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COMMUNICATION

Continuous-flow hydroprocessing of long-chain fatty acids: reaction pathways and the impact of lignin-derived aromatics towards efficient deoxygenationRita Assis dos Santos,^{*ab} Arij Ben Hassine,^b Pedro José Sanches Filho,^b M. Joana Neiva Correia,^{ac} and Pedro S. F. Mendes^{*ab}Received 00th January 20xx,
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1 This study establishes oleic acid reaction pathways under long-term
2 continuous-flow hydroprocessing, highlighting the metal and acid
3 sites roles for efficient deoxygenation. At industrially relevant
4 conversions, guaiacol co-feeding, despite accelerating catalyst
5 deactivation, largely preserved the oleic acid-derived fingerprint
6 (83 wt. % of the organic fraction) with mixed-origin products
7 accounting for the remainder. These findings allow tailoring
8 sustainable aviation fuel composition while diversifying non-
9 conventional feedstocks.

10 Introduction

11 The carbon neutrality of the aviation sector remains an open
12 challenge in the climate transition. Aircraft require high-energy-
13 density and intrinsically safe fuels, properties which liquid
14 hydrocarbons deliver today, while batteries or gas fuels (e.g.,
15 hydrogen) will not apparently achieve those in the near future
16 [1–3]. Sustainable Aviation Fuels (SAFs), derived from
17 renewable or waste-based sources, are therefore a key route to
18 reducing the global warming footprint of aircraft [1,3–6]. SAFs
19 have a similar chemical composition to conventional jet fuel
20 (including iso-paraffins, paraffins, aromatics and cycloalkanes),
21 making them compatible with existing infrastructure [3,4].
22 Despite strong policy support (e.g., *ReFuelEU*, which targets 6 %
23 and 20 % of SAF incorporation by 2030 and 2035, respectively
24 [1]), global SAF production remains limited and below
25 expectations [1,2,4].

26 Among the approved production routes, Hydroprocessed
27 Esters and Fatty Acids (HEFA) is currently the most
28 technologically mature and commercially deployed process [1–
29 4,6]. HEFA converts mainly lipidic feedstocks, such as vegetable
30 oils, animal fats, or used cooking oils, into hydrocarbons (HC)
31 through deoxygenation (primarily acid-catalysed [7]
32 hydrodeoxygenation (HDO), metal-catalysed [7,8]
33 decarboxylation (DCO_x) and decarbonylation (DCO)), followed
34 by acid-catalysed [7,9] hydrocracking (HCK) and
35 hydroisomerisation (HDI) reactions [4–6,10][§].

36 The scalability of HEFA fuels is nevertheless constrained by
37 the limited global availability and cost of lipidic feedstocks
38 [1,2,5,6], motivating research towards incorporating more
39 abundant resources, such as lignocellulosic biomass [2,3,6,10].

40 The simultaneous hydroprocessing of lipidic and
41 lignocellulosic-derived feedstocks, potentially in existing
42 refinery units, is thus a promising strategy [10]. This integrated
43 approach not only diversifies feedstock supply chains and
44 potentially reduces costs, but also enables tuning of paraffinic
45 and aromatics fractions to meet jet fuel specifications, including
46 cold flow and aromatic content requirements [1,10].

47 Nonetheless, lipidic and lignocellulosic-derived feedstocks
48 differ significantly in chemical structure, with long-chain fatty
49 acids and oxygenated aromatic compounds, respectively. These
50 differences may result in unexpected interactions when
51 processed together. In other words, mixture effects, impacting,
52 e.g., deoxygenation efficiency or product selectivity, may arise
53 under simultaneous hydroprocessing [11].

54 While the individual hydroprocessing of representative
55 model compounds, such as oleic acid and guaiacol, has been
56 studied often in batch systems [7,12–17], rather than in
57 continuous-flow [18–21], mixture effects are yet to be
58 established. Batch conversion blends of bio-oil and
59 waste/vegetable oils over acidic (Ni)CoMo catalysts (mainly
60 investigating fuel yields, coke formation and solvent effects),
61 has shown that lignin-derived compounds influence coke
62 formation and overall product distribution [22,23]. Under

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Electronic Supplementary Information available: experimental section, review and analysis of oleic acid reaction pathways, Fig. S1 – S15, Table S1 – S4, Eq. S1 – S3 and additional references. See DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x



63 continuous operation over non-acidic (Ni)CoMo catalysts, 116 The reaction pathways were determined by combining product
64 mixtures of mono-substituted oxygenated aromatics with 117 distributions (over different conversions) with stoichiometric
65 short-chain carboxylic acids and aldehydes exhibited shifts in 118 analysis based on molar flowrates (vide ESI, Section 2.2) and
66 conversion (with different magnitudes) to higher temperatures 119 ultimately validated against individual pathways reported in
67 due to competitive adsorption, with carboxylic acids exerting 120 literature (vide ESI, Section 2.1). Therefore, all the reaction
68 the strongest impact on the conversion of other compounds 121 pathways were determined based on experimental data. The
69 [19]. Similarly, studies on lauric acid/anisole and indole- 122 active sites primarily catalysing each reaction were exclusively
70 containing mixtures over acidic and non-acidic nickel-based 123 literature-based and will not be presented here (vide ESI, Table
71 catalysts (e.g., NiMo) demonstrated the suppression of C-O 124 S3). Although not the focus of this study, primary reaction
72 cleavage of anisole until the consumption of other reactants. 125 mechanisms, when available, are also disclosed in ESI Section
73 This led to reduced deoxygenated HC yields in the presence of 126 2.1, based on literature.
74 carboxylic acids or nitrogen-containing compounds [11,24]. 127 The proposed reaction network for oleic acid
75 Furthermore, in lauric acid/indole mixtures, there was an 128 hydroprocessing over a bifunctional catalyst is presented in Fig.
76 increase in the production of condensation products [11]. 129 1. It is described following the progression of the cascade
77 Additionally, multiscale and microkinetic modelling approaches 130 reactions through key oxygenated intermediates and ultimately
78 have been applied to analyse reaction mechanisms and 131 culminating in deoxygenated HC. Note that according to the
79 transport phenomena in hydroprocessing systems for different 132 evidence collected over various experiments (vide ESI, Fig. S11),
80 compound families [25,26]. Collectively, these studies 133 catalyst deactivation over time does not majorly affect the
81 demonstrate that co-feeding chemically distinct compounds 134 reaction pathways discussed hereafter, as it mainly leads to the
82 can modify conversion behaviour and induce competition or 135 suppression of hydrogenolysis and HCK (further discussion in
83 inhibitory effects between feedstocks. However, products are 136 ESI Section 2.3).
84 often analysed as bulk HC lumps, hindering a comprehensive 137 Initial hydrogenation of unsaturated fatty acids was
85 analysis of the underlying reaction pathways. Consequently, an 138 identified as a major (vide ESI, Fig. S8) and relatively fast step
86 understanding of how mixture effects influence deoxygenation 139 [7,27,28]. This is consistent with energetic considerations, since
87 routes under continuous operation remains limited. 140 the activation barrier for C=C hydrogenation (614 kJ/mol) is
88 The objective of this work is therefore to evaluate potential 141 lower than the C=O bond cleavage (799 kJ/mol) [14]. Linoleic
89 mixture effects arising from the simultaneous hydroprocessing 142 acid was first hydrogenated to oleic acid and subsequently to
90 of chemically distinct model compounds, supported by an 143 stearic acid (Reactions 1 – 2 in Fig. 1), considering its relative
91 experimental understanding of individual reaction pathways 144 abundance decreased from 22 wt. %^{SS} to 0.3 % wt. % upon
92 under industrially relevant (i.e., continuous, high conversion) 145 conversion increase (vide ESI, Fig. S8). The formation of stearic
93 operation. First, the conversion-controlled reaction pathways 146 acid (< 25 wt. %) establishes a central saturated fatty acid from
94 for oleic acid are established over a long-term experiment (Time 147 which subsequent oxygenated species can be generated. At
95 On Stream (TOS) > 72 h, as defined in Electronic Supplementary 148 lower conversions (< 90 wt. %), these include octadecanol,
96 Information (ESI) Section 1.3) under fixed operating conditions 149 stearyl stearate and dioctadecyl ether (vide ESI, Fig. S7), which
97 (T = 360 °C, P = 40 bar, H₂/oleic acid = 1000 NmL/mL, Weight 150 can possibly be further converted.
98 Hourly Space Velocity (WHSV) = 9.4 h⁻¹) and catalyst formulation 151 Low ester amounts (< 8 wt. %) were detected
99 (reference bifunctional 20Ni/HZSM-5 catalyst). This then serves 152 experimentally (vide ESI, Fig. S8). Thus, esterification between
100 as a basis for investigating mixture effects in simultaneous 153 stearic acid and octadecanol (Reaction 3 in Fig. 1) [25,27,29]
101 hydroprocessing with guaiacol, via the impact of the 154 represents a minor route, bridging key fatty-acid and alcohol
102 oxygenated aromatic on fatty acid conversion and organic 155 intermediates within the reaction network. Nevertheless, esters
103 product distribution under continuous operation. 156 are reported in the literature to be reactive under
157 hydroprocessing conditions and may undergo further
158 transformations, such as dehydration to octadecene [8,27].
159 Etherification proceeded via dehydration of octadecanol
160 molecules (Reaction 4 in Fig. 1, right-hand side), forming low
161 dioctadecyl ether amounts (< 1 wt. %) and water [25,30]. Their
162 relative abundance decreased with increasing conversion (vide
163 ESI, Fig. S8), indicating that ether formation is a minor route
164 rather than a key intermediate step. Compared to esters, ethers
165 are less reactive, being thus less likely to undergo further
166 reactions.
167 Octadecanal and octadecanol (< 1 wt. %) can be produced
168 from stearic acid hydrogenation (Reactions 5 – 6 in Fig. 1) and
169 subsequently interconvert through
170 hydrogenation/dehydrogenation (Reaction 7 in Fig. 1)

104 Oleic acid single-feed

105 To establish a comprehensive pathway scheme of the cascade
106 reactions, (i) conversion was followed over an extended TOS to
107 capture key intermediates and products, and (ii) a bifunctional
108 catalyst was selected to explore the metal and acid functions.
109 Moreover, to ensure intrinsically reproducible results, the
110 catalyst was prepared by a simple mechanical mixture of two
111 commercially available materials (vide ESI Section 1.2). Details
112 on feedstocks, catalyst preparation and characterisation,
113 experimental setup, product analysis and data treatment are
114 provided in ESI Section 1.

115 Reaction pathways



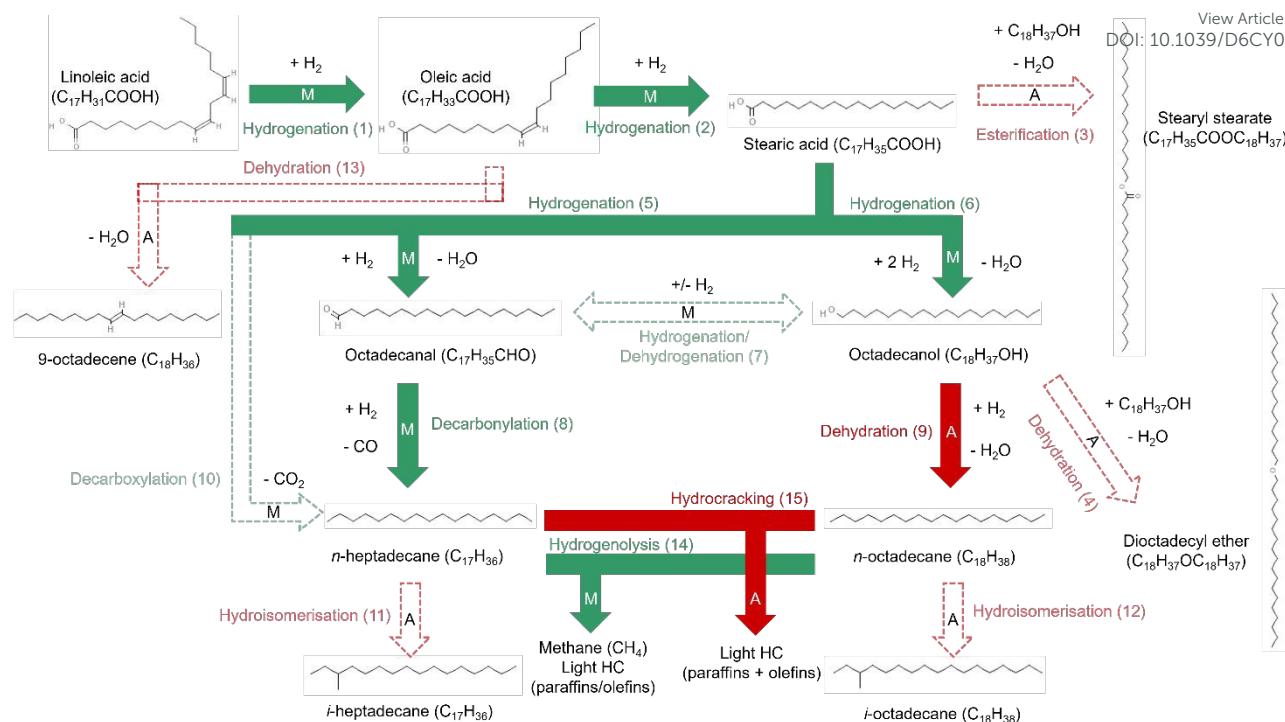


Fig. 1 Proposed reaction pathways for oleic acid hydroprocessing over 20Ni/HZSM-5. Green arrows represent reactions primarily catalysed by metal sites (M), while red arrows represent reactions primarily catalysed by acid sites (A). Solid arrows correspond to major pathways, whereas dashed, lighter coloured arrows correspond to minor pathways. Reaction pathways are experimentally determined, and active sites are exclusively literature-based (vide ESI, Table S3).

[7,8,25,29], forming a central reaction node from which two minor pathways, over a representative bifunctional catalyst. As major deoxygenation routes subsequently emerge. many of these reactions have been studied in detail separately Octadecanal can undergo DCO to yield the corresponding C_{17} HC (> 30 wt. %) (Reaction 8 in Fig. 1) [7,27,28], while octadecanol can be dehydrated to produce the corresponding C_{18} HC (> 10 wt. %) (Reaction 9 in Fig. 1) [7,28]. In addition to these pathways, stearic acid can be directly converted to heptadecane via DCO_x (Reaction 10 in Fig. 1) [7]. This route was identified as a minor based on gaseous product analysis, where CO_2 amounts never exceeded 5 wt. % of the gaseous products (vide ESI, Fig. S10), and is consistent with previous studies [31]. Both C_{17} and C_{18} HC can subsequently undergo HDI (Reactions 11 – 12 in Fig. 1) [7,27], though this reaction remained limited, given the low isomer to HC ratios (ca. 0.1, vide ESI, Fig. S12).

Interestingly, our results suggest possible direct dehydration of oleic acid to octadecene (Reaction 13 in Fig. 1) [27] without prior hydrogenation (vide ESI, Section 2.3). Hydrogenolysis and HCK (Reactions 14 – 15 in Fig. 1) represent additional important pathways [7,12,13,27,28]. In hydrogenolysis, either paraffins or olefins can be produced depending on H_2 availability, though under hydroprocessing conditions, olefins tend to hydrogenate back to paraffins [32]. Cracking products may also include paraffin-paraffin or paraffin-olefin pairs. These smaller fragments may further recombine [7], accounting for the formation of HC with carbon chains larger than C_{18} HC, at most 13 wt. % (not depicted in Fig. 1, vide ESI, Fig. S9).

Role of active sites on the reaction pathways
The network proposed here integrates these individual reactions into a unified cascade, capturing both major and

Under the studied conditions, the results point towards a reaction network governed by metal-catalysed pathways. The HC fraction consistently exhibited a predominance of C_{17} HC (> 30 wt. %) (vide ESI, Fig. S9), and CO/CO_2 were detected in the gas phase (vide ESI, Fig. S10), indicating that metal-catalysed DCO/ DCO_x prevailed over acid-catalysed HDO. This behaviour aligns with a previous single-feed batch study using analogous catalysts and feedstocks, where metal site-dominated systems favoured alkane formation [27]. Furthermore, other studies also reported that nickel-based catalysts and high temperatures (particularly 375 °C [14]) promote DCO/ DCO_x over HDO [12,28]. The selectivity towards metal-catalysed reactions, despite the presence of strong Brønsted acidity in ZSM-5, can be tentatively attributed to the high metal loading and limited accessibility of Brønsted acid sites, considering the larger kinetic diameter of oleic acid (8 Å [33]) relative to the ZSM-5 pore diameter (5.1 – 5.6 Å [34]).

Guaiacol co-feeding

To isolate the specific impact of guaiacol co-feeding without introducing additional variables, the same catalyst formulation and operating conditions as in the conversion-controlled oleic acid single-feed experiment were maintained (described



above). Particularly, the oleic acid partial pressure at the reactor inlet was preserved by replacing part of the excess H_2 with guaiacol, thereby avoiding spurious effects in the reaction rates. An 87/13 oleic acid/guaiacol mass ratio was selected to reflect industrially relevant SAF blending targets (6 % and 20 % by 2030 and 2035, respectively, according to *ReFuelEU* [1]) while ensuring sufficient product concentration for reliable quantification.

Feedstock conversion

Feedstock conversion profiles are presented in Fig. 2. In the presence of guaiacol, fatty acid conversion was consistently lower than in the single-feed experiment. This effect was accompanied by a more pronounced relative abundance of stearic acid (vide ESI, Fig. S14a), indicating a lower overall reaction progression under simultaneous hydroprocessing. Guaiacol itself exhibited lower conversions compared to the fatty acids, below 70 % over the 72 h period. Notably, both fatty acids and guaiacol conversions declined by approximately 40 % (from 91 % to 51 % and from 67 % to 39 %, respectively) during simultaneous hydroprocessing, which is roughly twice the decline observed for fatty acids under single-feed conditions (from 99 % to 83 %).

Concerning the initial fatty acid conversion (i.e., at TOS approaching zero), the evidence is limited to the first sampling point and includes a certain time lag. Still, it seems that in simultaneous hydroprocessing, fatty acid conversion is lower than in the single-feed. This suggests the possibility of competitive adsorption between oleic acid and guaiacol for active sites. Both oleic acid and guaiacol hydroprocessing pathways require metal and acid sites for efficient deoxygenation (vide *Reaction pathways* section). Although several of guaiacol's reactions are acid-catalysed, they also involve the metal function to promote deoxygenation [16,35,36]. This means that guaiacol's strong adsorption on the catalyst surface [21] could hinder fatty acid conversion. Although over simpler model compounds (anisole and heptanoic acid), a previous study has also shown that co-feeding carboxylic acids and aromatic compounds shifts

conversion due to competitive adsorption on active sites [19]. Concerning deactivation, Fig. 2 also shows two distinct deactivation profiles between the single-feed and simultaneous hydroprocessing. In the single-feed experiment, an S-shaped curve, with an initial induction period with limited impact, followed by a sharp increase in the slope of conversion variation over time, was observed, indicating a cumulative or sequential effect [37]. In contrast, during simultaneous hydroprocessing, the conversion immediately dropped from low TOS, with the slope progressively decreasing over time, in an exponential decay-like fashion. This accelerated and more severe deactivation observed in the presence of guaiacol points towards its potential role as a deactivation precursor. Polymerisation of unsaturated phenolic compounds, such as guaiacol, is considered one of the main causes for coke formation in hydroprocessing, through the production of condensed polyaromatic species [22,23,35,38]. Other continuous-flow studies using oxygenated aromatics and nickel-based catalysts also reported fast catalyst deactivation (within the first 5 h) [39]. On the other hand, fatty acids alone are not considered primary coke precursors and typically require the prior formation of by-products [38].

In summary, based on the feedstock conversion profiles, guaiacol co-feeding led to overall lower fatty acid conversion along with a faster and more severe catalyst deactivation, compared with the single-feed oleic acid experiment.

Organic product distribution

To further elucidate mixture effects in terms of preferred reaction pathways, the organic product distribution of oleic acid was evaluated at iso-conversion under high (ca. 90 %) and moderate (ca. 50 %) conversion levels, as depicted in Fig. 3 (a and b), respectively. Different conversion levels were achieved by following the evolution with TOS under otherwise identical conditions or by varying WHSV. To prevent any interference of guaiacol-derived products, the distribution focuses on C_8+ HC products. This also limits the influence of catalyst deactivation on the observed products (and pathways) as the key differences are chiefly C_7- HC (formed via hydrogenolysis and HCK, vide ESI, Section 2.3). High conversion conditions are discussed first, as they allow for a direct comparison of oleic acid-derived products without interference from mixed-origin condensation products, which are only observable at lower conversions.

Regarding the high conversion case in Fig. 3a, the overall product distributions observed under single-feed and simultaneous hydroprocessing conditions were remarkably similar (the minor variations were deemed rather negligible when accounting for experimental uncertainty). This demonstrates the robustness of oleic acid reaction pathways even in the presence of oxygenated aromatics. For the moderate conversion scenario in Fig. 3b, a similar overall fingerprint was observed, with apparent differences in the carboxylic acid fraction (represented by the striped bars). Under these conditions, mixed-origin products (namely phenolic esters and aliphatic ketones) were detected (vide ESI, Section 3), whereas they were absent at high conversion, making up for

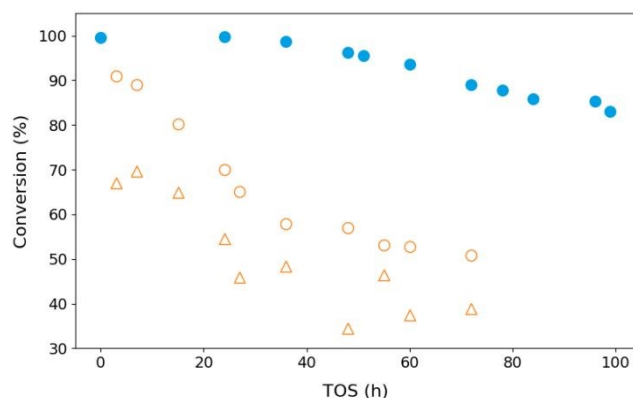


Fig. 2 Fatty acid and guaiacol conversion for single-feed (oleic acid) and simultaneous hydroprocessing (oleic acid/guaiacol mixture, 87/13 mass ratio) experiments over 20Ni/HZSM-5 ($P = 40$ bar, $T = 360$ °C, $H_2/\text{oleic acid} = 1000$ NML/mL, $WHSV = 9.4$ h⁻¹). Single-feed experiment: fatty acid conversion (●); simultaneous hydroprocessing: fatty acid conversion (○), guaiacol conversion (△). Fatty acid conversion includes contributions from linoleic acid, oleic acid and stearic acid.



the largest share of product distribution gaps, namely in the acids and C₁₇ HC fractions (represented by the dotted bars).

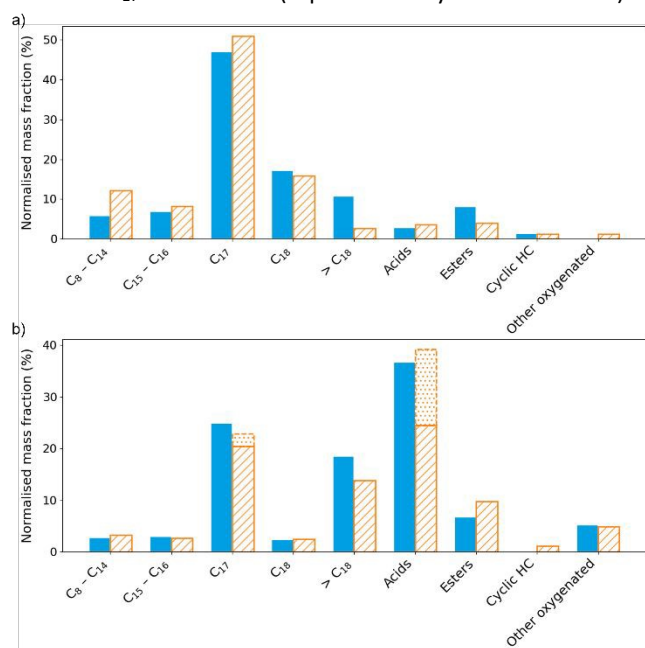


Fig. 3 Product distribution evolution in the organic phase for single-feed (oleic acid) and simultaneous hydroprocessing (oleic acid/guaiacol mixture, 87/13 mass ratio) experiments over 20Ni/HZSM-5 (excluding linoleic, oleic and stearic acids): a) high conversion (ca. 90 %); b) moderate conversion (ca. 50 %). Single-feed: oleic acid-derived products (■); simultaneous hydroprocessing: oleic acid-derived products (▨); estimated mixed-origin products, namely phenolic esters and aliphatic ketones (▤). Common operating conditions: P = 40 bar, T = 360 °C, H₂/oleic acid = 1000 NmL/mL. High conversion conditions: WHSV = 9.4 h⁻¹; single-feed at TOS = 60 h; simultaneous hydroprocessing at TOS = 3 h. Low conversion conditions: single-feed at WHSV = 19.0 h⁻¹ and TOS = ~ 14 h; simultaneous hydroprocessing at WHSV = 9.4 h⁻¹ and TOS = 72 h.

Overall, these results indicate that although catalyst deactivation strongly influences conversion levels, it does not significantly affect the lipid-derived product distribution (over the studied operating conditions). This is consistent with single-feed observations (vide ESI, Fig. S11) that deactivation primarily suppressed hydrogenolysis and HCK reactions, a classical effect in HC hydroprocessing [9,32]. Since the light HC fractions associated with these pathways are comparable in both experiments in Fig. 3 (a and b), the differences observed are governed by conversion levels rather than by catalyst deactivation.

Therefore, over this representative bifunctional catalyst and conversion levels, the primary mixture effect at the product level when co-feeding guaiacol is the formation of intermediate mixed-origin products, rather than a fundamental change in oleic acid reaction pathways.

Oleic acid co-feed reaction pathways

Taking the previous section's results into account, the proposed network can be further validated at moderate conversions. At such conversions, the product distribution was dominated by oxygenated intermediates, particularly stearic acid, which is a key intermediate in oleic acid hydroprocessing. As conversion increased, the cascade reactions (presented in Fig. 1) leading to

deoxygenated HC were favoured, resulting in higher HC yields and lower acid ones. This trend illustrates how the extension of the reaction network drives the system from oxygenated species towards fully deoxygenated products.

Despite these conversion-dependent changes, the HC fraction consistently exhibited a predominance of C₁₇ HC (vide ESI, Fig. S14a), indicating that metal-catalysed DCO/DCO_x were the major hydroprocessing pathways, rather than acid-catalysed HDO, as in the single-feed experiment (vide *Role of active sites on reaction pathways* section). Fig. 3 also depicts the formation of mixed-origin products at lower conversions, providing additional insights into chemical reactivity between oleic acid and guaiacol. To the best of our knowledge, the formation of these mixed-origin species has not been previously reported. To further explore these results, tentative reaction pathways were proposed (vide ESI, Fig. S15), inferred from the relative abundance of reactants, as well as the molecular structure of potential reactants and their textbook functional group reactivity. Phenolic esters, the main mixed-origin products (15 wt. %), are likely formed via esterification reactions, which require a carboxylic group and an alcohol function [40]. Guaiacol's hydroxyl group provides the alcohol function, while oleic acid supplies the carboxylic acid functional group. Aliphatic ketones (2 wt. %) may result from coupling reactions between ketones and olefins [41]. Cyclohexanone (formed during guaiacol hydroprocessing) reacts with unsaturated HC such as heptadecene (generated from oleic acid hydroprocessing), which offers reactive sites for C-C bond formation with the cyclohexanone structure.

Conclusions

Under the studied operating conditions in long-term hydroprocessing over a representative bifunctional catalyst (20Ni/HZSM-5), the cascade reactions were initiated by rapid hydrogenation to stearic acid, considering its relative abundance decreased as fatty acid conversion increased. This was followed by metal-catalysed decarbonylation to C₁₇ HC, the predominant product (> 30 wt. % of the organic fraction) and acid-catalysed dehydration to C₁₈ HC (> 10 wt. % of the organic fraction). During simultaneous hydroprocessing with guaiacol, despite accelerated catalyst deactivation, evidenced by a distinct conversion profile, the oleic acid-derived fingerprint (83 wt. %) was largely preserved over a wide conversion range (ca. 50 – 90 %), demonstrating the robustness of oleic acid reaction pathways even in the presence of oxygenated aromatics. Mixture effects were primarily reflected in the moderate formation of mixed-origin products (17 wt. % of the organic fraction), such as phenolic esters and aliphatic ketones at lower conversion levels (ca. 50 %), rather than changes in HC selectivity. In summary, oleic acid hydroprocessing resulted in efficient deoxygenation through a predominantly metal site-dominated reaction network. While the experimental data is limited to the catalyst selected and operating conditions covered, these allowed to assess simultaneously both metal and acid sites over a rather wide conversion range (ca. 50 – 99 %), increasing the generalisation potential of the reaction network



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Data availability

The raw and processed data for Fig. 2 – 3 are openly available in a FAIR format in *Zenodo* at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18313041>. Details of data postprocessing are provided in Section 1 of ESI. Additional processed data supporting this study are included in ESI.

