric Turbo-generators,

for je

By utilizing the Aguitre Fulton tandem for energy co-generation with a capacity of 3,000 tons of cane per day, as in the Lafayette case, only the crusher and the first two mills would be used.

?The bagasse production (grinding 20% fiber cane) would be 1,200 tons day at 50% moisture, or

\$0

tons per hour from which 206,250 pounds of steam per hour would be produced. By deducting 60% of the steam production for grinding purposes there would remain 82,500 pounds of steam per

hour. This steam would again amount to 2,142 kwh of surplus energy. Since at Aguirre the power Plant has a total generating capacity of 5,000 kwshr, and only 1,600 kw-hr would be generated for ?winding, there remains enough capacity at the power plant for co-generating the 2,142 kw-he surplus energy to be sold to PREPA. It should be pointed out that the Aguirre power plant could ?produce the total electrical energy needed for grinding biomass inthe Fulton tandem (1,600 kw-hr), the extra electrical energy needed for the grinding of sugareane in the Farrel tandem (1,200 kw-hr), and still have capacity for over 2,000 kw-hr of excess electrical energy co-generation.

At present, the Central Aguire boilers are operating at their maximum capacity (actually some ?of them are operating above rated capacity). There is no steam production for co-generation with ?the Fulton tandem while at the same time grinding sugarcane with the Farrel Tandem, The lack of ?an additional bagasse boiler at Central Aguirre makes it necessary to dispose of some 300 tons of ?bagasse daly, while at the same time its electrical energy production is down to 3,000 kw-hr due to lack of steam production,

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XVII

BIOMASS FUELS DEHYDRATION WITH INDUSTRIAL  
WASTE HEAT

Presented To The Symposium

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(Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

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Denver, Colorado

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BIOMASS FUELS DEHYDRATION WITH INDUSTRIAL,

WASTE HEAT

wer, Colorado.

?THANK YOU for the opportunity of discussing with you today ?Biomass Fuels Dehydration

?with Industrial Waste Heat.? Recovery of waste heat from industry is certainly in keeping with

energy conservation measures of today, as industry is the largest user of fuels. Using waste heat to

create additional fuel is doubly important, particularly as applied to materials which are often a disposal problem. Most waste organic materials are combustible if enough moisture can be removed;

and this applies to industrial wastes, municipal wastes, and just ordinary agricultural waste such as stalks, leaves, and ordinary weeds. Unfortunately, the energy consumed in handling many wastes exceeds the useful energy that can be produced; therefore, it is necessary to pick and choose among the processes for those most likely to be energy positive.

(Illustration No. 2) Like other forms of energy, heat has the characteristics of both Quality and Quantity. Quality can be defined as quantity per unit; quantity can be defined as quality times number of units. Specifically, in the English system, a material at a higher temperature has a higher heat content or quality, as expressed in Btu/lb, than the same material at lower temperature. The extractable energy is recovered by removing heat from the material and lowering its quality from a higher temperature to a lower temperature, say that we are removing heat from furnaces by reducing their combustion temperatures to a constant smoke stack temperature of 500°F.

It is obvious that not only do we actually extract more heat per pound of furnace gas produced at 3000°F than we extract from the 2000°F furnace gas, but we also extract a greater percent of the initial heat. Of course, percent figures always depend upon the base used, which in this paper is the usual steam table base of 32°F, in place of absolute zero or other.

Historically, dehydration has been used for many purposes including preserving of foods such as raisins, prunes, other dried fruit, grains, and vegetables. Initially, these products were basically sundried, which is labor intensive, Obviously, as dehydration demand grew, larger and faster processes were developed, The direct-fired rotary dryer was introduced to the sugar beet industry

?before the turn of the century. This process produces animal feed from the fiber of the sugar beet.

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?Also, the rotary direct-fired dryer is producing animal feed from the fibrous portion of corn, a by-product of the starch and corn sugar industry. Another plant uses a rotary steam tube dryer to dehydrate the germ from the corn before making corn oil.

(Illustration No. 1) Waste heat from other sources is being added today to direct-fired dryer in place of the usual ambient dilution air, which is mixed with the products of combustion in the furnace. This waste heat can come from another source or merely be recycled from the dryer exhaust. These schemes are used in domestic sugar beet pulp dryers as well as a good many in Europe.

?Waste heat from other combustion processes is the exclusive drying media

?A corn processing plant drying corn fiber and steep water concentrate for animal feed. (Note: the boiler on the right and the dryer plant on the left with the connecting fuel gas pipe.)



?A Canadian saw mill is drying their waste products with boiler flue gas to produce boiler fuel,

?An American lumber and particle board plant dries ?hog-fuel? with boiler flue gas. (Note: the sophisticated control panel) .

?A charcoal producing plant uses the products of combustion of the wood volatiles to dry the ?aw material entering the process,

?A Louisiana raw sugar mill uses boiler flue gas to dry bagasse for boiler fuel

?A Philippine raw sugar mill is also drying bagasse for fuel with boiler flue gas, (Note: the color smoke from the boiler stack shows the difference between burning Wet and dried

?bagasse, Obviously the clear stack represents the dried bagasse operation)

?There are many purposes for drying fuels, of which several just make it burn better. We have all had some experience with a smoldering camp fire of trash fire, Damp wood and paper have a difficult time in reaching the kindling temperature having expended much of the heat of combustion in evaporating the moisture, The steam generated from this evaporation tends to shield the air from the surface of the material and the flame suffocates from lack of oxygen. To maintain combustion, more excess air is blown into the furnace, with the net result that the combustion temperature is again lowered. Until a bed of coals is established to maintain a kindling temperature, ?a large part of the carbon remains unburnt in the form of smoke or is discarded with the ashes,

?The low temperature combustion produces a low quality heat as described earlier with the bar ?Fah. The cooler gases not only carry less recoverable heat per pound, but a great deal of heat transfer

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surface or volume is required to obtain this heat. This is to say that the equipment required to transfer the same amount of heat will have to be much larger in the case of the colder gusts as the rate of transfer varies directly as the amount of temperature difference between the donor and receiver of the heat. The usual engineering expression for this phenomenon is  $Q = UA \Delta T$ , where the amount of heat exchanged equals a constant times the equipment size times the temperature difference,

(Illustration No. 5) The actual heating value of the fuel is increased by removing its moisture.

A part of the heat of combustion is used to evaporate the water, as noted before, which lowers the net heat value of the fuel as illustrated on this graph of moisture versus net Btu/lb of bagasse. Do not make the optimistic error of saying that the apparent increase in Btu/lb is proportionate to the same amount of heat increase in a fixed amount of moist fuel to be dried. (Illustration No. 3)

(One pound of bagasse at 31% moisture and 3300 Btu/lb becomes 78 pounds of bagasse when dried to 37% moisture with a heating value of 4750 Btu/lb. While the ratio of heating value is  $4750/3300 = 1.44$ , the ratio of total heat content is  $3705/3300 \approx 1.12$ , The 12% increase in total heat of a crop of sugarcane will produce a lot of energy.

Another common argument, against the operation of a boiler in conjunction with a waste heat fuel dryer, is that the energy used to dry the fuel could be used to heat boiler feed water or

combustion air and would amount to the same overall boiler efficiency; or to say waste heat recovery in the case of the use of boiler stack gases would be identical (Illustration No. 2) Please recall from previous discussions that wet fuels will tend to produce lower temperature products of combustion in greater quantities because of steam generated in the furnace along with additional excess air; therefore, a lower percentage of recoverable heat. (Illustration No. 6) Also, the percent heat recoverable from the exhaust gases is higher when a small amount of hotter gases is available

(A better example of the final stack loss would be illustrated by making the bar representing the colder gases wider to show increased quantity and calling everything below the 250°F line the loss.)

Other reasons for drying fuel are to reduce the quantity and weight of these materials for handling and storage purposes. Also, in the case of biodegradable materials, to prevent losses as CO<sub>2</sub> (or spontaneous combustion).

(Illustration No. 1) The usual rotary dryer looks about like this.

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1, A heat source which can be a furnace or a duct from some other process.

2.4 stationary feed section, which is shown here as a part of the furnace with a feed chute into the drum, This can also be a screw conveyor extended into the drum.

3: The rotating drum with carrying rollers and drive gears (or sprockets). The drum contains

some type of filters to mite material beng died Wik ie se

4. A stationary discharge section, to receive the material and gases from the drum and either separate and discharge them individually or simply blow everything to the cyclone.

5. An induced draft fan to pull the gases through the system along with the material. (It may be before or after the dust collector.)

6. The cyclone, which separates the material from the gases or merely removes the remaining dust from the exhaust.

7. An optional recycle duct which can be used to return some exhaust gas to the furnace.

The control of the rotary dryer operation can vary to some extent depending upon the heat source and the desired product quality. In the case of beet pulp where a 9% to 11+ moisture product is desired, a furnace is required to turn the heat on and off as the feed load fluctuates. The final moisture is held within these limits by controlling a set discharge gas temperature, which in turn controls the furnace firing rate. The other usual control on the rotary dryer is the rate of gas flow through the drum, which if too high will blow the material through the dryer without sufficient retention time to accomplish the drying; or if too low will cause the dryer to plug. This gas flow rate is measured by one of the following indications: the furnace negative pressure, the pressure drop across the drum, or the fan motor load (all of which vary with the quantity of material in the drum). The controller, sensing one of the above indications, operates a damper on the ID fan to maintain the gas flow rate,

In the case of using waste heat from another source, the gas flow rate needs some control as

above but the product moisture is allowed to float to some extent with the load to the dryer.

?Actually, the feed rate can be varied to maintain the desired final product moisture,

?The size of a dryer obviously varies with the quantity of materials to be dried; but more  
<especially with the quantity of water to be evaporated. Since the gas flow rate is fairly constant, as  
previously described, the only reasonable way to increase the quantity of gas flow for additional  
evaporation is to increase the dryer drum cross section. This is to say that the capacity of «dryer  
will vary as the square of the diameter, within the range of gas temperature restrictions (controlling

---Page Break---

5

the gas temperature will vary the evaporation rate within the operating range as previously  
explained).

?The retention time of the material being dried determines the efficiency of the dryer (where  
?efficient? is the lowest discharge gas temperature that will accomplish the desired result).

Retention time can be increased by increasing the dryer length. (Illustration No, 4) A two or three  
pass dryer is actually one long drum with a capacity proportional to its smallest cross section,

Retention can be increased by increasing the percent of the drum filled with material. One method  
?of doing this is to use internal baffling which holds material throughout its cross section, as opposed

to dropping the material from peripheral lifters alone,

Various styles of internal baffling are used for various purposes, all of which have developed from the original beet pulp dryer design. In addition to increasing the percent of the drum filled with material, these internal baffles distribute the material across the drum, thus preventing the gas by-passing to dryer exhaust. The additional metal also acts as a heat transfer media between the gases and the moisture in the material (like a frying pan) All of these features increase the rate of heat transfer and thereby the dryer efficiency.

There are practical limitations on the size of a waste heat dryer as dictated by capital cost versus annual total heat recovery. As previously explained, cooler waste heat sources require larger equipment at higher costs, but at lower percent heat recovery. Year round operations are preferable to seasonal operations and drying at high moisture levels (say 40% to 80%) are more economical than drying at lower moisture levels. The use of cooler waste heat gases requires a larger dryer for two reasons:

1. A larger quantity of gases is needed to carry the required quantity of heat,
2. larger volume of contact between the gases and the material is required to offset the smaller temperature differential, ( $\Delta T$ ), and a

The above factors are not additive, but since they are not proportional to temperature change to the same degree, they both have to be considered in design.

(Mutation No, 10) Waste heat fuel dryers are well suited for operation with steam boilers as

not only does the boiler use the fuel but also produces the waste heat. The arrangement indicated

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6

The diagram is typical of a variety of applications where the boiler and dryer are operating in a closed loop. The wet bagasse feed is the beginning of the process and the boiler stack discharge is the end of the process, with steam as the product. The boiler fuel gas can go to the dryer as needed, with the surplus going directly to the stack,

Specifically at this symposium we are concerned with cogeneration of electric power and process heat, especially as applied to the cane sugar industry. This is being done in most raw sugar mills today, which burn their own bagasse to generate steam and electric power for their own processing needs. Unfortunately, these systems were designed to be heat inefficient in order to more completely incinerate the waste bagasse. The counterpart beet sugar factory, which must purchase fuel, is much more heat efficiency conscious.

(Illustration No. 7) Utilities, whose sole product is electric power, have developed the most efficient use of steam for that purpose. In these cases, high pressure boilers feed steam to

condensing turbines, in order to attain the greatest pressure drop. Compare the percent recoverable heat of the high pressure boiler versus that of the low pressure boiler. Again, note the percent recoverable heat where the low pressure boiler supplies a back pressured turbine, as used by many

sugar factories,

(Illustration No. 8) In spite of a sugar factory's relatively inefficient heat process, which uses only some 8-1/2% of the available heat from its low pressure boiler to produce electric power, it also uses another 76-1/2% for process heating by condensing the exhaust steam at atmosphere pressure, The latent heat of vaportiation liberated by condensation is obviously the largest portion of the available heat from a low pressure steam process,

(lustration No, 9) The sugar factory with its low pressure boiler and back-pressured turbine generates all of the electricity and process steam that it needs for its own operation and if in balance, blows little exhaust to the roof or requires little exhaust makeup. However, most sugarcane factories do not burn all of their bagasse, and would need to burn even less bagasse if they practiced some of the steam economies ofthe beet sugar factories,

Hf a balanced sugar mill were to have installed a high pressure boiler with a suitable back pressured turbine, it could generate additional saleable power, as represented by the area above the 160 paig level on the left side of the tall bar on the graph, Ifthe extra bagasse were burned in a

---Page Break---



high pressure boiler and the additional steam were run through a condensing turbine, it could generate additional power as represented by the right side of the tall bar. The heavy line on the right side of the tall bar represents the additional heat available by pre-drying the bagasse (or conversely, the heat recovered from the boiler waste gases).

In conclusion, the cogeneration of a large amount of saleable electric power, in conjunction with sugar production, is now a reality. The Hilo Coast Processing Company of Hawaii now operates

a very efficient power generating plant with its raw sugar mill and supplies a large part of the electricity used on the island. It uses bagasse from other mills in addition to its own, and has a high pressure boiler supplying steam to a condensing turbine; automatic extraction from the turbine supplies process steam to the sugar mill,

The dehydration of the bagasse not only increases its heating value as a fuel, but more especially increases the system's total output by making it operate at higher input temperature and exhausting smaller quantities of waste heat at lower temperature.

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FIG. 7

STEAM TEMPERATURE vs.  
RECOVERABLE HEAT

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FIG. 9

RECOVERABLE HEAT  
WITH COGENERATION

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UTILIZATION OF BIOMASS/OIL. FUEL BLENDS IN  
PETROLEUM-FIRED BOILERS.

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Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

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CCaribe Hilton Hotel, Sun Juan, Puerto Rico

"November 24 and 25, 1980

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Contributed By

COMBUSTION EQUIPMENT ASSOCIATES, INC,

9 ?New York, N.Y.

---Page Break---

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UTILIZATION OF BIASS/OIL FUEL BLENDS IN  
PETROLEUM-FIRED BOILERS

?Table Of Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

INCREASING POTENTIAL FOR BIOMASS FUEL

LIMITATIONS OF SUGAR MILL COGENERATION

BIOMASS CONSTRAINTS AS AN ALTERNATIVE FUEL

BIOMASS AS A PREPARED FUEL

SLIDE LEGENDS FOR CEA PROCESSES

SUMMARY

FIGURES

---Page Break---

UTILIZATION OF BIOMASS/OIL FUEL BLENDS IN

## PETROLEUM-FIRED BOILERS

Floyd Hasselriis and Alphonse Bellacl!

Combustion Equipment Associates, Inc, New York

### ABSTRACT

?THE DRASTIC increase in oil prices has changed the economic value of biomass crop residues and created incentives toward increased energy recovery and power generation efficiencies. The highest efficiencies can be achieved by burning dry, powdered biomass fuels such as ECO-FUEL? and AGRI-FUEL? in utility boilers,

Cofiring of ECO-FUEL in suspension with oil in Bridgeport, Connecticut has already been demonstrated at up to 50% of boiler heat input with highly satisfactory results: no loss in plant efficiency, acceptable stack emissions and minimal tube fouling,

AGRI-FUEL has been produced in a CEA pilot plant in Connecticut. Indications are that dry, powdered fuels prepared from crops and crop wastes have 2 significant potential as a storable, ?transportable fuel for co-firing with oil in new and existing boilers and cement Kilns.

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## UTILIZATION OF BIOMASS/OIL FUEL BLENDS IN PETROLEUM-FIRED BOILERS.

### INTRODUCTION

BIOMASS offers a renewable alternative to petroleum oils as an energy source, especially in tropical islands, and the possibility of energy self-sufficiency.

In the past, biomass, such as bagasse and crop wastes, has been burned in boilers with the disposal of waste as the major objective, together with generating only the thermal and mechanical



?energy required by the sugar mill. This marriage of objectives resulted in both wasteful use of heat {in the sugar mill, and inefficient recovery of energy from the bagasse. An effort to remove more energy from the bagasse would result in excess energy which the plant could not use.

?The export of power from sugar mills has attracted greater interest in recent times as the price of oil increased many fold. Utilities are now becoming willing to pay for export power at rates which reflect the cost of oil, and governmental regulations are more and more being changed to {include the capital cost of new power plants in the price paid for exported power.

?This new economic situation has created new areas of interest, including:

+ Improved efficiency of existing sugar mills to maximize the export of power,

\* The greater production of fuel from biomass for transport and industry as a

?means of reducing dependence on oil

INCREASING POTENTIAL FOR BIOMASS FUEL,

?As a consequence of increased revenues from export of power we now see an effort to use less

Power in the sugar mill, to increase boiler efficiency, to increase the thermal efficiency of power

?conversion in the mill, to employ heat recovery devices where practical, and to improve the thermal efficiency of the sugar refining process itself.

?These measures have been carried out extensively in Havana, Florida and other places where

the utilities are now required to show an active interest, whereas in the past they were only offering

4 pittance for excess power,

?As power production rather than heat generation becomes the economic objective, increasing

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thermal efficiency of power generation becomes important: low pressure boilers and turbines produce only a fraction of the power, from the same heat energy, as high-pressure high superheat boilers. Drying the bagasse before firing, using stack gas heat recovery becomes attractive, Recovery of stack gas heat by air preheat economisers becomes justified.

We also see a shift toward molasses and alcohol production which results in different energy balances and economics.

Direct production of fuel from biomass, without necessary association with sugar production has become more attractive as oil prices fluctuate and continue to rise. Over the last few years, CEA has been closely following the interesting and exciting "energy cane management" concept which has been developed by the Center for Energy and Environment Research, University of Puerto Rico. The implementation of this concept would materially increase the amount of biomass available for the production of energy,

As sugar becomes a

rewarding crop, the same land can be converted to growing crops for

energy. To do this, however, we must find the energy users which can burn this fuel as a partial or even full replacement for oil, since the sugar mill is no longer the major user.

As previously mentioned, sugar industry boilers historically had been designed as a bagasse incinerator, the less efficient the better, so as to dispose of all the excess bagasse. By and large, if electricity is generated with these inefficient low pressure boilers, it would require between 15 and 20,000 BTU's per KW Hr. On the other hand, if electricity is generated in a modern efficient power plant the heat rate would be in the range of about 10,000 BTU's per KW Hr. In other words, biomass burned in existing sugar mill boilers for the purpose of generating electricity rather than for the purpose of getting rid of the biomass, would waste about 50% of the energy in the biomass,

For this reason CEA has developed a fuel from biomass which can be burned in efficient utility boilers and in general act as a direct oil replacement in cement kilns or other applications.

#### LIMITATIONS OF SUGAR MILL COGENERATION

While cogeneration in a sugar mill has some obvious advantages to the extent that it serves the purpose of providing power and low pressure steam for the mill, the sale of excess electricity to a utility is a decidedly unattractive proposition from the utility's point of view unless such excess

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Electricity is available in relatively large quantities at predictable and desirable times, In the case of Puerto Rico where the grid capacity is about 2000 MW, the task of accepting and absorbing relatively minute amounts of electricity from sugar mill cogenerators presents more of a problem than it's worth. Typically, a sugar mill would have an excess of 5 to 10 MW at varying and unpredictable times and the cost of dealing with it would probably be greater than the cost of the fuel oil saved, if there are any savings of fuel oil at all,

In the case of Hawaii or other places where efficient biomass power plants are being built for the specific purpose of generating excess electricity, the situation is somewhat different and the efficiency of those boilers and powerplants approximates the efficiency of a regular modern power plant. While it is true that under the new energy regulations coming out of Washington, the utilities will have to buy excess elect

ricity from cogenerators, it would be much more desirable for excess biomass to be converted into a comparable, storable and transportable fuel so that it can be burned in more efficient applications so that the waste of biomass energy can be minimized,

You may be aware of the fact that CEA, jointly with CEER-UPR, has applied to the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) for a grant to finance a feasibility study that would document such a biomass fuel concept. We look to utilities and industries, such as the cement industry, as major users since they consume energy all the time, not being seasonally affected. Industry, while an interested customer for biomass fuel, could not consume the full potential production, hence may be the tail of the kite,

So far, so good: We see a great potential for biomass as an alternative to petroleum in power generation, especially in efficient boilers with efficient power cycles. What stands in the way? Are there any reasons why biomass cannot be burned as an alternate fuel, replacing oil?

## BIOMASS CONSTRAINTS AS AN ALTERNATIVE FUEL

There are many reasons why this hasn't been widely done, some trivial, some surmountable, and some of which limit the range of application. These include the following:

- (2) Boilers designed for one fuel cannot necessarily burn fuels with different characteristics,
- (©) Boilers designed for one fuel cannot necessarily burn two different fuels at once.

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(©) The ash content of biomass fuels requires flyash collectors not needed for petroleum firing.

(@) Tube-fouling, slagging and erosion are caused by biomass fuels; boilers designed for oil may not be able to tolerate this

(©) Furnace and superheater temperatures are affected by the nature of the fuel: This is why the fuel affects boiler design,

(© Control of boilers burning multiple fuels may be difficult, inefficient or ineffective, if not impossible.

(a) Reliable production of power requires a dependable supply of fuel, and reliable combustion. This often means that oil must be burned whenever the biomass fuels insufficient, whether for an instant, an hour, a day, week or month.

(4) Oil can be readily stored. Biomass fuels must also be stored to assure steady supply to follow power demand.

There are obviously many problems and questions which can be raised. What proof or answers can we offer?

There are many bagasse-burning plants which demonstrate that oil can be used to sustain the combustion of bagasse in sugar mill boilers. Some modern bagasse-burning boilers use high steam

pressures and temperatures. There are reports that some of these boilers have experienced tube failures when operated near their ratings when oil is fired, attributed to the hotter flame produced by oil. These faults are probably correctable, but the contradiction between wet and dry fuels remains,

There are reports that, with substantially improved control systems, bagasse firing with oil can generate reliable exportable power. There are reports that drying the bagasse before firing

improves reliability and reduces the need for supplementary oil. These reports indicate oil can be

co-fired with bagasse to a certain extent in sugar mill boilers associated with fairly efficient power cycles, and that this course of action will continue to progress.

## BIOMASS AS A PREPARED FUEL

Bogasse is a prepared waste fuel. The grinding was needed to extract the sugar. The product is over 50% water and contains large fibers which are slow-burning, needing a large combustion chamber to minimize char and black particulate. It is reasonably stable. Other types of biomass would have to be ground to permit feeding to the boiler. Their variable moisture content would

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cause problems in firing the boiler and maintaining reliable, efficient power production. We can draw an analogy here with the urban waste-to-energy experience of recent years.

Consider the following points:

+ Municipal Solid Waste (MSW) and Refuse-Derived Fuel (RDF), are essentially biomass (albeit heavily contaminated).

Experience with RDF has shown that moisture, ash content, and particle size are

problems in proportion to their extent in the fuel

+ Experience has shown that dry powdered RDF (ECO-FUEL?) can be burned in a utility boiler firing with beneficial results. The boiler was for coal, and had adequate emission controls (ESP).

+ Wood has been burned in bark boilers with or without i

\* Ground wood and sawdust have been fired in an industrial packaged boiler designed for oil, with and without oil asst.

The above considerations indicate that dry, powdered biomass-derived fuels can be burned in industrial packaged boilers and utility boilers much more readily than wet, unprepared fuels.

The principal reasons for this are the following:

+ Small particles ignite quickly (at low temperatures),

+ Biomass is highly volatile (burns like gas).

High combustion temperatures and rapid combustion → smaller combustion

High oxygen permit

The ash in biomass is fine particulate which does not cause excessive slagging, fouling or tube erosion when properly fired.

What we see here is that highly processed biomass fuels can be substituted for petroleum oil in some existing boilers and certainly in properly designed boilers. A dry powdered fuel is much more compatible with oil firing than a large-particle moist fuel.

CEA has developed processes to reduce both MSW and crop wastes such as bagasse to dry



Powdered fuels which are storable, transportable, and readily conveyed by conventional powder handling systems. They open up entirely new potentials for biomass-to-energy.

## SLIDE LEGENDS FOR CEA PROCESSES

?A few slides will illustrate these plants

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?These slides show how much moisture and ash reduce heating value, and reduce boiler efficiency.

Figure 7. Combustion Characteristics of Coal, Oil and ECO-FUEL

This side shows the rapid release of energy from ECO-FUBL to be similar to that of oil.

Figure 8, Packaged Boller Burning Powdered Wood

Boilers of this type, designed basically for oil firing, have been used to burn sawdust and Bound wood without major modification, when equipped with double-vortex and other ?suitable burners.

Figure 9. Fuel Preparation Plant for Wood Waste

Figure 10, Histograms of Emissions of Fuels

## SUMMARY

Past practice has been to bum crop wastes inefficiently, with minimum processing. As the cost ?of oll increases, economics dict investment in more drying and size-reduction of biomass wastes ?and ultimately toward production of dry, powdered biomass fuels such as ECO-FUEL and

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AGREFUEL, which can be burned with or without oil in boilers essentially designed for oil, This  
now technology is still in the state of development but has already been partially demonstrated.

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FIGURE 3: The United thiusinating Boiler

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FIGURE S: Comparison of Fuel Properties

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FIGURE 8: Combustion Characteristics of Cal, OL1 and ECO-FUEL

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xix

PREPA ANALYSIS OF FOSSIL, FOSSIL/BIOMASS, AND BIOMASS

BOILER FUEL OPTIONS

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Presented To the Symposium

5 FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

November 24 and 25, 1980

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Contributed By

?THE PUERTO RICO ELECTRIC POWER AUTHORITY

2 Planning and Engineering Division

?San Juan, Puerto Rico

---Page Break---

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PREPA ANALYSIS OF FOSSIL, FOSSIL/BIOMASS, AND BIOMASS

BOILER FUEL OPTIONS

?Table Of Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

1. Fossil Fuels

?CONCLUSION

REFERENCES

?TABLES

---Page Break---

PREPA ANALYSIS OF FOSSIL, FOSSIL/BIOMASS AND BIOMASS  
BOILER FUEL OPTIONS.

Eng Jorge M, EiKoury!/  
Energy Studies Engineer

Puerto Rico Electric Power Authority

ABSTRACT

ELECTRICITY costs have risen to unprecedented levels in Puerto Rico during recent years because of increases in the price of imported oil. Because of this fact the Puerto Rico Electric Power Authority decided to use an alternate fuel for its next generating unit and is analyzing other sources of energy for possible utilization in the near future,

In this study we present some of the advantages and disadvantages of these alternate sources of

energy which come about when making a fuel utilization decision. The discussion is divided into three parts: (a) Alternate sources for base load units; (b) alternate sources which could serve as backup fuel to these units; and (c) strictly bagass-fired units

We conclude that, although there are problems and obstacles in these alternate sources of energy, these are modest in comparison to the problems surrounding oil, at present and in the future,

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## PREPA ANALYSIS OF FOSSIL, FOSSIL/BIOMASS AND BIOMASS BOILER FUEL OPTIONS

### INTRODUCTION

ELECTRICITY costs have risen around 150 percent during the last six years in Puerto Rico

(1). This strictly due to the fact that 9 percent of our electricity is generated via thermoelectric Power plants that use imported oil derivatives as fuel

{As we all well know, the cost of these imported fuels has jumped in an unprecedented way during the last seven years In Table 1 (2) we present the price paid, the barrels consumed, and the total cost if used in the production of electricity during the last seven years.

Our load forecasts are also predicting that by the end of this decade a least 900 megawatts of capacity will have to be added to our system to satisfy the demand for electricity on the Island (3)

## ANALYSIS.

### 1. Fossil Fuels

Given these two hard facts about our electrical energy situation, what fuel are new units going to use? The Authority had only two choices;

either nuclear or coal. The nuclear alternative was discarded because, apart from the uncertainties that exist at this moment with regard to nuclear plants and especially their radioactive wastes, it would have taken too long to be put into operation (mainly because of the licensing requirements). So the only alternative we had was coal (4)

Nevertheless, one has to be very careful when utilizing coal. For instance, some problems could arise if the properties and quantities of impurities are not considered in the design and operation of the generating equipment. Take for example the coal ash; if it is not properly considered in the

design and operation of the boiler it can deposit not only on the furnace walls and floor, but also through the convection banks. This not only reduces the heat absorbed by the unit, but increases draft loss, corrodes pressure parts, and eventually causes irregular or unscheduled shutdown of the unit for cleaning and repairs (5),

Another aspect that must be carefully considered in coal usage is that although boilers are often designed and equipped to use a wide range of coals satisfactorily, no boiler installation will

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perform equally well with all types of coals. All coals have certain properties which place limitations on their most advantageous use (6).

To define the limitations of various types of coal burning equipment in service, specifications covering several important properties of coal are necessary. For example, in pulverized-coal firing, which will probably be the type of firing to be used by the Authority's units, it may be necessary to specify ash-slagging and ash-fouling parameters for a dry-ash installation,

## 2. Fossil/Biomass Fuels

Boilers that use coal as fuel can be designed to use other fuels as backup. PREPA's units are going to be designed so as to use oil as backup fuel. The decision was made based on the fact that if

there should be any interruption in supplies of coal (although there will be a three month coal



supply storage system) the unit would be able to continue its operation (7).

Oil will be stored in tanks with a capacity for 30 days usage. At this point we could ask ourselves, should the Authority have considered other fuels such as bagasse or solid waste to use as

backup for these units? Let's analyze this situation.

Acro sud (cl for 200 MW yt i coined

786000 28d ona het of 9145.77 TU Yor

7352 -HOUIS. or; 7,352 HOU . 24 hows . 39633 days

year year aay ?year

then the rate of consumption per day is

756,000 SSE + 306.33 ?H8Y\*. ~ 2,467.93 tons

a

hunter a ashen tf FE at ensue

rate of 2,467.93 1088, then the heat content needed per day is:

59,23 x 109 BTU

day

6  $\times 10^9$  BTU. tons,

(4  $\times 10^8$  tons)  $\times 79$  tons

on

How many barrels of oil will we need per day in order to replace coal? Since there are  $6.087 \times 10^9$  tons of coal we need to meet  $9.23 \times 10^9$  BTU per day:

---Page Break---

3

$9.23 \times 10^9$  BTU  $\div$   $6.087 \times 10^6$  BTU.  $\approx 9.73 \times 10^3$  Barrels or 9,730 Barrels

For a 30-day storage of oil this is equivalent to:

$(9,730 \text{ BATE}) (30 \text{ days}) = 291,900 \text{ bars of oi}$

Bagasse

How many tons of bags: would be needed to replace coal? suming tat sugtane bie

BTU and we net x10? BTU a

havaet content 14.00 105 BEV and wo need 38.23» 109 BEY, hn

° ar. x . 3 or 4230 ?tons

$59.23 \times 108 + 1400 \times 106 - \text{BIU}_4,3 \times 10! \text{ a or } 4230 =$

ewer fo mini he 30 day so no thn we would edo ore in ta

$(4.200 \text{ \$8}) (0 \text{ days}) = 125500 \text{ on ftp}$

Solid Waste

How many tons of solid waste would be needed to replace coal: Assuming that solid waste has

seat coment 09.28 108 BEL (1), and wend ome 5.29 109 BTU, hen

x10 BTU. 5 9245x106 BEY « gata or tons

59.28 x 10? TP + 9.248 x 108 6.41 x 103 tons day 6410 08

Maintaining as in the previous case the 30 day storage requirement, then we would need to store in solid waste:

A10

tons

{Gae-) (30 days) = 192,300 tons of solid waste

?As we can observe from the previous analysis, if we were to use either bagasse or solid waste as, ?backup fuel to coal in this 300 MW capacity unit instead of oil, we would need to store 126,900

tons of bagasse or 192,300 tons of solid waste in order to meet the 30-day oil storage criteria (see Table 2).

We also have to take into consideration that both bagasse and solid waste are more complicated than it is in terms of handling, storage, transportation and preparation before

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4

combustion (both bagasse and solid waste have a high moisture content; therefore drying is essential see Table 3), But the most important factor to consider is whether the boiler will be able to burn either bagasse or solid waste to replace the coal. That is, can a pulverized-coal fired boiler be designed so as to burn bagasse or solid waste as a backup fuel?

Preliminary research indicates that it is possible that such fuel backup can be used, but that extensive modifications to the boiler would have to be made. These alterations to the boiler would elevate substantially the original price of the boiler (12).

### 3, Biomass Fuel

As for a strictly bagasse-burning unit, the Authority has taken its first steps in that direction by analyzing the alternatives that exist within our system to develop a plant on an experimental basis (13). Among the alternatives being considered are the former experimental nuclear power plant at Rincén, on the western part of the Island, with a turbo-generator capacity of 17 megawatts, and the San Juan Power Plant Units No.1, No.2 and No.4, each with a 20 megawatt capacity. Some of the aspects which the analysis is considering are: (a) The equipment available; (b) the sugarcane plantation vis-a-vis the unit location; (c) transportation; (d) storage of the bagasse and the fiber; and

(@) heat content of the bagasse to be used in the boiler.

?An important aspect to consider in this experiment is the moisture in the bagasse, Gas

?produced from bagasse has a high moisture content whose weight is about twice that produced from

oil and one and one-half that from coal. This high gas weight causes a high draft loss and requires either extremely high stacks or large fans to obtain the required steam capacity from the boilers. A low drafts boiler can alleviate these conditions (14). Bagasse drying via a mechanical dryer, of solar dried, could be a solution.

?Another answer might be to use the existing gases of a high-pressure boiler, This, apart from increasing the heat content of the bagasse, would reduce the amount of gases in the furnace, producing a cleaner operation in the boiler (15).

## ?CONCLUSION

We hive shown some of the problems we could encounter when shifting from oil, our

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?traditional source of electrical energy, to other fuels such as coal and sugarcane bagasse,  
Nevertheless, we at the Puerto Rico Elects Power Authority think that these obstacles are small in  
comparison to the economic burden and supply limitation if we continue our dependance on oi,  
The Authority is committed to supply,

the lowest price possible, the electricity needed to sustain  
the economic development of Puerto Rico. In order to do so, we will have to solve all of the  
problems which are limiting the use of alternate fuels at the present moment.

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Table 1

PRICES, QUANTITIES PURCHASED, AND TOTAL COSTS OF OTL, USED FOR

## HE PRODUCTION OF ELECTRICITY; 1970-1980

Expenditures ~

bad Sis Bol x 10° Total cost (\$ x 10°)

1970 1.66 11.38 18.9

am 2a7 13.78 29.9

1972 2.83 16.59 46.9

1973 3.28 20.29 66.9

1974 7.27 20.22 147.0

1975 11.09 18.22 202.2

1976 a7 20.69 263.6

1977 13.36 22.57 301.5

1978 14.43 23.86 346.3

1979 13.79 23.99 330.8

1980 21.75 23.38 508.5

---Page Break---

Table 2

ESTIMATED HEAT CONTENTS, DAILY CONSUMPTION, AND 30-DAY STORAGE

## REQUIREMENTS

### FOR OIL AND THREE ALTERNATIVE FUELS

Estimated Values For

Fuel Heat Content Daily Consumption 30-day Storage

Oil  $6.08 \times 10^8$  Btu 9,730 Bbl 291,900 Bbl

BL Day

Coal  $24.00 \times 10^6$  Btu 2,468. -

Gas  $14.00 \times 10^8$  = 4,230,000 Btu, 126,900 Tons

Solid Waste  $9.25 \times 10^8$  Btu 6,410 Tons, 192,300 Tons

---Page Break---

Table 3

PROXIMATE AND ULTIMATE ANALYSES FOR BAGASSE AND coal 2/

Fuel

Coal Baga

Proximate:

Moisture 25 52.0

Volatile Matter 37.6 40.2

Fixed Carbon 52.8 on

Ash 7.0 a

Ultimate

B, (Hydrogen) 5.0 28

C (Carbon) 75.0 23.4

S (sulfur) 23 ?Trace

N (nitrogen) 1.5 on

O, (Oxygen) 67 20.0

H<sub>2</sub>O (Water) 2.5 52.0

A (ash) 7.0

As Source: Steam: Its Generation And Use. Babcock &

Wilex. 1972.

2/ As fired; % by weight.

3/ Pittsburg Sean Coal; West Virginia.

---Page Break---

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xx

?THE MOLASSES CRISIS IN THE PUERTO RICO RUM INDUSTRY

Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

?November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

Dr. George Samucls

AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATES

Winter Park, Florida 32792

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

# ?THE MOLASSES CRISIS IN THE PUERTO RICO RUM INDUSTRY

## Table Of Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

MOLASSES:

1, The Raw Material

2 Quantity

3, Storage and Transportation

POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

CONCLUSION

?ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

LITERATURE CITED

TABLES



---Page Break---

## ?THE MOLASSES CRISIS IN THE PUERTO RICO RUM INDUSTRY

Dr. George Samuets!/  
/

Consultant, CEER-UPR Biomass Division

Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico 00928

### ABSTRACT

IN 1978 the Puerto Rico rum industry provided 85% of the U.S, rum market, returning to the PAR treasury \$200 million in Federal excise taxes. The diminishing P.R. sugar industry is notable to supply sufficient blackstrap molasses (BSM) to the expanding P.R. rum industry, and at present imports from foreign suppliers amount to 88% of its needs. These imports place the rum indstry in Jeopardy, as these suppliers can boycott Puerto Rico to protect their own rum production, or they ?an insist by treaty that all rums claiming geographic origin (ie, ?Puerto Rico? rum) must be <stilled from molasses produced in that country. The purpose of this paper is to present possible solutions to improve domestic molasses production to eliminate these threats.

?The use of high-fest molasses (HTM) would answer the present and future needs of the rum industry if produced by the energy cane (or biomass) concept. This fs a management concept stressing total growth potential rather than sugar. It would permit doubling cane production per

acre and produce sufficient HTM on 70,000 acres for the projected rum industry requirements,

Considerations of HTM production show that problems exist with the marketing price rather than in the field or factory. The economics of HTM pricing will have to be worked out by the interested parties: The rum industry, the sugar industry, and the government.

4 Agricultural Research Associates, 2001 Glenridge Way, Winter Park, Florida 32792.

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?THE MOLASSES CRISIS IN THE PUERTO RICO RUM INDUSTRY

INTRODUCTION

PUERTO RICO rum has become the favorite rum in the United States, capturing 85% of the rum market in 1978-79, Sales increases of 43% and 147% have been projected for 1983 and 1988, respectively (1). Rum production and exports have increased greatly in the past 15 years (Table 1), The taxes from rum sales are an important and growing source of Puerto Rico's Government revenue, For every proof gallon?! of rum produced in Puerto Rico and shipped to the mainland

?there is a return of the U.S. \$10.50 excise tax to the Puerto Rico Treasury Department, For each proof gallon sold in Puerto Rico there is a local tax payment of \$9.50. The Federal excise tax ?returns for 1978-79 were about \$200 million, and Puerto Rico's tax was about \$34 million. The {\$234 million total returned to General Fund revenues amounted to 14.4% of the total revenues received by the Puerto Rico Treasury. This means that of every seven dollars going into the Puerto Rico Treasury, the rum industry contributed one dollar (2).

?The Puerto Rico rum industry is threatened by a problem which jeopardizes its future. This threat is posed by the lack of sufficient domestic molasses, the basic raw material for rum Production. A declining Puerto Rico sugar industry has failed to meet rum industry demands for ?molasses since 1972, This deficit has been made up by importing molasses from other parts of the world. For 1980, the rum industry will have to import 87% of the molasses it uses. The cost of importing molasses from foreign sources adds to the Island's balance of payments deficit, Dependence on imported molasses leaves the rum industry at the mercy of foreign rum producers, who, by adopting « multilateral definition of rum, can decree that rum must be distilled from ?molasses produced in the country of origin. This claim of geographical designation can eliminate ?Puerto Rico? rum, A decision of the molasses-producing countries not to sell molasses to Puerto Rico would destroy most of the Puerto Rico rum industry (2).

?The local production of sufficient molasses for the Puerto Rico rum industry can eliminate the ?foreign threat? and reduce the balance of payments deficit, It is the purpose of this paper to Present possible solutions for improving molasses production in Puerto Rico,

YA proof gallon of rum is defined as one gallon of rum at 100° proof (50% alcohol),

---Page Break---

## MOLASSES

### 1. The Raw Material

Suparcane molasses is the basic raw material used in manufacturing rum, It is the end product of either raw sugar manufacture or refining it is usually designated as "fina" or "blackstrap" molasses (BSM). It is the heavy, viscous liquid separated from the final, low grade massecuit from which no further sugar can be crystallized by the usual methods.

The chemical composition of BSM varies with sugarcane varieties, weather, soil condition, harvesting methods, and processing conditions in the sugar factory (3). The main BSM constituents are water (17-25%), total solids (77-84), Brix (85-92), sucrose (30-40%), total reducing substances (10-25%), other carbohydrates (2-5%), and ash (as carbonates, 7-15%).

One BSM gallon contains about 6.75 pounds sugar, and it will produce about 0.75 proof gallons of rum. One ton of cane will produce about 6 BSM gallons (for Puerto Rico this varied from 5.9 gallons per ton of cane in 1954 to 6.4 gallons in 1980),

Highest molasses (HTM) is the name given to clear, light brown, heavy, partially-inverted cane syrup having 85° Brix, The term HTM is a misnomer, because it is made directly from the concentrated, clarified cane juice and no sugar is removed. The term "molasses" is generally used to designate material from which sugar has been removed by crystallization, However, HTM will be used herein as it is the term used in the sugar industry.

Milling, clarification, and evaporation for HTM follows the same steps as in raw sugar production. The syrup is inverted and then evaporated to 85" Brix. A typical HTM analyses shows 85" Brix, 27% sucrose, 50% reducing sugars, 2.25% ash, and 5.5% water (3) There are about 9.8 Pounds of sugar per HTM gallon (the range being from 9.4 to 10.2) and 17.6 HTM gallons per ton of cane (the range being from 13.3 to 21.8). Some confusion exists in the designation of sugar in HTM, as it contains sucrose and reducing sugars which combine to form the fermentable solids, or sugars in HTM, One gallon HTM is equivalent in sugar to about 1.5 BSM gallons A HTM gallon will yield about 1.20 proof gallons of rum,

## 2. Quantity

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The Puerto Rico sugar industry was the major molasses supplier for Puerto Rico rum producers until 1971 (Table 2) when the increased needs of the booming rum industry surpassed the declining

molasses supply. From 1971 onward the rum producers were forced to import molasses to offset the dwindling supply of domestic BSM, Imports have come from the Dominican Republic (major supplies), Haiti, Jamaica, Guyane, Brazil, Colombia, Panama, Mexico and South Africa In 1972, Some 16% of the rum distiller's BSM was imported. By 1979 this figure had increased to an

estimated 88%.

By virtue of research, quality control, and advertising the Puerto Rico rum industry has captured 85% of the U.S. rum market. Beginning with 296,300 proof gallons shipped to the U.S. in 1936, Puerto Rico rum shipments increased to 20.1 million proof gallons in 1979. Projections indicate that about 50 million proof gallons will be produced in Puerto Rico by 1985, This output will require about 75 million gallons of blackstrap molasses.

### 3. Storage and Transportation

Domestic HTM production for the rum industry will present certain problems of storage and transportation. Storage of HTM at extremely high temperatures will result in sugar losses. Experiments indicate that 100°F i

sugar losses (3, p. 377)

Since 1972, when BSM was first imported into Puerto Rico, a specific pattern of shipments has been followed to maintain steady supply throughout the year and to minimize storage. Molasses is received from local sugar mills, and the Dominican Republic and other Caribbean areas, from January to June, Shipments are received from Brazil, Colombia, and other sources in the July to

December period when these countries are harvesting sugarcane. Increased storage capacity will be needed to store the domestic HTM for the offseason when mills are not grinding. Usually, cane is harvested from January to June in Puerto Rico. Adoption of the energy cane concept (4) proposed by CEERUPR scientists would enable the grinding season to be extended to about 8 months, i.e., from December through July. Thus, HTM storage would be reduced to a 4-month period.

Transportation is a factor which must be considered with domestic HTM production. The principal rum distillers, which produce over 88% of the Puerto Rico rum, are located on the north

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4

coast, Bacardi at Catano, produces 72%, and Puerto Rico Distillers, at Arecibo, produces 16%. The remaining distillery, Distilera Seralés at Ponce, on the south coast, produces 12%. A major part of the proposed HTM production will probably be located on the south coast. To move the HTM by truck will prove too costly. It now costs about 1.2 cents per gallon per mile to move imported BSM from the dock in San Juan to the Bacardi plant in Catano, approximately 9 miles away (5). The most economical method would be to move the HTM by barge. Dock facilities are available for this purpose in San Juan and Ponce.

## POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

There are several possible means for eliminating Puerto Rico's reliance on foreign molasses.

This section will present these solutions from the standpoint of technical feasibility. The economic

feasibility of solving the molasses problem will require a later publication.

#### 1, Produce Sugar And BSM.

The normal routine of sugar and BSM production, as now practiced by the Puerto Rico sugar industry, yield only 14 million BSM gallons in 1980, or about 12% of rum industry needs. It has been estimated that 62 million BSM gallons will be required by the rum distillers in 1981. The sugar industry would require about 359,000 cane acres to produce this quantity of BSM, based on the present yields of 6.4 BSM gallons per ton of cane and 27 tons of cane per acre (Table 3). Even energy cane, at 80 tons per acre, would require about 77,500 acres. These increased acreages will conflict with proposed agricultural needs for food production (6). Thus, BSM is not the proper molasses source to satisfy the requirements of the Puerto Rico rum industry.

#### 2, Maintain The Present Sugar Industry And Produce HTM.

The production of molasses for rum can be increased by a factor of four by diverting all sugarcane production to HTM rather than sugar and BSM. For 1981, about 41.5 million HTM gallons could be produced (equivalent to 62.2 million BSM gallons) on 87,300 cane acres yielding 27 tons cane per acre (Table 3). This would meet the rum industry needs projected for 1981, but it would meet only 83% of the 1985 estimated needs of 75 million BSM gallons. It would not be

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possible to supply sufficient molasses by this means for the expanding rum industry

3. Develop The "Modern Agricultural Plan" For The Sugar Industry, Producing HTM Instead of Sugar And BSM,

The Puerto Rico Department of Agriculture, in its "modern" agriculture plan for the Island, has designated 70,000 acres for sugarcane, yielding an average of 3 tons of sugar per acre (6). This plan calls for a yearly production of 200,000 tons of sugar to supply the local market,

If implemented this plan could provide 43 million HTM gallons, equivalent to 64.7 BSM gallons, which would satisfy the 1981 rum industry needs. By 1988, the rum industry requirements (based on a 5% yearly growth) would climb to about 90 million BSM gallons. A deficit of about 28% in molasses production would be anticipated with this plan.

4. Develop The Energy Cane Concept And Produce HTM And Boiler Fuel,

A research project proposal entitled "Energy Cane Management for Boiler Fuel and Molasses" was submitted November 4, 1979 to the Office of the Governor, Commonwealth of Puerto Rico. It was prepared by scientists of the CEER-UPR Biomass Energy Program, and was based on sugarcane

research data obtained under sponsorship of the U.S. Department of Energy (7). The basic concept of the proposal is a pilot scale demonstration of sugarcane's value as an energy crop and source of HFM. By applying modern agronomic techniques based on sugarcane's real growth potential rather than sugar, millable cane yields in excess of 80 tons per acre year were demonstrated (4) Juice quality data indicated that over 1700 HFM gallons per acre could be recovered from this cane. (Critics of this project, and of the energy cane concept in general, have been reluctant to believe that sugarcane production can be increased by a factor of three as claimed. It is difficult for people who have dealt with Puerto Rico's sugarcane all their lives to accept the production of 80 tons of millable cane per acre, even on experimental plots. Actually, even when managed for sugar rather than biomass, sugarcane has often produced more than 60 tons per acre on the fertile, irrigated, and well-managed soils of Puerto Rico's south coast. By selecting high-tonnage varieties and managing them for maximum growth, yields in the order of 80 tons per acre year are not at all exceptional. The quantity of molasses produced on 70,000 acres, about 9 million gallons, would supply

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the fermentable solids needed by the rum industry in 1981. For future molasses needs of the rum industry, various combinations of HFM, and lower quality HFM, could be produced while simultaneously accommodating some sugar production during periods of high sugar values. From 70,000 acres of energy cane, a HFM yield of 99 million gallons (equivalent to 148 million gallons of BSM) could be obtained.

The use of 40,000 acres of irrigated cane lands on the south coast, yielding about 80 tons of

?energy cane per year, could provide about 56 million HTM gallons. This is approximately 85 million [BSM gallons (Table 3, solution 44),

## CONCLUSION

?The use of energy cane methodology to produce HTM on 70,000 acres can supply more than enough molasses to meet the needs of the Puerto Rico rum industry. This cannot be accomplished by present sugar industry methods aimed at raw sugar and BMI.

?There could exist a pricing problem for HTM as regards the use of current sugar values or BSM equivalent prices. The economics of HTM pricing will have to be worked out by the interested parties: The Puerto Rico rum producers, the HTM producer (Puerto Rico's sugar industry), and the Puerto Rico Government. Cooperation by all parties is needed to resolve the pending crisis in the Puerto Rico rum industry,

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS:

?Thanks are given to Prof. William Alison, Head, Department of Agricultural Engineering, University of Puerto Rico at Mayaguez, and Mr, Mariano A. Romaguera, Puerto Rico Sugar Corporation, Mayaguez, for supplying opinions and data on HTM composition and production.

?Thanks are also expressed to Mr, René F. Rodríguez, Caribbean Industrial Molasses Company, San

Juan, for data concerning BSM and HTM pricing, and to Mr, Carlos L. Yordén, Puerto Rico Rum Producers Association, Inc, San Juan, for data on rum production and exports.

Wye moun HTM cuca

\_The excess HTM capacity allows for the possibility of producing sugar as well as HTM when sugar prices are favorable,

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Tropical Bionass". San Juan, P. R., Novenber 24 and 25.

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TABLE 1, Puerto Rico rum production, sales, and taxes 1965-79 /

Production Sales (FG x 106) Taxes (\$ x 108) 2/

Year Po 2/ x 108) us PR Federal PR

1965-66 14.5, 3.7 -

1966-67 13.4 28 = -

1967-68 15.0 3:3 58.9 25.2

3968-69 17.3 316 73:9 27.6

1969-70 15.5 31s 70.1 26.7

1970-71 18.0 3.8 80.3 29.5

asn-72 24.0 318 91:0 32.3

3972-73212 34 96.2 30.

1973-74 = 19.8 3.9 85.6 33.2

1974-75 18.4 219 104.0 277

1975-76 24.9 40 7 38.7

3976-77 27.7 B10 BW 31.8

1977-78 28.1 37:0 3@ 17615 35.4

3978-79 37.5 2011 32 19.9, 33:9

/ Production and sales data supplied by PR Rum Producers Association, Inc., San Juan, P.R. Tax data derived from Depto. Hacienda Oficina de Estudios Económicos y Financieros, Estado Libre Asociado de P.R., Santurce.

2/ ¥6 = Proof Gallon (50% alcohol),

3/ Federal excise tax return \$10.50 per proof gallon exported to US;

taxes \$9.50 per proof gallon sold locally.

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UBLE 2, The relation between molasses production and consumption in Puerto Rico

(millions of gallons), 1964-79 2/.

Molasses consumed 1 desicét molasses



Yes Toul tee industry others 2 ?ingerety 30?

wD °

ws ama a °

165 www -0

wo ask 2.0 °

we 3 as °

° wee eat °

wo ska °

wn mee aa a0

wr sw 8

wo 3 ww 3.2

wn as a no 2

ws ae se no a2

° we no ue no

as na 6 na

week Bs

we aks e0 8.2

° ae

2 Data soplied by PR, Tam FrodacereAsoctation, Tats, fan Jum,

2 hnoah fonds and pharentiential wes prinacily.

5 43 300-ootanen prodced ~ others + rm indstny needs) x 300,

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TABLE 3, Blackstrap molasses (BS) and high-test molasses (HM) available from suggested possible solutions for molasses needs of Puerto Rico area producers.

Molasses production (gallons x 105)

solution describe per'acre? mt! asnt equivalent 2/

1 358,000 n ° «2.0

2 87,300 ? aus @2.2

2 70,000 35 a 7

? 70,000 80 98.6 7.9

4a 40,000 2 56.3 au.

Af Based on 17.6 gallons HIM per ton cane.

2f Based on 1.5 gallons BSM (6.75 pounds sugar/gallon) = 1 gallon ETL  
(9.8 pounds sugar/gallon) .

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un

TABLE 4. Percent of Puerto Rico rum industry molasses needs  
provided by high-test molasses (HIM) for 1961, 1985, 198

Possible

solution 1981 1985 1988

Conventional aor 83 70

Modern Agri- 20s 86 n

cultural Plan

Energy cane 2a 198 165

(70,000 acres)

Energy cane a7 uz 93

(40,000 acres)

HM needed a 50 60

(gallons x 10°

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(CELLULOSE CONVERSION TO FERMENTATION FEEDSTOCKS;

?AN OVERVIEW

Presented To The Symposium

## FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

(Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

November 34 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

RENSSELAER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE

?Troy, New York

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(CELLULOSE CONVERSION TO FERMENTATION FEEDSTOCKS;

?AN OVERVIEW

Table OF Contents

?opie

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

ACID HYDROLYSIS

ENZYMATIC HYDROLYSIS.

PROCESSES

Natick Process

Purdue Process

Gulf Process

U. of Penn.-GE (Solvent Extraction of Lignin)

Iotech (Steam Explosion)

MIT (Mixed Mold Cultures)

RECENT ADVANCES

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CONCLUSION

REFERENCES

TABLE

Page

10

n

---Page Break---

(CELLULOSE CONVERSION TO FERMENTATION FEEDSTOCKS;

AN OVERVIEW

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ABSTRACT

?THE MAIN principles of economical production of fuel alcohol from biomast are: 1.

Pretreatment to loosen the structure for efficient hydrolysis; 2. Avoiding excessive dilution so that expensive concentration steps are unnecessary; 3. Recycling to minimize waste; and 4. Deriving benefit from all components. Very effective pretreatments have been found, and hydrolysis of cellulose to glucose commonly gives yields in the range of 90 percent of theoretical. Another major component, hemicellulose, is easily hydrolyzed to sugars for which new methods for conversion to

ethanol have been devised. The other major component, lignin is not converted to useful products by any biological process with commercial prospects. However, native lignin will probably attract an excellent price for applications in polymers or binders, and byproduct lignin from an ethanol factory has ideal properties. A new, significant biomass industry should develop quite rapidly.

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---Page Break---

CELLULOSE CONVERSION TO FERMENTATION FEEDSTOCK;

AN OVERVIEW

INTRODUCTION

THE PAPER by Dr. Berger has covered a wide Scope of biomass programs for this symposium, a restricted review of the conversion of crude biomass to fermentation feedstocks is now appropriate. Although the symposium focuses on tropical biomass, almost all of the research in North America on hydrolysis of cellulose has used non-tropical woods or agricultural residues, Even sugarcane bagasse which is available in a few of the United States has had little testing. Nevertheless, tropical materials have many similar hydrolysis are quite predictable,



to the materials that are being emphasized, thus yields for

Much research has dealt with conversion of cellulose to fermentable sugars, but it is obvious that cheap fuels cannot be obtained if non-cellulosic components are wasted. Not only are credits for possible products lost, but it is costly to treat the large amounts of wastes after using only the cellulose. There is little margin for profitable hydrolysis to glucose for fermentation to ethanol if only cellulose is utilized. The economics are much more favorable when the other biomass constituents are also utilized. Fermentation of the sugars from hemicellulose to various organic compounds has commercial possibilities, and there have been recent improvements for the production of ethanol. No bioconversion of lignin appears to be practical because the linkages and aromatic rings are broken only in aerobic processes in which organic intermediates do not accumulate. However, native lignin should command high prices and find fairly large markets as a component of wood binders and plastic,

Hydrolysis of hemicellulose to mono- and oligosaccharids is easily accomplished with either acids or enzymes under mild conditions. Native cellulose resists hydrolysis for two reasons: (a) its highly ordered crystalline structure; and (b) a physical barrier of lignin surrounding cellulose fibers

+ Some of the most striking advances for the programs supported by the U.S. Department of Energy have been various pretreatment that render cellulose amenable to easy hydrolysis,

## ACID HYDROLYSIS

Acid hydrolysis of wood is old technology, and projects during World War II led to the

---Page Break---

2

Madison process which optimized time, temperature, and acid strength. While the process is not economical in the U.S. other countries, particularly the U.S.S.R., have many plants for hydrolyzing wood to sugars. A few plants produce alcohol by fermenting the sugar, but single-cell protein for animal feed is the most common product. Furfural is sometimes derived from the pentose fraction from hemicellulose.

Acid hydrolysis leads to a sequence of reactions. Hydrolysis is approximately 1000 times faster for hemicellulose than for cellulose, The sugars from each are degraded by acid to resins, polymers, and furfural derivatives, Reaction conditions are thus set for a compromise between hydrolysis and degradation such that the final mixture contains unreacted biomass, unwanted products, and the desired sugars. Since the sugars from hemicellulose are formed early, there is time for considerable

degradation leading to major losses. The maximum yield of fermentable sugars is about 55 percent by weight of starting cellulose

Hemicellulose can be removed by dilute acid treatment with very little effect on the cellulose

Adequate conditions range from 0.11 sulfuric acid at 170°C to 1 percent at 120°C with times up to one hour.

Knappert et al (1980) have reported the yield of sugars from cellulose as a function of time and temperature. Best yields are obtained at high temperatures for very short times. However, times less than 0.1 minutes can be dismissed from practical consideration because there would be insufficient mixing time for acid solution and biomass. The predicted yield does not exceed 55 percent of theoretical, thus acid hydrolysis must be improved or replaced with a different technology. There are indications that pretreatment of the feedstock can greatly increase the hydrolysis reaction rate coefficient. This would raise the yield of glucose by reducing the time for degradation,

#### ENZYMATIC HYDROLYSIS.

?Active cellulase preparations are seldom obtained from microorganisms which thrive on decaying plant materials, probably because cellulase producing cultures work synergistically, and few organisms secrete adequate levels of all the components of the complex of enzymes. It is ?uncommon to find a bacterium that is a potential commercial source of cellulases, but several molds

---Page Break---

Produce high concentrations of enzymes in fermentation tanks, Production of cellulases has advanced to the point where fermentation titers are sufficiently high that there is no need to purify or concentrate the product,

Enzymatic impurities can catalyze recombination of glucose units so that the product is contaminated with small amounts of oligosaccharides. For hydrolysis of native cellulose, the proportions of various cellulases in a given enzyme preparation may not be suitable, Analytical procedures are now available for resolving the components of cellulases, and some understanding has been gained of factors which shift their production. If no one organism can produce an optimum mix of enzymes, it should be possible to blend cellulases from various sources,

There are many thermophilic organisms which attack cellulose, but those with highest activity are actinomycetes, clostridia, and sporocytophaga (Bellamy, 1979). Rate of cellulose hydrolysis is slow unless the feedstock is pretreated. Cellulase from the thermophilic soil fungus, *Trichoderma terrestris*, (SRI International, Chem. Eng. News, Aug. 7, 1978) are functional between 60° and 70°C

which means a faster reaction rate and less chance of contamination, *Clostridium thermocellum* is a bacterial candidate for supplying cellulases. It thrives at 60°C and completes its fermentation in 2 days whereas *Trichoderma reesei*, the most widely used mold, requires one to two weeks. The proportions of isoenzymes and enzymatic activities vary for different organisms.

Catabolite repression is a feedback control whereby excess product slows its formation rate, thus high yields are impossible. Mutants can be isolated in which repression is weakened or inoperative, Often mutants which hyperproduce enzymes are still subject to catabolite repression. Further mutation of these hyperproducing strains to obtain less catabolite repression can give higher

yields of enzymes.

The saccharification of cellulose with enzymes can take many days if no pretreatment is used. With mild pH and slightly elevated temperature, contaminants can thrive on the sugars that are formed. Antiseptics or antibiotics can be added to reduce contamination, but cellulase activity may be impaired (Spano, 1976). Removal or destruction of the protective agent may be needed prior to the fermentation of sugar to ethanol. Even if the fermentation culture is unaffected by the protective agent, there is a pollution problem if a toxic agent is present in the final effluent. It seems advisable to omit these agents and carry out saccharification quickly so that contaminants

---Page Break---

4

have insufficient time to reach troublesome concentrations.

Ryu et al. (1979) have operated two-stage continuous cultures of *T. reesei* for production of cellulases. The first stage was for rapid cell growth; lactose was the carbon source and served as an inducer for cellulase formation. Cellulase productivity was best when the second stage dilution rate was 0.026 to 0.028 hr<sup>-1</sup>. This is roughly equivalent to 1-1/2 days of fermentation and is a significant improvement over slow batch fermentation.

The University of Pennsylvania team effort with the General Electric Company has been using an organism identified as *Thermoactinomyces* sp. (Hagerdal, et al 1980a,b). Further testing, plus confirmation by workers at Rutgers University, has corrected the identification, and the proper designation is *Thermonospora* sp. (perhaps *T. alba*). At 55°C, this organism elaborates active cellulases; yields are nearly comparable to those of good mutants of *T. reesei*. Mutation should lead

to higher yields, but continued improvement of other species which produce cellulases means that comparisons must continually be updated. The beta-glucosidase activity for *Thermomonospora* is associated with culture solids while the cellulases are released to the medium, This could be an advantage if fractionation is desired or a disadvantage if by requiring a step for releasing beta-glucosidase, an enzyme mixture is being prepared. The beta-glucosidase is unusual in that there is very little inhibition by glucose. Glucose syrups approaching 20 percent concentration were made from cellobiose using only *Thermomonospora* cells (Pye and Humphrey, 1979),

It is very important to obtain high sugar concentrations for the fermentation step so that products are not too dilute in the broth. Recovery by distillation of dilute solutions means that excessive water would be heated, vaporized, and condensed. Evaporation of the hydrolysate is feasible but it too is costly. Thus it is best to strive for high sugar concentrations directly, The product inhibition of cellulases as previously mentioned causes a lowering of hydrolysis rate; high sugar concentrations can be achieved by using excess enzyme or allowing a prolonged detention time, A different means of avoiding high glucose concentrations during cellulose hydrolysis has been demonstrated at a number of institutions and is exemplified by the Gulf process The saccharification and fermentation are performed simultaneously with cellulases and yeast. Glucose does not accumulate because the yeast converts it to glucose, thus hydrolysis can approach its maximum rate,

---Page Break---

As enzyme is a major expense, large excesses are intolerable. However, reuse of recovered enzymes is possible; the hydrolysate may be rich in enzymes that can be recovered by well known methods. A problem arises from the very tight binding of cellulases to cellulose. In order to reach high sugar concentrations, the feed concentrations of cellulose must be high. This leads to considerable unreacted cellulose and enzymes are adsorbed. Agents such as urea which weaken hydrogen bonds can desorb enzymes from cellulose and increase recovery yields by a factor of two or more. Unfortunately, enzyme recovery is expensive. If urea, or some other agent is to be used, it must be recovered and reused.

Immobilization of beta-glucosidase for splitting cellobiose to glucose makes a great deal of sense because this enzyme is usually present in insufficient proportions in natural cellulases. In nature, sugars from cellulose do not tend to accumulate because feedback control turns off the enzymes producing them. Small levels of beta-glucosidase are adequate for cellular metabolism which uses sugars as they are produced. Supplemental beta-glucosidase works well in vitro when immobilized since its substrate is soluble, relatively small molecule.

Issacs and Wilke (1978) have immobilized beta-glucosidase from *Aspergillus phoenicius* on Phenolformaldehyde resins by coupling with glutaraldehyde. Up to eighty percent of starting soluble enzyme activity was retained. When columns with immobilized enzyme were operated in conjunction with hydrolysis of cellulose by cellulases, there was little difference in the rate at which

Reducing sugars were formed. However, cellobiose was split to give a higher yield of glucose which is acceptable to most yeasts while cellobiose is not fermented. A group at the University of Connecticut has also demonstrated advantages of using immobilized beta-glucosidase,

## PROCESSES

The most important processes for producing ethanol from biomass are shown in Table 1. The grain alcohol process is very popular presently because of the high subsidy provided by the Federal government and by several states for ethanol blended with gasoline. This program was intended to prop up the price of corn by creating more demand, but the drought of 1980 was of a serious nature and caused major price perturbations. There is little room for profit at the prevailing price of corn in the Fall of 1980, Sugarcane juices and molasses are being fermented to ethanol in

---Page Break---

6

Brazil on a large scale, and there are factories in other countries. With excess bagasses to fuel the factories and with low labor costs, the production of fuel alcohol is a good way to reduce requirements for imported oil. There have been several small technological advances, but the process relies on rather old technology. The wide distribution of cellulose and its relatively low price make it likely to become the main alcohol feedstock displacing corn and sugarcane,

The Natick process was the first significant advance in using cellulose to produce ethanol. Pretreatment has been various types of grinding which have proved too consumptive of energy. The molds which produce cellulase have been studied intensively by Reese, Mandels and coworkers,



and

these efforts plus contributions of other groups (especially at Rutgers University) have led to excellent strains in terms of producing high titers of enzymes. The Berkeley process is derived from the Natick process and has contributed engineering solutions to most of the problems. The economic prospects are good if uses can be developed for lignin and hemicellulose

The Purdue group headed by Tsto showed great ingenuity in devising pretreatments and thus achieved nearly theoretical yields of glucose from cellulose. There are now several competing schemes for pretreatment, but most resulted from the stimulus of the Purdue work. Other accomplishments are better dehydration methods for ethanol, better and varied fermentations for the sugars from hemicellulose, different fermenter designs, and improvement of the solvent. Pretreatment to the point where good yields are obtained by acid hydrolysis. Enzymatic hydrolysis, is more expensive, thus acid hydrolysis is presently featured at Purdue although yields are somewhat

Jower. Corn stover is probably the best cellulose feedstock in the midwestern farm states.

The Gulf process appeared to be in the technological forefront just a few years ago, but newer processes have demonstrated superior yields. The concept of simultaneous hydrolysis and

fermentation is excellent, but the individual steps have different pH and temperature optima, thus process conditions require a compromise. Nonetheless the simultaneous process deserves further research, and improvements such as a better pretreatment of the biomass could revitalize its prospects

?A team effort of groups at the University of Pennsylvania and the General Electric Company has led to a process based on solvent extraction of lignin for better hydrolysis of cellulose and new thermophilic cultures to supply the cellulases, This is another highly promising process, and there

---Page Break---

1

are plans to get significant credits for byproduct lignin by such measures as dissolving it in alcohol or other solvents to create a diesel fuel

?The Iotech process uses steam explosion for pretreatment. High pressure steam permeates the biomass, and sudden release through a die shreds and disintegrates the structure, Hydrolysis of cellulose and fermentation to ethanol proceed nicely. The biggest advantage, however, is development of high-value uses for lignin as a wood binder or specialty chemical, When there are many factories for fuel alcohol, the coproduct lignin will greatly overwhelm the foreseeable markets, but the first few factories selling lignin will be highly profitable, The search for new applications for lignin should be very rewarding because enormous quantities of material with properties superior to lignin from paper pulping will be available,

?The M.L.T. process has more simultaneous steps than does the Gulf process. Carefully selected mixed cultures are added directly to coarsely ground biomass. Enzymes hydrolyze both the

?cellulose and the hemicellulose while the organisms ferment the resulting sugars to ethanol. The ?organism which ferments the sugars from hemicellulose may be added later after the first organism ?has nearly completed the hydrolysis and has consumed most of the glucose. The really clever feature of this approach is investing very little in feedstock preparation and not being overly concerned with a high efficiency of feedstock utilization, This means that much of the feedstock is ?unreacted, but the residue does not represent much money. It would be burned to supply energy for the factory. Some improvement in efficiency of feedstock utilization would be desirable, FRowever, because the fuel value of the residue far exceeds the needs of the factory; steam or electricity would be products of about equal importance to the ethanol. There does not appear to bbe an opportunity to recover valuable lignin from the residue although it is enriched with respect to the other polymers. There are other problems such as inability of the present strains to reach high ?concentrations of ethanol, but the rate of accomplishment by the MILT. group has been outstanding.

Kelsey and Shafizadeh (1980) have still another simultaneous operation whereby the grinding of the feedstock is performed in the presence of cellulases, The rate of hydrolysis and the ?concentration of glucose were both improves

---Page Break---

8

## RECENT ADVANCES

Flickinger (1980) has reviewed selected areas of research on fermentation of cellulosic ?materials with emphasis on the present status and the potential for improvement. In the brief time

Since this assessment, two groups have independently announced a remarkable improvement in fermentation of sugars from hemicellulose to ethanol (Wang, et al, 1980 a, 1980 b, Gong, et al 1980). There are bacteria, molds, and yeast that ferment these sugars to ethanol, but other products that are usually present and poor tolerance of ethanol prevents its accumulation. The best producers of ethanol are certain yeasts and the bacterium *Zymomonas*. Xylose, the predominant sugar from hemicellulose, is not fermented by the good ethanol producers, but xylulose, «keto sugar derived

from xylose, is fermented well. When the enzyme glucose isomerase is added, xylose is isomerized

to xylulose, but an equilibrium mixture is reached at prolonged times. This enzyme is widely used to convert glucose to fructose for commercial sweeteners and it is inexpensive. A serious drawback is the need to recycle unreacted xylose back from the fermentation step to the enzyme to again approach the concentrations of the equilibrium mixture. Work is underway to create mutants which have isomerase activity and thus need no supplemental enzyme. Furthermore, organisms which have the inherent ability to ferment xylose such as those being used at M.L.T. may soon be so improved that they merit commercial consideration. Utilizing hemicellulose to produce additional ethanol will mean a 50 to 60 percent improvement in productivity in factories using biomass.

Other significant improvements are in fermenter design. There are several advantages to retaining organisms in the fermenter or capturing them in the effluent and recycling them. First, there is less diversion of substrates to growth. The other main advantage relates to ethanol tolerance. All producers of ethanol can become inhibited as ethanol accumula

5 this is shown by a

decrease in the production rate per microbial cell as ethanol concentration rises. The decrease in rate per cell can be overcome by having more cells. Several new designs retain the cells to achieve very high populations. One method uses heavily flocculated cultures which settle back as clear effluent is withdrawn from the top, and other designs have physical means such as immobilization or encapsulation to hold the cells in the fermenter. A group at Oak Ridge National Laboratory is having good success with *Zymomonas* held in a column reactor, and there is « good chance that this

---Page Break---

9

9

bacterium will outperform yeast in the future because improvements through genetic manipulation are easier and bacteria grow faster than yeast and lead to shorter processing times.

Engineering problems are being solved by novel means for handling materials, Dilution is troublesome in several steps in the biomass processes because extraction yields are low unless excessive volumes of liquids are used. When biomass is mixed with water, the slurry concentration must be kept low or else stirring becomes impossible, Several groups are experimenting with

contacting and extracting in columns with the liquid percolating through a slid bed. The solutions «an be relatively concentrated so as to minimize the need for costly subsequent evaporation,

## CONCLUSION

Fractionation of biomass is leading rapidly to utilization of all its components, Hydrolysis of cellulose has improved in just a few years from yields in the range of 50 percent of theoretical to over 90 percent. Hemicellulose hydrolysis has always been easy, and there are highly promising ways for its conversion to ethanol Lignin from the various biomass processes does not seem attractive for conversion by biological means, but it has great value in its native state because reactivity is much superior to lignin from paper pulping. Tropical biomass has not had sufficient testing in the processes covered in the review, but there is little doubt that it would work well. The climates of most tropical countries are much better than is that of the U.S, or Canada for growing high yields of biomass, so tropical biomass could soon support major new industries.

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1

3.

2

10

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Wo. 6

---Page Break---

Process

Grain alcohol

Sugarcane

Natick

Process.

Berkeley

Process

Purdue

Process

cult

Process

Pennsylvania/

General Elect~

rie Process

Iotech

Process

a

?TABLE 1

## PROCESSES FOR MANUFACTURING ETHANOL

Description

Corn grain is malted

to hydrolyze the

starch. Yeast produce

ethanol and stillage  
is concentrated for  
cattle feed.

Juices or molasses are  
fermented directly by  
yeast which are  
Washed and recycled,

Cellulosic materials  
treated with Tricho-  
derma enzymes to get  
fermentable sugars.

Derived from Watick  
process and also uses  
hemicellulose.

Removal of cellulose  
and hemicellulose  
permits excellent  
hydrolysis with  
acid or enzymes.

Enzymes added for  
simultaneous

accharification  
and fermentation.

Solvent extraction  
of lignin gives  
excellent hydrolysis.

Steam explosion  
fractures biomass  
for good hydrolysis.

Mixed mold cultures  
hydrolyze biomass and  
Produce ethanol.

Remarks,

Profitability can be destroyed  
by high corn prices or collapse  
of cattle feed market

Stilage too high in salts  
for cattle feeding. Credits

for cane fiber could be high.

Pretreatment by grinding too expensive. Has not focussed on using hemicellulose,

Strong candidate for large~ scale operations.

Regeneration of solvent may be costly, but this is a very high yielding process.

Hydrolysis yields not outstanding and good use of hemicellulose undeveloped.

Costly' recovery of organic solvents.

Very valuable lignin byproduct.

Simple but effective;

highly promising.

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

2

ALCOHOL FUELS FROM SUGARCANE IN BRAZIL,

Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

?November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

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---Page Break---

---Page Break---

# ALCOHOL FUELS FROM SUGARCANE IN BRAZIL

?Table Of Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

FEEDSTOCKS

A. Supsreane

B, Ethanol From Other Crops

?THE NATIONAL ALCOHOL PROGRAM.

?THE ENERGY BALANCE.FOR ETHANOL PRODUCTION

A. Yields And Productivity

B. Agricultural Expenses

Industrial Expenses

?THE ECONOMICS PROBLEM

A. Sugarcane

B, Wood

The Cost OF Gasoline vs Ethanol

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

REFERENCES

?TABLES

FIGURES

10

10

u

2

B

19

33

---Page Break---

ALCOHOL FUELS FROM SUGARCANE IN BRAZIL

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ABSTRACT

?A SURVEY is made of the state of the art of the production of ethanol from sugarcane as compared with other crops in Brazil. The economical and political implications of the ?Programa



Nacional do Alcohol? are described together with the present achievements and future prognostics

?The improved efficiency of modified internal conversion engines fueled by pure ethanol is compared with the performance of conventional engines that use ethanolgas blends; some economical discussions follow this presentation.

?The energy balance for the production of ethanol from sugarcane is evaluated, taking into account agricultural and industrial energy expenses, and compared with the energy requirements for ?gasoline production. Real cost of ethanol from sugarcane, under present Brazilian conditions, is ?US\$12.69/GI as compared with gasoline which is US\$12.19/GJ. Considering that ethanol when used as an octane booster has an efficiency 254% higher than gasoline, the final conclusion is that ethanol has reached the break-even point as compared with gasoline in Brazil

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## ALCOHOL FUEL FROM SUGARCANE IN BRAZIL

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Any assessment of the energy needs of the world population by the year 2,000 shows the Insufficiency of the present energy resource. The continual population growth, the larger ?per ?apita? energy consumption expected inthe future, mainly in developing nations, and the finite ol resources have been the chief source of worldwide concern, specifically after the oil crisis in 1973,

A historical analysis of the main sources of energy used by the developed countries shows the possibility of oil being replaced by some other source of energy in the near future. This has already happened with wood and coal, as can be seen in Fig. 1. Several analyses performed in the last two decades showed that oil would be replaced by the intensive use of nuclear fuels (1-3). After several accidents with the operation of nuclear reactors and the strong public opinion consensus taken against their use, particularly the incident at Three Mile Island, several reviews of the world's energy future have been published which predict new sources; mostly in renewable energy. (4-6)

In many developing countries the renewable sources still supply most of the energy used as can be seen from Table 1. The constant search for technology that allows the utilization of renewable sources in an economical way, even in developed countries, is explained by the lack of large quantities of fossil fuels (except coal) and by the large concern with the environment. Pollution can be avoided for all products, except for the CO<sub>2</sub>; its concentration level in the atmosphere is continually growing and will be a serious problem in the near future. (7)

The technical difficulty for the production of alternate fuels is quite small as was proven historically with the use of alcohols by Germany (8) and Japan (9) and water gas by several developed (10) and underdeveloped countries during the second World War (Sweden, Brazil, etc.). The economical difficulty was unsurmountable up to 1973 as evidenced by the efforts of coal gasification developed in South Africa (11) for more than a decade, but as the oil price increases the problem nears a solution. Countries with little or no oil and with large areas of unused land have a greater possibility of producing alternate fuel derived from biomass at costs very competitive with present day oil prices. In Brazil, where a large ethanol program based on sugarcane is being developed costs of alcohol have probably reached the break-even point as we intend to show in this

---Page Break---

2

paper, Even when the ethanol costs are still higher than gasoline, the continuous trade deficit of many less developed, non-oil producing countries does justify the gasoline replacement by an indigenous product. Another important reason to compete economically with gasoline is the surplus of grain crop, particularly corn in the United States, which is the main feedstock for the production of the ethanol, sold in a 10% blend with gas under the name of "gasohol." It is necessary to keep in mind that the price a consumer can pay for fuel is not necessarily the same price a country can afford to pay.

All efforts for the economical production of fuels from biomass are directed to improvements in the crop yield and reduction in energy costs of the industrial processing of the feedstock.

Photosynthetic average yields for sugarcane in Brazil is approximately 0.28. This number can be increased four fold as shown by the sugarcane productivity in Australia (12), Hawaii (13), Puerto Rico (14) and a few specific cultures in Brazil (15). Nevertheless, special care must be taken to avoid excess energy utilization in fertilizers and artificial irrigation. The industrial costs can be significantly reduced if new techniques for the distillation process (16-18) are used.

## 2. FEEDSTOCKS

### (A) Sugarcane

Up until now the ethanol derived from sugarcane is the most intense, commercially exploited, fuel alternative. The main reasons for

1) Brazil is the leading nation in the production of fuels derived from biomass, with a total annual production in 1979 of 3.5 billion liters (19) (equivalent to 60,000 barrels of oil/ year);

2) The well developed sugar industry in this country, which is the largest world producer and exporter, underwent a severe crisis due to the low international price of sugar when the National Alcohol Program (PNA), i.e. the program for the use of ethanol as a fuel for automobiles, was proposed in 1975 by the federal government. This fact immediately triggered the interest of the sugar producers who were able to bring a large idle fraction of the distilleries into full operation and divert a significant amount of sugarcane from the sugar market to the ethanol production (approximately 0.7 billion liters/year of this product are being produced using this method) (20);,

3) The technology required to convert sugarcane into alcohol is quite simple and requires equipment that can be built in many of the developing countries;

4) The total amount of capital required to operate an ethanol processing plant is very small when compared with all the other fuel alternatives. The typical cost of a distillery with a 120,000 day capacity is not precisely known, since different authors quote different figures, as can be seen

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from Table 2, but a reasonable number is 10 million dollars (21). An economical feasible unit of Synthetic fuel from coal or oil shale requires large scale production (over 50,000 barrels/day) and capital investment over a billion dollars (22). Even a methanol plant, using biomass as a feedstock requires a large scale plant, with a capacity of handling 2,000 tons of wood/day to become economically competitive; this translates into a cost of 300 million dollars (23). Furthermore, ethanol distilleries in Brazil can be delivered and put into operation twelve months after the order is placed, which is a very short time span as compared with any other investment in energy. Developing nations, in which the shortage of capital is the bottleneck of the industrial growth, are very appreciative of the two aforementioned factors;

5) Ethanol is a very common product and its effect on man is very well known, it is accepted by the human organism even in large concentrations in the atmosphere (1,000 ppm)(24), that is, two times higher than gasoline (500 ppm); therefore the possibility of inducing diseases is quite small. Since it is an organic product, very little impact on the environment is expected.

6) It is the only commodity that can be immediately produced on large commercial scale to

replace gasoline; old cars ran with this fuel and it's still used in racecars when large engine power is  
the main goal

The alcohol is now being produced by autonomous and annexed distilleries. The annexed distilleries are extensions of the sugar processing units, built to displace part of the feedstock from sugar to alcohol commodities. These units were built very quickly and for a low price since they used same basic installation for the processing of sugar. The first autonomous distillery, that is, the one, designed specifically for the production of alcohol, came into operation in the beginning of 197

## B) Ethanol from other crops

The possibility for use of other feedstocks in ethanol production has been frequently investigated, Table 3 presents the energy costs in Brazil for some of the most promising crops. Casava, often considered a source of ethanol, does not compete with sugarcane when checked through an energy balance, The fundamental reason is the difficulty of using the aerial part of the crop as a fuel for the generation of steam and electricity, The aerial part has large amounts of moisture (>72%) and cannot be used as fuel for boilers without a drying process (25,26). Sweet sorghum is a very competitive crop, since because it can provide two harvests per year in most of the tropical areas, Unfortunately some genetic improvements in this culture are still required in order to grow the plant in areas with large insulation (27). Table 3 also presents an energy evaluation for corn crop. The corn stover can be used as a fuel for the ethanol processing industry, but

amount is not sufficient to supply all the energy required.

### 3, THE NATIONAL ALCOHOL PROGRAM

As was already described in the introduction, just after the fourfold increase in oil price, i.e. at the second semester of 1974, the Brazilian government prepared a program for the replacement of

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all oil derivatives to be accomplished in four steps. Table 4 shows the goals set for each step at that time. A time limit was determined for the first of the four steps. It would be possible to replace 20% of all gasoline in use in the country by 1980 by addition of ethanol. The use of gasoline-ethanol blends has been common in Brazil since 1950 and in some cases blends containing as much as 16% of ethanol were used in some cities (28). From this previous observation it appears feasible to use conventional gasoline engines to run with a higher level of ethanol, even if the total efficiency was reduced. The second stage of the program, the complete replacement of gasoline by ethanol, would require research and technical changes to reach good performance. Furthermore, economical problems would have to be solved since the oil refineries were designed to supply the market with an almost nonexistent seasonal fluctuation, demanding almost the same amount of gasoline, Diesel oil and fuel oil. The reduction in gasoline demand would not be accomplished by

?the existing oil refineries without imposing restrictions on the supply of Diesel oil and fuel oil, The  
?third phase imposed even more difficulties since it would require not only a change in the oil  
refining structure but also technical development very hard to assess at that time as Diesel engines  
had never used any alcohol blend before.

To enhance the ethanol production in Brazil, a large economic program was developed, The  
federal government supplied 80% of the capital (and in some less developed areas, 90%) and  
private

enterprise 20% or less. The federal mortgage had to be returned to a negative interest rate i.e.  
interest and monetary correction below the official index of inflation. With this added advantage,  
the industrial background of the country was already developed enough to accept any orders for  
new distilleries, Until now, (February, 1980), more than 250 new units have received funds from  
the government and nearly 200 are already in commercial operation (29). The most common unit  
has a production capacity of 120,000 l/day with cost very near ten million dollars (21). By the  
end of 1980 the total production of ethanol should reach the goal set in 1975 (4 billion liters/year)  
and from this total, a little over 3 billion would be produced by the units installed under the  
National Alcohol Program at a cost of two billion dollars, Another part of the economical program  
was the indirect subsidy received by the alcohol through the elimination of the taxation that was  
applied to the price of gasoline and responsible for an over price of almost 30% of its final price to

the consumer as can be seen in Figure 3. It is worthwhile to note that gasoline was always

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overpriced to compensate for the lower prices of Diesel oil (used only for commercial applications) and the fuel oil (used only in industrial applications). The present price of some oil products is shown in Table 5.

With this preferential treatment, the price of ethanol, since 1975, has always been lower than gasoline, independent of the higher production cost (accounted up to the last increase in price). Presently, as we will try to indicate in section 5, the real price of both products seems very similar with a small advantage for ethanol.

In 1979, the success of the PNA was obvious, mainly because of the constant increase in price, that the federal government set an upper limit for the accomplishment of another phase of the program, but less ambitious than the one proposed in 1975. An agreement between the car manufacturers and the government was performed for the production of 90,000 new cars, 100% of which would be fueled by alcohol in the next three years (1982), plus the retrofitting of 280,000 existing cars to run smoothly with the new fuel. The government guarantees the fuel supply up to a level of 10.7 billion liters/year (~210,000 barrels/day) by the year 1985 (30); a total amount of \$1 billion would be available to private investors in new tier

The main conclusions drawn from the use of 100% ethanol fueled cars are as follows:

© From 18 to G1; the carburetor has to be redesigned since the stoichiometric

{0 ai atio for aloabol equ aiffernt from gasoline? an addtional system fore cald

?stone of psoie engines trun wna 100s eho fs ae already able 22)

) the ethanol consumption, per liter, is 20% higher than with gasoline, even after the compression ratio is increased (31).

?The goal set for 1985 will impose several difficulties for the oil refining industries if the

?production of Diese! oil and fuel ol ae to be achieved, Today, the country already processes

?more gasoline than is consumed and the excess is sold in the international market. The market is

very smal, mainly for a low quality product as the one produced, As itis unlikely to discover a

larger market, another possibility which is under consideration isthe exportation of alcohol to be

used as an octane booster in countries where environmental concerns limit the use of lead. This

solution is quit interesting from the enery point of view. The American market demands that 46%

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of the oil be converted into gasoline, The average energy required for processing a barrel of crude oil

is 740 MI (33) distributed among several openttions. Reforming and alkylation are mainly

?conducted to obtain high quality lead free gasoline. Significant energy economy can be obtafned if

medium quality gasoline is used in place of the high octane gasoline, Figure 4 sows that the

apparent consumption decreases with the increase in the octane number, but the real consumption

presents @ minimum energy cost for different octane numbers as a function of the total amount of lead, since the energy required for processing high quality gasoline also increases. Even more beneficial is the conclusion obtained from Figure 4a which clearly indicates that lead free gasoline requires a real consumption of 600 kcal/10km over what is required for the production of the same octane gasoline with a lead content of 0.6 g/l

Figure 5 obtained for methyl alcohol is nevertheless a reasonable indicator for ethanol and shows that the addition of 10% alcohol to gasoline increases the octane level by three numbers, which is the same effect as the addition of 0.3 g/l of lead. From this figure and from Figure 4a approximately 400 kcal/10km could be saved (this number is obtained by extrapolation from data from Figure 4a; in the case of minimum gas consumption with 0.4 g/l of lead, 11250 kcal/10km is necessary and the minimum for a gas with 0.15 g/l of lead is 11650 kcal/10 km). Then a mixture with 9 liters of medium gasoline plus 1 liter of alcohol can yield an energy savings of 11,500 kcal (6,600 + 7,800) in the real consumption of oil less the costs for the production of 1 liter of alternative fuel. For the typical case of Brazil, this figure is not bigger than 2,000 kcal as we will show in section 4. Therefore the real economy is 9500 kcal; meaning that the use of one liter of alcohol displaces at least two liters of gasoline,

This calculation could be repeated for blends with 20% of ethanol with the final conclusion that 1 liter of alcohol displaces 1.8 liters of gas. This result is also derived from data shown in Figures 4 and 5 from where we see that the real consumption of gas does not reduce linearly with the increase of the lead content. Following this trend, but in the other extreme, pure ethanol replaces only 0.8 liters of gasoline. So the net energy savings for the world would be two times bigger if alcohol gas blends are used, instead of 100% alcohol fueled cars.

A third option for Brazil would be the use of ethanol in Diesel engines together with the

replacement of a part of the fuel oil by some other feedstock suitable as a boiler fuel, The use of

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Ethanol Diesel blends has been under investigation in the last three years (34,35) and engines have already run with blends as high as 70% ethanol (36). The largest difficulty is due to the high resistance presented by alcohols to self-ignition when compressed, which is measured technically by the cetane number of the fuel. A possible solution is the increase of the cetane number of alcohol through the addition of chemical products with explosive behavior like amyl nitrate

#### 4, THE ENERGY BALANCE FOR THE PRODUCTION OF ETHANOL

Several papers deal with the problem of assessing the amount of energy in ethanol production.

Generate the alcohol. If large amount of energy derived from oils required, we can conclude that Alcohol is a net oil consumer instead of an alternative.

Several sources of biomass can be used for ethanol production, In this paper we will analyze the ones that are under commercial use or that have higher chance of becoming used in the near future, They are sugarcane, casiva, sweet sorghum, corn and wood.

#### 41 Yields and Productivity

?To carry an energy balance it is necessary to assess the ethanol and by-product yields from the feedstocks, The alcohol volume assessment is made from the composition of typical crops, its conversion to sugar and ethanol taking into account the practical limits and the crop productivity as will be described in detail for sugarcane.

Sugarcane is practically the only commercial source of ethanol in Brazil mainly because it can be produced very easily by traditional fermentation techniques and the high energy value of the bagasse. Table 6 shows typical composition of the most common species of sugarcane planted in the southeast part of Brazil

?The classical fermentation process for hexoses (glucose and fructose) and sucrose are described by equations A and B respectively.

$C_6H_{12}O_6 \rightarrow 2C_2H_5OH + 2CO_2 + \text{heat}$

180.16 g (64.3 ml at 15°C) w

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1aHn9011 + Hy ??> G20 + Cg, 30 ??T AC HOH + 4009 + heat

Bocas fructose 184g

3608

®

A practical evaluation of the total amount of ethanol obtained must assume an extraction efficiency of 95% for the mono and disaccharide sugars from the crop and also a 95% efficiency in the fermentation process. This means that one ton of sugarcane, with an average composition shown

in Table 6, yields 90 liters of ethanol. Using the typical productivity for commercial crops listed in Table 7 we arrive at 4700 liters of ethanol/ha-year.\*

#### 411 Agricultural Expenses

Table 3 presents the energy required for the exploitation of several crops in the southeastern part of Brazil. Sweet sorghum was included using experimental data since it is not yet exploited on commercial scale in Brazil,

The energy listed includes direct and indirect expenses; so the energy built in a liter of Diesel oil is assumed to be 10% higher than its heat value since this is the minimum energy required by the oil refining industry (33,37). More accurate evaluations can be made with the utilization of an input-output matrix already available for the Brazilian economy (38). Labor energy is systematically neglected in the energy evaluation following the prescription of some energy schools (39).

However, even in a developing country like Brazil, the husian expense in agricultural production is never larger than 5% and its inclusion does not change our results.

?The main conclusion derived from Table 3 is that the least energy intensive crops are wood (Bucalyptus and Pinus) with a consumption four times less than any other crop analyzed and seven times less than sugarcane. Using the productivity of each crop itis posible to acess the energy per liter of alcohol required in the agricultural phase for several feedstocks, The result is presented in ?the last column of Table 8. The expenses account for soll preparation, plantation, harvesting and ?transportation of the feedstocks up toa distance of 20 km from the farm,

?This figure is well above the average 3600 liter/ha-year commercially obtained in Brazil disileres.

Inefficient sugar extraction and unavoidable losses associated with lрге scale production should be the reason for the lower figure.

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#### 4UIT Industrial Expenses

?The conversion of biomass in ethanol is made by several techniques according. to the feedstock specie. To evaluate these enerpies, a complete flow sheet ofthe plant is required together

?with a reliable way for computing the built-in energy in the equipment and buildings, The case of sugarcane is the easiest one to evaluate since many industrial units are in operation. It is more

«difficult to prepare a detailed analysis for the other feedstocks, nevertheless important conclusions

can be drawn from the sugarcane flow sheet evaluation, as shown in Figure 2. The input-output Brazilian matrix (38) was used to assess energy built-in capital goods, operation, maintenance and fuel, Table 9 presents the results for a typical unit, with an annual capacity of 18 million liters and assuming an average life of 20 years, As can be seen, the energy expenses come mainly from the fuel

required, Fuel is such a large part of the total expenses that it is almost useless to make an accurate assessment of all the other energies. So for @ modest precision we can use the fuel energy, usually computed as kg of steam/liter of ethanol as a good means for comparison between different crops. Operational costs are not expected to vary from one feedstock to another but the case of wood deserves a more careful analysis. Table 10 quotes fuel costs for the biomass under analysis.

?A comparison drawn between Tables 3 and 9 clearly shows that industrial expenses are at least 3 times larger than the ones in agriculture in the case of corn and almost 10 times more for wood.

?The amount of energy

is so large that it is almost impossible to use noble fuels (oil, natural gas and

electricity) in the ethanol processing, This is the main reason for the success of sugarcane as a source



of ethanol as a by-product of the beer, large quantities of fiber are available to be used as a fuel for steam and electricity generation

Other feedstocks like cassava and corn do not compete with sugarcane either because their by-products are unsuitable as a fuel or the amount of fiber is small. Wood could be used as a feedstock for ethanol and fuel for boiler. One fraction would undergo hydrolysis and the other would supply the energy. Table 10 shows the amount of energy required as being much higher than for sugarcane, Plants in operation

Plants in Russia require 25 kg of steam and in Switzerland turn-key plants require 13 kg of steam (40). Even for such high figures, a reasonable amount of wood can be used for hydrolysis because of the large heat value of wood together with the small amount of moisture (20%).

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## 5. THE ECONOMIC PROBLEM

The evaluation of the production of ethanol will be made for only two feedstocks: sugarcane and wood; even so we reclaim calculations to be more precise for sugarcane which is being used extensively in Brazil

Sugarcane

The evaluation is more realistic for the southeastern part of the country where data is available {or the evaluation of the 1976/1977 harvest (21), The size of the investments and of the agricultural yield are presented in Fig. 6 for a hectare of land exploited in a 4 year span, Table 11 presents the costs for sugarcane for three different interest rates,

The capital costs for a distillery have two major components: the fixed investment and the working capital, Working capital includes feedstock expenses and ethanol storage, Table 2 depicts a variation of a factor of 2 in the estimated costs of distilleries. We decided to choose for our base case the price quoted for one of the largest distillery producers (Zanini S.A.): 107 dollars for a processing plant of 120,000 l/day, which means 3600 dollars/GJ of ethanol. This price is by far more realistic of the present day market since it is quoted for an autonomous unit and for a large program of fuel replacement, autonomous distilleries being the largest fraction both presently and in the future, Taking this into account we conclude that the cost related with this investment will be in a range between \$1.55/GJ up to \$3.20/GJ varying with interest rate and pay back time, as shown in Table 12. Operation costs represent \$2.20/GJ (21).

As was shown in section 4, one hectare produces 226/GJ year of biomass (assuming 18 GS/ODT) and yields 4700 liters of ethanol or 99 GJ. There is a bagasse excess that will not be considered in the economical evaluation since

{s not being used in present day operation. The

conversion efficiency of biomass to ethanol is 43.7%, that is, to produce 1 GJ of ethanol it is

?necessary to buy 2.3 GI of feedstock. The cost for sugarcane is \$3.05/GiJ (adding some value to

the

land and assuming an interest rate of 6%), meaning that the cost of feedstock will add to \$6.96/G3.

?The other costs are also quoted in Table 1

Wood

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Figure 7 presents the magnitude of fixed investments required for typical Eucalyptus

plantations carried in the state of Sao Paulo, Assuming the same interest rate as for sugarcane (6%)

?we arrive at a cost of \$27.60/ODT or \$1.55/GI. Including the land cost, this price will increase to

\$1.75/GS; this is a consequence of the high cost of land in the state of Sao Paulo and is

characteristic of a very small fraction of the area of the country. For wood farms developed in areas

far away from urban centers, the land price decreases significantly and we obtain the same price for

the feedstock with or without the addition of cost of land. It is important to notice that this cost estimate is much higher than the cost of wood sold presently in small farms; it is very easy to find wood at a price of \$16.5/ODT (including loading, unloading and transportation to a distance as far as 5-120 km)-this gives a cost of = \$1.00/GJ. We believe that this pi

is more realistic than the

previous estimated cost of large scale wood farms and we will use it in our final evaluation. The total expenses for producing ethanol from wood by acid hydrolysis are shown in Table 14 for an interest rate of 6% per year. As in the case of sugarcane, the cost of feedstock is the major component of the final product. This is a consequence of the low efficiency in converting wood to ethanol due to:

4) low yields obtained due to the presence of hemicellulose and lignin in the raw material;

) significant fraction of wood is used as a fuel for the processing unit, This is a necessity

Under the assumption of the self-sufficient hectare and the use of lignin in the

industry.

?The Cost of Gasoline vs Ethanol

It is imperative to make a comparison between our previous cost evaluation of ethanol and the present day cost of gasoline. To achieve this we will use data from Ret. 41. which is good for the

?American market,

?As shown in Fig. 8, it is necessary to start with 1.12 GJ of oil to produce 1 GJ of gasoline,  
Furthermore, 0.12 GJ from external sources, which is most commonly obtained from natural gas, has  
to be used, To be coherent with our previous analysis for ethanol it is important to add capital and

?operation costs Instead of going through all these calculations we use another route well  
established

for the production costs of refined oil products in the U.S.A. they cost 1.64 times more than the

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?raw material (42) which means that gasoline is produced at a cost of \$10.50/GJ assuming \$35/barrel  
for oil. In the case of Brazil, the industrial efficiency is probably lower (a general trend observed  
when comparing developed and developing countries) and a higher price is most likely. There are  
no  
present reliable costs published by the state-owned oil company?but for December, 1978 it was  
?quoted as \$6.00/GJ before tax. An indirect

uation can be carried using the consumer? selling

prices which are listed for today's market in Table 4, From these prices, 15% has to be subtracted  
as

the cost of distribution and market network (\$6.00/barrel) plus the tax of 26,7 over the final price of gasoline, as shown in Fig. 3. This gives a value for the oil derivatives ex-refinery of \$28.59/barrel (when the average price of crude oil was \$22.00/barrel). However, the high price of gasoline in Brazil is something of an artifact, since there are taxes added to cover the low cost of Diesel and fuel oil. Comparison with other countries\* suggest that this spread is very atypical and represents a political, not an economic, price of gasoline. Using the spread in price typical from free market economy we arrived at a price of \$12.19/GI for gasoline ex-refinery.

As a final conclusion, alcohol, at least when used

as an octane booster where total efficiency is

25% higher than gasoline, has already reached the break-even point as compared with gasoline in Brazil

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"Diesel is generally 10% less expensive than gasoline ex refinery and fuel oil 33% as expensive.

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?PARTICLPATION OF DIFFERENT ENERGY SOURCES IN SEVERAL  
(COUNTRIES AS PUBLISHED BY UNITED NATIONS 1976

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oat and Wydro and Total \*pery

Country Lignin. 1 Natural Gas Muclear Biomass capfte? (109M)

U.S.A 17250 20950 \* 21300 70 as 250.0

?\*Tis figure does not agree with the one published by "Salanco Energetico Brastletro =  
1978" prepared by Ninistry of Mines and Energy, Brazil. The reason for the dis~

?erepancy is:

12) large quantities of wood do not penetrate the commercial market

b) there is an incorrect evaluation of the wood energy in the publication of the Ministry of Mines and Energy as was pointed out in Ref, 43; the wood energy content is under-estimated by SOY.

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22

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GOALS PROPOSED BY THE NATIONAL ALCOHOL PROGRAM IN 1975

Product on (1iters/year) Area Required for the Sugar Cane

x10 Crop (x 1000 ha)

Seenario I 3 1100

Seenario 116 4400

Seenarto 1 6000

Scenario W 33 000

(2) 20% ethanol blend in gasoline plus 10° Viters for industrial use,

(2) 10bs ethanol to replace gasoline plus 10° Viters for industrial use.

(3) 100% ethanot to replace gasoline and S0t ethanol -ofeseT of blend.

« (4) 300% ethanol to replace gasoline and OfeseT of.

+ From Ref. 46

---Page Break---

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23

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vaste st

RELATIVE COMPOSITION AND CURRENT COST (APRIL 1980)

OF THE MORE COMMON OIL DERIVATIVES IN BRAZIL

◦ ? Bo Axe

NT Derivatives Percent Fraction Amount per cost,

(8) Barrel (sitter)

(ters)

° Gasoline % 4 2 19.2

Diesel of? 2 ry Ne

Fuel of 2 8 as 56

° Ue 65 9. 28

Others: 38 4 has

TOTAL vo 40.03

° Assuming the useful content of a barrel equal 140 ters. This ts a

Feasonable assumption since significant amounts-of of] are expended for the derivatives" processing. \_

Average price of of1 at \$22.00/barrel.

° \*rrom Ret. 18

---Page Break---

vase 6t

?TPICAL COMPOSITION OF SUGAR CANE EXPLOITED

{IN THE SOUTHEAST PART OF BRAZIL

Component 1 By Weight

?Sucrose 16

Reducing Sugars (glucose and fructose) 2-15

Total Fermentable Sugars Bay

(expressed as % of elucose)

Fiber : 913

Motsture 70-73

Yrros Ref. 47

TaSLET

?TYPICAL YIELDS FROM COMERCIAL CROPS OF SUGAR CANE  
IN THE SOUTHEAST PART OF BRAZIL

Number of Werds

Tycle\_ | Harvestings | Total production (toralye.) (tha/eo.)

4 3 169-260 0 4357

210" see 5.0%

?Teron Ref. 47

?average

---Page Break---

25

ase 8

energy invested in agriculture (planting, harvesting and  
portation) ue crops in the United States  
Brazil.

4 ite ratio for «

wea ?Agricultural BY

ary wt.ton Energy (2) (Oteat/ary/ee. on)

ba.year O%ea/ha/year)

USA.

Sopat cane 6.2? «900? mn

wae 1.62 2080"? 1216

Soybean 1.442 ras) 03s

core 4.907) esse? 1386



Forest loseing 15.4 a?

Becalyptes \_ =?

Pies \_ ? \_

musi

?Sopar cane ry 318 208

seat, 1.06 1378 13305

Soybean Lass eee 108

corn 202 ?as 206

Forest logsing = ? ?

Bocalyptus ns? 330 4?

Pinus 4.) an »

Tt]

Motes: 1) From ref. 5h

2) From ret. 48

3) Average value from ref. SU, 55, 56 and 57

4) Proa ref. 58, includes only energy for harvesting

5) From ref. 47

---Page Break---

26

mae 9

[ENERGY REQUIRED FOR THE INDUSTRIAL CONVERSION OF SUGAR CANE  
TO ETKANOL -- TYPICAL BRAZILIAN DISTILLERY

Industrial Expenses

Capita Goods (average Tite 20 years) 3.08

Operation 2.36

Maintenance 3.06

Fuel 88.23 a

Total 97.23

Productivity per Year (x 10<sup>6</sup> 1) 8

5.4 Neal/1

Total Tnsstrtal tracey = 8 (apy

?rrom Ref. 45

---Page Break---

27

?race tot

?MDUSTRIAL FUEL EXPENSES FOR THE PROCESSING OF SEVERAL FEEDSTOCKS

Energy

Feedstock (kg of stean/ of ethanol)

Sugar Cane 58

cassava 65

Sweet Sorghum 55

corn 5.5"

Eucalyptus } 3-13

Pinus

\* From Refs: 25, 40

\* This figure is evaluated for the Brazilian technology. In the United States, such more energy is required (see Ref. 48) since stillage is, tried to be used as cattle feed.

---Page Break---

28

ae nt

[ECONOMICAL EXPENSES FOR THE SUGAR CANE CROP

(average energy value of bio-

mass) T ?

1,08,

(clearing & purchasing Yard

?Tevelizes annual revenue) 11

1g,

(purchased equipment level ized

?tnnual revenue) 11

1c,

nvestoent in planting Tevelt-

?zed enmusl revenue) I

i

fon

(operating and seintenance

costs)

We 1,08, + 1,cRF, + 10 + Toy

(total leveled annual revenue

equi resent)

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(excluding Yand purchase) VI

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?(excluding Vand purchase)

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2 (VII)

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aun +

= 6

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226 Ga/year

seraryear

\$135/year

s22/year

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use

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\$200/year,

\$20/year

5257/year

sem/year

\$687/year

?Se0s/yeur

\$3.95/60

\$3.00)

52.070)

sener

Enver

\$2.78/60

\$2:50/63

\$2:38/63

n

tron Ref. 21

\*

erined as  $E = E_n$

o

+The energy output in  $t$ th year

---Page Break---

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mu)

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wm)

29

Assuming a price of Y and equal to 0.5. \$1760/ha clearing costs are estimated to be about \$500/ha.

From Ref. 49 there are about 12 days of tractor time and 7 days of truck time per hectare over 4 years, or, in practice 2 months.

Because of maintenance, weather, and the timing of agricultural operations we estimate that one tractor can cover 10 ha and one truck 20 ha. We estimate 2 tractors to cost U.S. \$20,000 and a truck U.S. \$15,000. Auxiliary equipment is estimated at U.S. \$10,000 covering 100 ha. We therefore obtain an investment in equipment of U.S. \$650/ha. Harvesting is done by hand. Depreciation time is taken to be 10 years.

f labor, fertilizer, machine operation, and other,

Includes harvesting and all other costs not stated earlier.

Excludes the land purchase investment (U.S. \$1760/ha) plus the interest accumulated on this investment during a six month period when land is available prior to planting.

AN calculations are made for 3 different interest rates; 12% as suggested by Little and Mirrless (60) for 8 developing countries like Brazil; 6%

3.5% our base case and 3.6% as the cost of money for a regulated industry in a developed country

---Page Break---

30

page 12

CAPITAL INVESTMENT costs

Average Tife of

15 years

the aistitiery:

20 years

cost (8760)

Interest (2)

36 1.90 1.55

6.0 2.5 1.30

120 3.20 2.90

---Page Break---

vaste 13

## PRODUCTION COSTS OF ETHANOL DERIVED FROM SUGAR CANE

(5/69 of anhydrous ethanol)

Fixed investment in distillery 2.25

Operation and Maintenance 2.20

Biomass input 6.99

By-product credit = 0.70 (1)

Working capital for operation 0.10

Sub-total 12.28

Product inventory 0.45 (11)

Total 7

From Ref. 21

updated to 1920 cost value from data presented in Ref. 21. Assuming

Phat the Targe devatuation of SraziTian oney occurred in Dacember,  
1978 (50s) vas enough to offset the dollar inflation in 1978 and 1979.

(2) By-product exedie is eateviats  
of direct application of stil  
Conventional fertilizers.

1s the difference between the cost  
fat fertilizer aod the cont of

(AD) If alcohol is to be a najor component of the eneraY supply aysten  
for transport ie supply must be constant over the year. This) ix  
pligs an inventory equal to at least one half of the output of of

atittery operating 165 days per year~ This adds a sigaifleant  
cost to the final. product, .

---Page Break---

aur at

PRODUCTION COSTS OF ETHANOL DERIVED FROM ¥000

{ACID HYDROLYSIS. PROCESS)

(s760)

Fixed investment in processing .

Plant , ° an

Operation and maintenance 2.00

Biomass Input (39 6.20

By-product credit (11) = 1.80

Total woz



update to 1560 dotTar value from data presented in Ref. 21.

?Assuming that the Target devaluation of Brazilian money occur

oa

fn December 1979 (303) was enough to offset the dollar inflation

in 1978 and 23,

1B) The cost of Soases ix evaluated under the assumption of sel

sufficient hectare: OE of wood undergoes hydrolyeia aod 40% te

ured as foel for the induserial plant as suggested by the per

formance of the sviss factories and presented in fig. 9.? S0DE

of wood yields 230 lieers of echanoly and-1 ha yields 12 Oot

\iofch means  $(121230 \times 0,6^{\circ} = 1650)$  1650" /na/year Af ethanol Stace

?he heat contend of ethanol and vood are 21G/n3 and 1803/00T,

respectively, the hydrolysis process converts 216/G! of wood

(0200F x 186) /ont) To 34,503 Of ethanol with a conversion eff

elency of 162.

TD) The mode! nd is auch that Lignin is a by-product.

the pig fron industry. Lignin Le produced at a rate of 1.56 63

fof Lignin/G3 of ethano} which meant a credit of 1780/0)" of

exam.

---Page Break---

ENERGY INPUTS (PERCENT?

TORIC)

Figure 1

33

uct an|

ENERGY

?From ref. 51

NATURAL GAS"

tuauios:

---Page Break---

34

Figure 2

BLOCK ?DIAGRAM - ETHANOL DISTILLERY

(sam

Ripping an

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Steam

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water (Water (aaa rae

treatment isin

Electric

fnersy

---Page Break---



35

Figure 3

◦

PRICE STRUTURE OF GASOLINE IN BRAZIL \*

◦

◦

Raw material

◦ and

refining

43.30%

Transportation and

Distribution expenses \_»

9 Gas station profit

Distribution profit ~ \ Resources for develoement

ret. 52

---Page Break---

36

FIGURE \ VARIATION IN APPARENT AND ACTUAL CONSUMPTION  
TH OCTANE

12000 4

Lead

Ze ne (g/litre)

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aw» 235

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1200

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SSS "90 92 34 96 98 100

RESEARCH OCTANE NUMBER

From ref. 53

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Figure 7

COST AND TIMING DISTRIBUTION OF INPUTS AND OUTPUTS IN AN EUCALYPTUS  
WOOD FARM IN BRAZIL

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Update to 1980 dollar value from date presented in Ref.21. Assuming  
that the large devaluation of Brazilian money occurred in December  
1979 (30%) was enough to offset the dollar inflation in 1978 and 79.

---Page Break---



Figure 8

ENERGY COSTS FOR THE PRODUCTION OF GASOLINE \*

INPUT 1: MATERIALS ===

ENERGY

Energy =

INPUT 28

Energy

Energy

Energy BTU

1.03 x 10<sup>8</sup> BTU

Energy

INTERNAL CONSUMPTION

Energy

Physical Loss 0.02 x 10<sup>8</sup> BTU

UNRECOVERED RESOURCE

2.22810" BTU

+

From ref. 41

---Page Break---

XXII

GASOHOL OUTLOOK FOR U.S. SUGAR AND GRAIN CROPS.

Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

?November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

BATTELLE COLUMBUS LABORATORIES

?Columbus, Ohio

---Page Break---

---Page Break---

o

GASOHOL OUTLOOK FOR U.S. SUGAR AND GRAIN CROPS

Table of Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

NEED

RESOURCE BASE,

1. Sugar Crops

2 Grains And Tubers

3. Future Feedstocks

PROCESS OPTIONS

ECONOMICS

INCENTIVES

MARKET ACCEPTANCE,

OUTLOOK FOR ALCOHOL FUELS

TABLES

FIGURE

Page

u

---Page Break---

GASOHOL OUTLOOK FOR U.S. SUGAR AND GRAIN CROPS

D.M. Jenkins and B. S, Lipinsky!/  
/

Battle-Columbus Laboratories

Columbus, Ohio

ABSTRACT

?THE FACTORS influencing alcohol production from sugar crops and grain include the need for fuel alcohol, the resource base, process options, economics, subsidies and markets, The analysis of these factors provides insight ?into where alcohol i coming from and where it is going. We conclude that most U.S. fuel alcohol in the early 1980s will be made from grain, specifically corn {and milo, Sugar crops are too expensive for fuel alcohol. Fuel sleohol production will grow to about 2 billion gallons by mid-decade. Further expansion will depend upon the availability of petroleum ?and the development of ethanol from cellulose technologies.

4 Present address: Battelle-Columbus Laboratories, \$05 King Avenue, Columbus, Ohio 43201.

---Page Break---

GASOHOL OUTLOOK FOR U.S. SUGAR AND GRAIN CROPS

NEED

In 1973 and early 1974, the OPEC oil prices increased dramatically. The average OPEC sales price in 1973 was \$3.39/bbl, which increased to an average of \$11.28/bbl in 1974. Further price increases occurred throughout the decade, but were largest in 1979 and 1980. In September, 1980, the average OPEC sales price was \$31.59/bbl, and spot gasoline prices in New York and Rotterdam have recently been \$40 and \$44/bbl, respectively. Furthermore, the oil producing nations have indicated a desire to exert more control over world oil production and prices, although to date OPEC has not fully used its potential monopoly power.

The increasing prices of petroleum in world markets and the realization that the consuming countries were at the mercy of the exporting nations prompted a search for alternative fuels which could reduce petroleum imports. In the United States, 1979 energy consumption was 80 quadrillion Btu, of which 18.4 quadrillion Btu were imported. Of these imports, 16.9 quadrillion Btu were crude oil and refined petroleum products. This is equivalent to net petroleum imports of 7.9 million barrels per day in 1979,

Alcohol fuels, both ethanol and methanol, provide an alternative source of energy which has the potential to somewhat reduce the importation of liquid petroleum fuels. To date, most of the emphasis has been on ethanol made from grains and sugar crops. The government estimates that between 80 and 100 million gallons of fuel-grade ethanol are currently being produced annually in the United States. Furthermore, we believe there are about 600 plants with capacities ranging from tightly over 1 million gallons to over 100 million gallons in various stages of planning. In one state, we have recently identified planned alcohol ventures totalling \$30 million ethanol capacity per year. These planned alcohol ventures use both grain and sugar as raw materials. However, it seems unlikely that more than a fraction of these ventures will become reality,

The Department of Energy has set goals for alcohol production of 920 million gallons per year by the end of 1982, and 1.8 billion gallons per year by the end of 1985.

## RESOURCE BASE

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2

Ethanol can be made from a wide variety of crops containing either sugar or starch. These

crops include sugarcane, sugarbeets, corn, milo, wheat, and potatoes.

**Sugar Crops.** Throughout most of the United States sugar crops are not currently available for alcohol production. In the U.S., sugarcane is grown only in Hawaii, Texas, Louisiana, Florida, and Puerto Rico.

In addition, sugarbeets are grown in many northern states, but production has been declining. Beet sugar is usually more expensive to produce than cane sugar. All U.S. sugar production now goes for food uses. At present, and probably in the future, world sugar prices are so low that it is unlikely that current sugar crops will be used for alcohol production in the United States. Recent prices for selected alcohol feedstocks are shown in Table 1,

A major advantage of sugar crops is the high alcohol yield per acre of cultivated land. As can be seen in Table 2, much more alcohol can be produced from an acre of sugarcane than from an acre of grain,

All sugar crops have

a major disadvantage compared to starch crops for alcohol manufacture.

Sugar crops of dilute sugar solutions obtained from them cannot be stored without microbial degradation. Therefore, they must be either concentrated to high-test molasses (an expensive operation) or the alcohol plant must be operated only during the harvesting season. This latter approach increases capital charges and increases the price of alcohol. This is discussed in a later section,

Grains and Tubers. The two grains most likely to be used for alcohol manufacture are corn and milo (grain sorghum). Other grains like wheat, oats, rice, and barley are suitable, but they are much more expensive,

Potatoes and other starch tubers are also suitable for alcohol. Food-quality potatoes are too expensive for alcohol manufacture, but adequate quantities of low value cull potatoes are available at some locations in the northern United States. We believe that only a small fraction of U.S. alcohol production will be made from potatoes or other starchy tubers,

Most U.S. alcohol production in this decade will be made from corn and possibly milo. At a



Yield of 2.6 gallons per bushel, each million gallons of alcohol requires 385,000 bushels of grain. To reach the 2 billion gallon level, we shall need to commit 770 million bushels of grain. This is ten

---Page Break---

3

percent of the record 1979 corn crop (7.76 billion bushels) and about 12 percent of the estimated 1980 crop of 6.53 billion bushels. The 2 billion gallons ethanol would replace about 1.3 billion gallons gasoline or 1.2 percent of national consumption. This assumes that mileage is proportional to the energy content of the fuel, which GM has demonstrated in the new cars with automatic carburetor adjustment,

There is probably adequate land available to produce additional grain for alcohol feedstock.

Each billion gallons ethanol requires 3.5 to 4 million acres of crop land. Recently there were 14.8 million acres in the soil bank and another 24 million acres in pasture land which could be converted to crop land with limited risk of soil erosion. Finally, the byproduct animal feed from alcohol plants would displace some soybeans. For each billion gallons of alcohol made from corn, about 2 million acres of soybeans could be taken out of production.

Future Feedstocks. Several feedstocks which are not now available in commercial quantities have been suggested for alcohol manufacture. These include sweet sorghum, fodder beets,

Jerusalem

artichokes, and cat

is, All of these potential feedstocks require research in crop management and possibly genetic improvements

?Sweet sorghum has about the same processing characteristics as sugarcane, Unlike sugarcane, however, sweet sorghum can be grown in much of the United States. This has the potential to provide high yields?the equivalent of about 350-500 gallons per acre. At the present time, sweet sorghum is not widely grown. It is unlikely to make any significant contribution to alcohol production before the end of the decade,

Fodder beets contain both sugar and starch, They are said to have higher yields of fermentable carbohydrates per acre than sugar beets. In addition, they have better storage characteristics and are

?easier to grow than sugar beets. However, they are subject to diseases and pest damage, More ?research remains to be done before fodder beets are commercialized,

Jerusalem artichokes have shown potential as an alternative sugar crop for fermentation, They can be grown in the northern United States and do not require high fertilization. Processes to convert the fructose polymer (inulin) to fermentable sugars have not passed the laboratory stage, ?The true potential has not yet been fully evaluated,

---Page Break---

Cattails have been recently suggested as a source of easily grown starch for fermentation. Cattails can be grown on low quality land in much of the United States. The research on cattails is in its early stages, and we do not believe that cattails will become a promising feedstock for widespread alcohol manufacture,

## PROCESS OPTIONS

The technologies for the manufacture of ethyl alcohol from grain and sugar crops have evolved primarily from the beverage industry. Several modifications and improvements have been made to convert from beverage alcohol technology to modern fuel alcohol technology. One of the major changes has been in the alcohol recovery system. Whereas in beverage manufacture the removal of trace impurities

which affect the flavor is important, the fusel oils are generally blended into fuel-grade alcohol. Furthermore, most of the existing beverage alcohol plants were built in the mid-twentieth century when fuel cost was not an important criteria. The modern alcohol plant designs have much more energy efficient distillation systems. Furthermore, several organizations are continuing research on the recovery of fuel-grade alcohol from fermentation

es, and the encry

Requirements to make anhydrous alcohol may be further reduced in the near future.

Traditionally, when ethanol is made from sugarcane there has been an excess of bagasse which is used to fuel the alcohol plant. Therefore, energy efficiency has been less of a concern in superbased plants. As fuel prices rise, however, alternative uses are being found for bagasse as a fuel.

The CEER Energy Cane Concept is an example of this. Consequently, we would expect to see the

adoption of more energy efficient technologies in the future,

The current commercial technologies for manufacture of alcohol from grain employ either dry or wet milling technologies. The com wet milling plants are more expensive to build but the higher capital cost is offset by higher byproduct credits. The byproducts from wet milling alcohol plants are com oil, gluten feed, and gluten meal worth about \$0.65 per gallon alcohol produced at today's prices. This compares with byproduct distillers dark grains and slubles worth about \$0.39 per gallon,

Byproduct carbon dioxide is obtained from all alcohol fermentations. The carbon dioxide is marketable only in a few special cases.

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5

[Now technologies which will manufacture ethanol from lignocellulosic materials like wood or sericultural residues are currently under development. These technologies are still in the research stages, Nevertheless, many observers believe that cellulosic materials will displace grains as a major aleoho feedstock by the end of the decade,

[New processes are curently being developed for the manufacture of alcohol from starch and sugar feedstocks. Some of these new technologies are reported to significantly reduce the capital investment required, These new technologies have not yet been translated into commercial realities, however.

1m addition to the commercial alcohol plants, some projections include numerous small, {armscale alcohol plants contributing to alcohol supply. One DOE report projects 2200 smal plants (under 1 million gallons per year) producing 660 million gallons fuel alcohol by 1985.\* This estimate seems overly optimistic. Inthe first place, most on-farm stills are much smaller than this 300,000 gallon per year average. In the second place, although there is much interest in alcohol, few farmers are spending money as yet. Most farmers seem more interested in rising grain prices than in ?making alcohol, They would probably prefer to stay out ofthe alcohol business unles that was the ?only way to obtain higher prices. Although many farmize stills willbe built, we do not anticipate

?that they will provide a large fraction of the nation?s fuel alcohol.

## ECONOMICS

?The most economic feedstocks for ethanol manufacture using current technology are corn and ilo. Like most agricultural commodities, corn prices can fluctuate over a wide range. During the pest decade, Chicago com prices have ranged from a low of about \$1.20/bushel in 1970 and 1972 ?to a high of about \$3.40/bushel in 1980. Local prices in the corn belt and elsewhere can vary ?considerably from the quoted Chicago prices. With corn at \$2.80/bushel and dried distillers grain at \$132/ton, the net feedstock cost is about \$0.62/galion and the net manufacturing cost in a ?commerciatscale plant is about \$1.60/gallon. The manufacturing cost, including profit, will vary ?with a specific plant design and location, but generally we believe that the total cost sin this range.

?The manufacture of aleohol from sugarcane is very sensitive to the sugar value and to the

\* Draft copy, A Guide to Commercial Scale Ethanol Production and Financing (October, 1980).

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6

srowing season, One of the technical disadvantages of using sugar crops is the inability to store them for extended periods. If sugarcane were valued at \$25/ton, then the feedstock cost per gallon of alcohol would be about \$1.60/gallon, With a 180-day growing season, the total manufacturing cost of éthanol from sugarcane would be about \$3/mllon in a new plant. With sugar at its current high price, the manufacture of fuel alcohol from sugar would appear generally uneconomic.

Furthermore the land available for sugarcane production inthe United States is quite limited,

?There is some possiblity that sweet sorghum, which is very similar to sugarcane in its

?processing characteristic, may be grown throughout much of the United States. Sweet sorghum is not a widely grown crop at present, however. While we believe that sweet sorghum may be an ?economic crop to grow for the manufacture of fuel alcohol, it will be at least mid-decade before this can be confirmed. The relatively short harvesting season (about 90 days) for sweet sorghum will adversely affect the manufacturing costs unless an economic storage system is devised.

?The manufacture of ethanol from cellulosic residues is still in the research and development stages. We have examined several processes for the manufacture of ethanol from cellulose. The most economic of these appears to have manufacturing costs of about \$1.28/gallon with a cellulosic feedstock like corn stover at \$30/dry ton. Although it is difficult to speculate on the final cost of such advanced technologies by the time they are ready for commercialization, they do appear to be promising.

?The manufacturing cost of various alcohol fuels is compared in Table 3. These costs generally do not compare favorably with gasoline at \$1/gallon. The recent gasoline prices on the Rotterdam spot market were between \$38 and \$46/barrel, or \$0.90 to \$1.10/gallon. With present economics, it appears that alcohol may need some form of subsidy to be competitive.

It is somewhat misleading to directly compare the price of alcohol with the price of gasoline,

?There are two other factors which need to be considered. The first of these is that the ethanol contains only 2/3 the heating value per gallon as does gasoline. The second is that ethanol has a high

?ending octane and may in fact have more value as an octane improver than as a gasoline. The value

of ethanol as an octane improver depends upon the quality of the raw gasoline and the options

available to the blender, Some recent estimates have indicated that the octane improvement value | ranges from \$0.10 to \$0.30/gallon ethanol.

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## INCENTIVES

In order to promote the use of alcohol fuel, the government has devised a number of incentives. The largest incentive is the reduction of the excise taxes on gasoline alcohol blends. For ethanol, or blends containing 10 percent alcohol, the federal excise tax of 4¢/gallon is waived. This is equivalent to a subsidy of 4¢/gallon of alcohol. The various state excise tax reductions vary from 1¢ in Connecticut to 10¢ in Iowa. The Iowa exemption of 10¢ is only an effective exemption of about 6¢ because a 3 percent sales tax is imposed on fuels which are exempt from the state road use tax. The greatest state subsidy occurs in the State of Arkansas, which has a 9¢/gallon tax exemption for ethanol. In total, 24 states have tax exemptions for gasoline, and most of these are in the 4¢/gallon range. Many of the state tax exemptions have either a decreasing tax exemption or an expiration date. Furthermore, the gasoline tax exemption is restricted in many states to alcohol produced from crops grown within the state, or blended within the state. The states which have state tax exemptions are illustrated in Figure 1. Other incentives for alcohol production include a ten percent investment tax credit on equipment used in alcohol manufacture, which in addition to the normal ten percent investment tax credit, and various property sales and/or income tax incentives provided by the states. Finally, there are a number of federal loan and guarantee programs available for alcohol plants.

The state and federal excise tax exemptions are by far the largest incentives and subsidies for Alcohol manufacture. When the excise tax incentives are considered, the economics of alcohol from



?sain appear competitive with gasoline,

## MARKET ACCEPTANCE,

Consumers appear to have accepted gasohol In 1978, about 50 million gallons of ethanol were blended with gasoline and sold through about 2,000 retail outlets, Major alcohol producers appear to have difficulty keeping up with demand and have announced several plant expansions.

Most gasohol sales have been in the corn belt where there appears to be deep support for fuel made from farm products, The long standing state subsidies also help. Not surprisingly, there appears to be a correlation between the subsidies and the sale and manufacture of fuel ethanol

---Page Break---

8

Consumers have been willing to pay a premium for gasohol over unleaded regular. Perhaps this is due to the higher octane of current gasohol, perhaps due to a patriotic urge to reduce petroleum imports.

Recently, gasoline retailers' and wholesalers' interest in gasohol has waned. This is partly because of a temporary gasoline surplus which is widening the cost differential between gasoline and

gasohol, partly to the special attention needed to keep water from gasohol, and partly because many petroleum companies are developing unleaded premium grades of gasoline.

We believe that dealer interest in gasohol will increase in times of tight supply. Also, dealers and jobbers would be more interested in gasohol if they were given a slice of the subsidy pie.

## OUTLOOK FOR ALCOHOL FUELS

To summarize, alcohol fuels are growing rapidly. Last year, production was about 50 million gallons. If announced capacity is built, capacity will exceed 900 million gallons in 1983. Alcohol capacity will probably be about 2 billion gallons by mid-decade,

Beyond mid-decade the outlook is not clear. The economics of alcohol from sugar crops are very unfavorable. Alcohol from grain is competitive with petroleum only if subsidized. Grain alcohol may be competitive with alternative fuels, however. Grain, particularly corn and milo, will be the preferred feedstock for alcohol in the early 1980s.

The cost of subsidization is high, and the subsidies currently reduce road maintenance budgets. Furthermore, the creation of a significant fuel alcohol industry will increase grain and meat prices. Unless there is a petroleum shortage in the first half of the decade, we expect public support for alcohol fuels from grain to diminish. The growth of fuel alcohol plants will slow. Attention will be turned from alcohol fuels by fermentation to higher value chemical products.

The reduction in public support for alcohol from grain and sugar crops will provide an opportunity in the latter part of the decade for alcohol from lignocellulose. Whether or not alcohol fuels continue to grow depends in large measure on the success of current research and

development

(on lignocellulosic technologies. For example, the sugar crops (sugarcane and sweet sorghum) have considerable potential as ethanol resources if technology to convert lignocellulose contained in the stalks to ethanol achieves commercialization.

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ALCOHOL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT OUTLOOK  
\_ FOR PUERTO RICO

Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

(Caribe Hilton Hotel, San Juan, Puerto Rico

November 24 and 25, 1980

Contributed By

?THE UPR AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENT STATION

?Rum Pilot Plant, Rio Piedras

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ALCOHOL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT OUTLOOK  
FOR PUERTO RICO

?Table of Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

RAW MATERIAL,

FERMENTATION PROCESS

FERMENTATION OF DISTILLERY WASTES

OTHER STUDIES

1. New Yeast Strai

2 Dense Cell Culture

3. Be-Ferm Process

4. Alcohol for Energy

CONCLUSION

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

REFERENCES:

TABLE

Page

---Page Break---

ALCOHOL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT OUTLOOK  
FOR PUERTO RICO

?Amador Belardol/

AES-UPR Rum Pilot Plant, Rio Piedras

ABSTRACT

ALCOHOL research in Puerto Rico is directed primarily to the needs of the Puerto Rican Rum Industry. Most of this research is conducted at the Rum Pilot Plant of the Agricultural Experiment Station,

?The research program discussed places special emphasis at present and in the immediate future for raw material and the fermentation process in search for efficient processes which will minimize the effects of scarcity of raw material, energy costs and pollution contra

, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico

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00928,

## ALCOHOL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT OUTLOOK FOR PUERTO RICO

### INTRODUCTION

IN PUERTO RICO, the major part of the research on alcohol conducted at the Rum Plot Plant, which is a department of the Agricultural Experiment Station of the University of Puerto Rico, The Rum Plot Plant was created by the Legislature in 1948 and its main purpose is to provide technical support to the Puerto Rican Rum Industry. Its main objective, therefore, is to aid local rum manufacturers in obtaining and maintaining high quality rum. The Plant is equipped with sequential fermentation and distillation facilities, as well as chemical and bacteriological laboratories and an aging warehouse. It is staffed with experienced chemists and bacteriologists and a several engineers under part-time contract.

{Up to 12 years ago the rum industry in Puerto Rico was in its good shape, The market was flooded, with a strong increasing trend. Raw materials were lately cheap and abundant and with the exception of unusual troughs now and then, the rum manufacturers had no great wor,

?Then, beginning in 1968, a series of events began to occur which have affected the industry to

a point where the future does not look as bright as before. The three major events were

(a) The Environmental Protection Agency's ruling in 1968 that the industry had to comply

with new effluent standards and to install

secondary treatment facilities to meet EPA's effluent standards by 1983,

(b) Petroleum prices began increasing in 1973 and have continued to increase causing such a

drastic increase in the cost of energy that as a result the major consequence

is the curbing of any projections, expansions, or future plans.

(c) The decrease in local sugar production has resulted in a decrease in the production of

blackstrap molasses, a by-product of sugar manufacture which is the raw material for the

production of rum. This has led to a depletion of supplies of ported molasses

?These three events have been responsible for changes in the technological viewpoints of the

rum manufacturers in an area where a few years ago they were hesitant or unwilling to introduce

changes. Specific areas of interest are raw materials and the fermentation process. The changes

contemplated in these areas to minimize the effects of scarcity of raw material, energy costs, and

pollution control, create an increasing number of interesting research problems which must be

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solved in a relatively short time, One of the objectives of the Rum Pilot Plant for the present year is to develop a modern fermentation process for the manufacture of high quality rums with emphasis

for the optimum use

Undertake these studies it is necessary to set up the pilot scale facility possible, and this is now being done,

attention of raw materials, efficient usage, and conservation of energy. To

to operate as flexibly as

## RAW MATERIAL

Blackstrap molasses, the main by-product obtained from sugar manufacture, is the only raw material used in Puerto Rico for rum manufacture. The availability and quality of this material has been decreasing since 1969, forcing the rum producers to obtain molasses from other rum producing countries (i), The available molasses varies in composition with respect to fermentable sugars and undesirable solids such as minerals and gums, depending on the country of origin. The adverse effects of low quality molasses are many, ranging from inhibition of yeast, blocking centrifuge nozzles sealing in the beer column, and contributing greatly to the pollutant character of the stillage. Two alternatives are being considered by the rum industry to compensate for the scarcity and the low quality of the molasses. One is pretreatment of blackstrap molasses to remove



undesirable solids prior to fermentation, An objection to pretreatment is the loss of sugar during the process, Usually, the process involves heat treatment and clarification to destroy bacteria and remove certain volatiles in the raw material that can inhibit fermentation. In the Almotherm retreatment process which will be employed in our studies, suspended solids are removed together with much of the soluble calcium salts. By countercurrent washing, minimal loss of sugar can be achieved,

[As will be seen later, the present tendency in the rum industry is to increase alcohol productivity and lower operational costs, To attain this goal, yeast recycling is being considered by the rum manufacturers. If this is the case it is almost mandatory to pretreat the blackstrap molasses in order to obtain a clean yeast cream, Additional benefits to be expected by combining pretreatment with yeast recycling are: (2) Reduced scaling in distillation units (beer column); and

It is estimated that the industry will need 59 million gallons of molasses in 1980, The local mills will produce only 8 million gallons,

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(b) the quality of the stillage from the beer column will be such that part of it could be used to dilute incoming molasses, thus providing savings in process water and acid and reducing the volume of stillage to be treated, and thus the stillage treatment costs.

The other alternative being considered is the use of high test molasses in the fermentation process,

High test molasses is defined as clarified sugarcane syrup, partially inverted to avoid crystallization, and evaporated to 85° Brix. Its composition is different from that of blackstrap molasses as can be seen in Table 1.

Based on experimental work conducted at the Rum Pilot Plant (2), in which various procedures for inversion of sucrose in sugarcane juice were studied, preliminary tests on a larger scale (1000 gallon batch) were conducted at Gusnica Sugar Mill by Rum Pilot Plant personnel. The tests were carried out by Chemists Eduardo Rosado and Mario Ramirez with the collaboration of Bacteriologist Nivia Murphy. Tests on this scale are important as more reliable data in optimum conditions, costs, and energy requirements can be obtained,

Three thousand gallons of high-test molasses were produced in these experiments in which the enzymatic inversion method was employed. The inversion time averaged 10 hours and the tests showed that this operation could be carried out parallel to the sugar refining process. Part of the material produced was fermented and distilled and is being aged with adequate controls and analysis

to characterize the final product. However, there are many economical and technological aspects to

be evaluated before any commitment can be attained regarding the conversion of a significant Portion of the sugarcane harvest for high-test molasses instead of sugar and blackstrap molasses, To this effect, the Puerto Rican Rum Producers Association, at the request of the Economic

Development Administration, has submitted a statement defining their position and concern on the molasses crisis and recommending a program to evaluate the economical and agricultural aspects which will guarantee the amount and quality of raw material needed by the rum industry without depending on exterior sources

The important points that circumstances have made the rum manufacturer interested in other sources of raw material If high-test molasses, or sugarcane juices, are not suitable substances then perhaps a whole new approach such as the Ex-Ferm process should be closely examined.

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4

## FERMENTATION PROCESS

The impact of the three major events mentioned earlier has been reflected in the increasing cost of producing alcohol by fermentation. This has awakened interest in areas where changes can be introduced in the process without adversely affecting quality, yet would result in cost reductions. A great part of the research effort at the Rum Pilot Plant at present and in the immediate future will be the development of efficient fermentation processes which will be evaluated under different conditions.

?These include:

(a) Presreated blackstrap molasses as raw material

(b) High-test molasses as raw material

(c) Both materials to be evaluated with and without yeast recycling

?The initial phase which is now underway involves setting up flexible pilot scale facilities to conduct studies on batch, incremental, or continuous fermentation, with or without pretreatment of raw material, and with or without yeast recycling. With this approach it should be possible to determine the ideal conditions and best substrate for producing rum at the lowest possible cost.

?The advantages of combining pre-treatment and yeast recycling were mentioned in the previous section. The importance of yeast recycling is in the fact that in addition to building up a high yeast concentration, and, as a result, shortening the fermentation time, higher alcohol yields are obtained. This is due to the presence of more fermentable sugars in the mash being converted to alcohol, instead of being used to grow yeast cells, as is the case in conventional fermentation systems,

By means of centrifugal separators designed specifically for yeast recovery, and by acid-washing of the yeast before re-use, it is possible to maintain a vigorous mass of yeast cells in the system. An extremely high yeast concentration tends to suppress bacterial or fungal growth, thus reducing undesirable by-products of fermentation from these micro-organisms and enhancing the alcohol yield. Other methods for preserving the yeast cream that will be studied include use of antibacterial agents, flotation process, refrigeration, and drying.

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?Yeast recycling will be studied with special reference to the continuous fermentation process, although the flexibility of the installations will permit re-use of yeast in either batch or incremental fermentation processes,

?The optimal procedure selected for incremental and continuous fermentation will be based on response to controlled fermentation variables, and conservation of energy. Variables include yeast concentration, nutrient formulation, pretreatment of the mash, mash formulation, pH, temperature control, and alcohol yield and quality. The impact on energy savings will be assessed in all experiments, Reuse of water and stillage will be evaluated as a source of heat and diluting liquor.

## FERMENTATION OF DISTILLERY WASTES

Although the rum manufacturers are already involved in definite plans for treatment of distillery wastes, research in this area will continue at the Rum Pilot Plant. Stillage produced from the various experiments using different raw materials and techniques will be characterized. Data on the composition of distillery wastes obtained from the fermentation of high-test molasses indicate that the BOD content is approximately 50% of that of stillage obtained from the fermentation of blackstrap molasses. Based on this value, treatment costs should be much lower for stillage from high-test molasses than from blackstrap molasses. Complete analyses of these two wastes will be published in the near future by Chemist Mario Ramirez,

Studies on fermentation of distillery wastes for the production of fodder yeast will continue,

## OTHER STUDIES

### 1, New Yeast Strains

?The strong demand for higher fermentation rates and higher alcohol productivity has intensified research on development of yeast strains compatible with high alcohol concentrations and temperatures. Although the Rum Pilot Plant will not be directly involved in developing these strains, the yeast development program will continue and as these new strains become available from different sources they will be added to the yeast collection, They will be evaluated first on a laboratory scale and then on a pilot plant scale,

---Page Break---

6

### 2. Dense Cell Culture

In addition to yeast recycling as a means for building up yeast cell concentrations, other methods have been mentioned in the literature (3). Some of these are:

(a) The tower fermenter, using a flocculating yeast

(©) Packed tower with immobilized cells

(©) Membrane-dialysis

(@) Hollow-fiber fermenter technique

(©) Rotor fermenter

?As more information becomes available the most promising of these techniques will be  
?evaluated and compared with the yeast recycle approach.

### 3. ExFerm Process

?A new approach to the production of alcohol by fermentation is being studied by C. Rolz and his associates at the Central American Research Institute for Industry in Guatemala (4). Basically, this process, called Ex-Ferm, combines extra

and fermentation of sucrose directly from

sugarcane pieces in one operation, Research has been conducted on laboratory scale (2 liters) in vertical reactors and in horizontal tubular packed bed fermenters with different yeast strain and different sizes of cane particles. This process will be evaluated at the Rum Pilot Plant on the laboratory and pilot plant levels and the results will be made available to the rum industry.

### 4, Alcohol For Energy

Research at the Rum Pilot Plant will not involve production of alcohol for energy purposes such as ethanol. This is being investigated from all aspects in many research laboratories in various countries. However, the Rum Pilot Plant is in a position to collaborate with other investigators in this field, especially with regard to fermentation and distillation of by-products,

## CONCLUSION

?The research program in which the Rum Pilot Plant is involved, as mentioned previously, is

---Page Break---

7

?aimed at obtaining solutions to problems which may affect the Rum Industry. High priority is given to the problem of raw material, and to fermentation techniques which may result in higher alcohol productivity and lower coats.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

?Thanks are given to the technical personnel of the Rum Pilot Plant for their collaboration in the preparation of this pape,

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## COMPOSTTION OF HIGH-TEST MOLASSES (INVERTED) AND BLAGKSTEAP MOLASSES

X composition, For ?

2 Parameter High-Test\_ Blackstrep

specific Gravity (Brix) 20-86 86.0

a 5.05.7 56

Total Sogere, As Invert 19 51.0

overt Sogar 5065 20.0

Sucrose 12-26 m0

Soluble Solids, Koo-Sugar 6.07.5 23.0

ash 2.22.0 9.6

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xxv

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPLICATIONS OF BIOMASS AND OTHER ALTERNATIVE  
FUELS USAGE IN PUERTO RICO

Presented To The Symposium

FUELS AND FEEDSTOCKS FROM TROPICAL BIOMASS

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Contributed By

?THE UPR CENTER FOR ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT RESEARCH

?Terrestrial Ecology Division, Rfo Piedras, P. R.

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# ENVIRONMENTAL IMPLICATIONS OF BIOMASS AND OTHER ALTERNATIVE FUELS USAGE IN PUERTO RICO

## Table Of Contents

Topic

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS.

1. Biomass

2 Solar Energy

3. Hydroelectric Power

4. Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion

5. Coal

CLASSIFICATION OF IMPACTS

CONCLUSIONS

ENVIRONMENTAL PERSPECTIVE,

REFERENCES

TABLE

---Page Break---

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPLICATIONS OF BIOMASS AND OTHER ALTERNATIVE  
FUELS USAGE IN PUERTO RICO

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ABSTRACT

THE SMALL size and relative isolation of Puerto Rico necessitates responsible management of existing environmental resources. Here, as on similar islands, natural ecosystems are extremely susceptible to disturbance. As Puerto Rico develops its energy alternatives for the future, adequate consideration must be given to the environmental impacts of development so that valuable irreplaceable resources are not lost.

In the immediate future, coal is likely to be used to reduce Puerto Rico's dependence on oil for electrical power generation. However, several unique attributes favor the development of a variety of renewable energy resources. Abundant sunshine, nearly constant trade winds, suitable climate for yearlong crop production, and proximity to deep ocean waters can all be used to provide energy for Puerto Rico. Preliminary studies have not detected any unresolvable technical problems, but the ecological implications for large scale implementation must be closely scrutinized,

Environmental assessment is necessary in order to make intelligent decisions concerning both the technology to be used and the location of energy producing facilities. Many schemes have been developed for classifying impacts. Some current categories are briefly discussed. By evaluating impacts, the environmental scientist is making value judgements based on available information. For this reason, it is important to maintain a broad perspective on the problems of energy development in Puerto Rico and elsewhere,

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ENVIRONMENTAL IMPLICATIONS OF BIOMASS AND OTHER ALTERNATIVE  
FUELS USAGE IN PUERTO RICO

INTRODUCTION

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?To identify important areas where additional information is needed in order to adequately assess environmental impacts,

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## ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

Puerto Rico's heavy dependence on fos fuels i Hkely to continue for some time, but rising coats and dwindling world reserves have created & mounting need fo the development of renewable energy sources (13). The National Academy of Sciences has evaluated six renewable energy sources

Potentially contributing to Puerto Rico's energy needs (9). Their study revealed that there are no easy oF low-cost solutions, and concluded that a varety of domestic resources can substantially contribute to decreasing Puerto Rico's need for imported fossil fuels (Table 1). The impact of using these renewable resources plus coal, curently proposed as a partial substitute for imported oll, are the altematives which have the greatest chance for immediate development and therefore need

immediate evaluation,

1. Biomass



Only a century ago biomass in the form of wood was the primary fuel used in the United States (5). Biomass can provide fuel directly in the form of fiber and indirectly as alcohol. Wood or cane fiber can be processed for use in electrical generation facilities to supplement fossil fuel combustion, an ethanol can be used as a fuel supplement for gasoline powered vehicles. Economic and technical arguments for the immediate development of these resources are persuasive, No new technology is required, development could be integrated with solar drying and modern agricultural methods to optimize resource use, the yearlong growing season in Puerto Rico is favorable for maximum productivity, fuel costs are competitive and the molasses byproduct (in the case of sugar crops) could be sold to further reduce fuel production cost,

Like other forms of energy there are both negative and positive aspects to its use. Two significant potential problems associated with biomass production are (a) erosion, which depletes soil fertility and affects air quality, water quality, and adjacent ecological communities, and (b) land use, which can adversely impact important ecotypes and wildlife habitat (20). The use of insecticides and fertilizers poses additional threats to the environment, Among the beneficial results of using biomass instead of fossil fuels for energy production is the reduction in air pollutant, particularly SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (1, 19) {hasten to add, however, that NO<sub>x</sub> air pollution is a more desirable environmental goal

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3

There is a clear need for additional information on the environmental impact of biomass, including its production, transportation, and use as a fuel There is a concomitant need for studies

of the effects of large scale development of this process in an island environment. What is the optimum area which could be committed to biomass production without adversely affecting other components of the environment? It

Unlikely that there is no precise answer, given our present methods of cost/benefit analysis, but some estimates should be obtained before large scale development is begun.

(Current information indicates that 30,000 acres of energy plantation would be required to maintain a 300 MW modern coal-fired biomass boiler operating at 80% capacity. Proper management could reduce the area needed to 15,000 acres (Alexander, personal communication). In order to account for a substantial percentage of the Island's energy requirements, many square miles would need to be converted to energy plantations. On an island the size of Puerto Rico (approximately 3,400 square miles), most of which is covered with mountains or karst and with a population of over three million people, land use quickly becomes an important consideration

Conversion of large areas of land to energy crops is a very real danger to natural ecosystems. The consequences would be felt the strongest in flat lowland areas (3,15). Because many of these areas are already highly disturbed, additional modification of these lands might have insignificant adverse environmental impact.

Another source of biomass is the large volume of water hyacinths which covers lakes, ditches and other slow moving bodies of water in Puerto Rico. Studies conducted by the Terrestrial

[Ecology Division of the Center for Energy and Environment Research have shown that this weedy species can be used as a biofilter to improve the water quality of sewage treatment facilities and produce biomass fuel for bioconversion (21, 22)

## 2. Solar Energy

In a broad sense, many forms of energy (fossil fuels, hydroelectric, wind, et.) are different manifestations of solar energy. Even the energy in biomass is solar energy fixed in organic materials

by the process of photosynthesis. For purposes of this report, only photovoltaic, residential solar water heating, and wind will be evaluated as solar technologies. These solar technologies do not

---Page Break---

4

differ from other energy sources in that they produce both positive and negative environmental effects. Preliminary environmental evaluation conducted by the Solar Research Institute of the U.S. Department of Energy has not identified any unresolvable technological problems (eg. CO<sub>2</sub> emissions) or large scale hazards (eg. possibility of catastrophic accidents) which would hamper development (16).

Photovoltaic electricity generation would produce relatively few impacts when compared to other energy sources. The direct impacts would be chiefly in the commitment of large land areas for the collection of diffuse solar radiation and water quality effects caused by the discharge of working storage, and heat transfer fluids (12).

The residential and industrial use of solar hot water heaters would produce insignificant environmental impacts since these devices could be placed on buildings to avoid disturbance of land. Even optimistic projections for their use would have only a slight impact on the overall energy needs of the Island, however (9).

A preliminary appraisal indicates that a small percentage of Puerto Rico's power could be generated by wind by the year 2000 (9). Although some land would be required for windmill installation, the chief environmental problem seems to be noise and vibrations of the wind machines which can affect both the human and wildlife inhabitants in the vicinity of these devices (16).

### 3. Hydroelectric Power

Most of Puerto Rico's rainfall occurs at high elevations, but the small area of land and short rivers involved limit the pi

lites for hydroelectric generation (9). Environmental costs are very high when compared to returns in power generation. Large areas of land, much of which is habitat for unique and endemic species, would be affected. Normal flow patterns would be interrupted, and the movement of minerals and organisms impeded. The reservoirs produced could provide some benefits, but these would probably be insignificant compared to the habitats lost and ecosystems disturbed by their creation,

### 42 Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion

The proximity of Puerto Rico's power grid to cold deep ocean water makes it a prime location

---Page Break---

5

for an OTEC facility. Both the technical feasibility and environmental impacts of such an installation are largely unknown. An operating OTEC system consumes large volumes of cold, nutrient-rich water and dumps them into warmer surface water. There will undoubtedly be a significant impact on the marine biota, but whether the net impact is negative or positive and whether it is significant or insignificant have not yet been determined.

## 5. Coal

A considerable body of data is available on the environmental impacts of burning coal to provide energy. The most noteworthy direct negative impact

air pollution. High ash content and

SO<sub>2</sub> emissions (10, 17) have polluted major industrial areas throughout the world and have caused considerable damage. The environmental impact of coal combustion on Puerto Rico proper is likely to be minor because of proposed plant locations and existing Commonwealth and Federal air quality standards. The impact on the downwind marine environment, including airbreathing forms such as whales and sea turtles, is unknown but potentially significant,

The use of coal as a fuel for electrical power generation will require the construction of a protected ocean port facility and will increase the ship traffic in that region. Both of these actions may harm the marine environment. Other plant-related facilities will include ash disposal sites and transmission line rights-of-way which should produce only minor environmental disturbances.

#### CLASSIFICATION OF IMPACTS.

The major impacts of various energy alternatives have been mentioned, but an overall

valuation has not been provided. Such a task is beyond the scope of this report, but some

suggestions as to how to classify impacts might be helpful at this point. Both the technology and

location of the alternative energy installation need evaluation, and size requirements are important.

Some of the commonly encountered categories for judging impacts are listed below:

+ Positive/negative

?Long term/short term

Reversible/irreversible

Primary secondary (direct/indirect)

?Avoidable (can be mitigated /unavoidable

?Significant/insignificant

?Acceptable/unacceptable

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Air pollution and land use commitment can readily be designated as negative environmental impacts, but the size and location must be known before any evaluation can be made of their significance. A project may be unacceptable because of the technology employed (e.g. nuclear power) or the location of the installation (e.g. critical habitat of an endangered species).

It is apparent at this point that we are making value judgements and trying to predict the future on the basis of past experience and exploratory calculations. But as Schumacher (11) has

remarked, ?ll predictions are unreliab

particularly those about the future.

## CONCLUSIONS

(On the basis of existing assessments, biomass shows the greatest promise of any renewable resource for meeting the energy needs of Puerto Rico in the near future. Potential environmental impacts have been identified and need to be critically evaluated,

Coal will be used as one alternative to obtain electrical power to Puerto

the near future, The environmental impacts of coal combustion are generally negative, but additional work may be needed to determine their exact nature and overall significance

Puerto Rico's unique environmental attributes favor the development of renewable energy sources which are now in the developmental stages, Among these are wind, Photovoltaic, and ocean

thermal energy conversion. Once these technologies have been tested and their environmental impacts assessed, the Island will have additional options for attaining some level of energy

self-sufficiency,

## ENVIRONMENTAL PERSPECTIVE



Scientists and engineers tend to view the world as a composite of more or less isolated systems.

For instan

an ecologist I find it convenient to study the ran forest ecosystem as an entity

separate from adjacent agricultural land. A broader perspective it needed, however, in order to understand world mineral eyces of which the rainforest is only a segment. The interclatednes of ecological system

:nd ofall environmental components is difficult to ignore, As the naturalist John

Muir observed more than half a century ago, ?When we try to pi

?out anything by itself, we find it

hitched to everything else in the universe? (B). It is likewise necessary to maintain « broad

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perspective when evaluating the environmental implications of energy development.

?The most urgent problem of our time, however, is not energy, but rather world population (2).

?This is particularly evident in Puerto Rico, Although the pe capita demand for energy has increased seatly in the last few decades, population growth has ako risen sharply. Two symptoms of this condition are (a) intensive farming for food production and (b) the frenzied exploitation of non-renewable resources, including fos fuels. By confining ourselves to evalsating only direct impacts of energy development we will be treating the symptom rather than attempting to cure the disease,

Biological populations, both plant and animal, are controlled by limiting factors such a Aiscase, food supplies, and living space (4, 14). Man's populations are partially Limited by available ?nergy, but itis important to realize that there afe others. I would therefore ask that we all ake a ?broader and longer look at the environmental implications of energy development; otherwise truly relevant solutions will ot be achieved in Puerto Rico or elsewhere inthe work,

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