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A New Approach for Bio-Jet Fuel Generation from Palm Oil and Limonene in absence of Hydrogen

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The traditional methodology includes carbon-chain shortening strategy to produce bio-jet fuel from lipids via a two-stage process with hydrogen. Here, we propose a new solution using a carbon-chain filling strategy to convert C_{10} terpene and lipids to jet fuel ranged hydrocarbons with aromatic hydrocarbons ingredients in absence of hydrogen.

Biologically derived jet fuel can be a key solution to the challenges faced by the aviation industry.¹⁻³ The traditional technique to produce bio-jet fuel from the lipid sources uses a “carbon-chain shortening strategy” (CSS) to reduce lipid carbon chain (ranging from C_{14} to C_{18}) to resemble that of kerosene (ranging from C_9 to C_{18}). This technique involves a two-step process. In the first step hydrodeoxygenation removes the oxygen atoms in the carbonyl groups to produce long-chain alkanes,⁴⁻¹⁰ whereas the second step involves isomerization and non-selective C-C bond cracking steps to generate the range of paraffins which are suitable for jet fuel (C_9 - C_{16} hydrocarbons) (Fig. 1a).¹¹⁻¹⁵

The main problems faced by the CSS approach includes the consumption of large amounts of high pressurized H_2 during the two-stage process, substantial carbon loss in the cracking reaction, the need for the addition of extra aromatic hydrocarbons to the bio-jet fuel (around 25 vol%), and the necessity for running the two-stage process.¹⁶ The consequences are therefore a low yield of kerosene ingredient (maximum yield: 50 wt%) and the high price of bio-jet fuel.¹⁷ To overcome these disadvantages, we propose a novel solution which we refer to as “carbon-chain filling strategy” (CFS). The novelty of our approach relies on the new one-pot process based on co-activating lipid and monoterpene in the absence of external H_2 to produce bio-jet fuel ranged hydrocarbons with some fraction of aromatic hydrocarbons

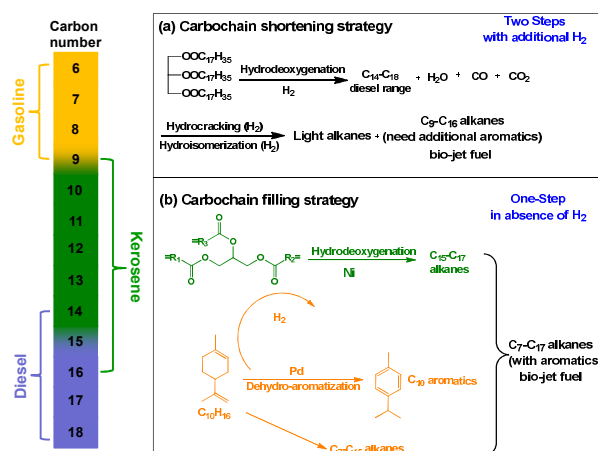


Figure 1. (a) Traditional carbon chain shortening strategy (CSS) for hydrodeoxygenation of triglyceride to bio-jet fuel via two steps in presence of H_2 . (b) Proposed new carbon chain filling strategy (CFS) for hydrodeoxygenation of triglyceride to bio-jet fuel in a one-step process in the absence of H_2 .

compositions.

A C_{10} terpene was selected to co-activate lipid conversion in absence of external H_2 , because the terpene releases both aromatic hydrocarbons and H_2 ,¹⁸⁻¹⁹ and produces some smaller C_9 - C_{15} alkanes. The formed aromatics and light alkanes can fill the gap for constructing a C_9 - C_{16} kerosene-like jet fuel. The in-situ generated H_2 can be consumed by lipid to produce C_{14} - C_{18} alkanes via the hydrodeoxygenation route in a one-pot process. The exothermic hydrogenation and endothermic dehydrogenation steps are integrated into one process in order to maximize energy utilization (see Fig. 1b).

Limonene was used as a selected terpene for the dehydrogenation reaction carried out at relatively low temperatures of 200-300 °C, which was the similar range for lipid hydrodeoxygenation in the liquid phase.²⁰⁻²² However, this system is not free from challenges which include insufficient pressure of the generated hydrogen to hydrogenate the lipid, and incompatibility of the designed dual

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active sites for dehydrogenation and hydrogenation. In addition, the side reactions of limonene condensation may prevent the target dehydrogenation step on limonene.

In the blank test with limonene in presence of N_2 , limonene was very stable with a conversion lower than 4% at 280 °C. Subsequently, we selected a variety of Pd-based catalysts including Pd/C (activated carbon), Pd/ASA (amorphous silica alumina), Pd/SiO₂, Pd/Al₂O₃, Pd/Zeolite HBEA, Pd/Zeolite HY (SiO₂/Al₂O₃ ratio: 9-12), Pd/Zeolite HY (SiO₂/Al₂O₃ ratio: 30-60) and Pd/Zeolite HZSM-5 (SiO₂/Al₂O₃ ratio: 197) to catalyze limonene dehydroaromatization at 280 °C in the presence of N_2 (Fig. 2a, Electronic Supplementary Information Table S1). The results showed that Pd center seemed responsible for achieving a *p*-cymene yield of 60-80 wt.%, with dehydroaromatization rates of 616-634 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹. Consistent with the kinetic curves of limonene conversion (Fig. S1), it was observed that limonene isomerization started as the first step, and the subsequent dehydrogenation reaction produced *p*-cymene and H₂. The in-situ release of H₂ from limonene over Pd/HZSM-5 achieved 18 bar pressure during the reaction with a dehydrogenation rate of 634 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹. As the higher pressure would be more favorable for hydrogenation of the feedstock of stearic acid or other lipids, and thus, Pd/HZSM-5 was selected as the catalyst for further investigation.

The single Pd/HZSM-5 catalyst showed a poor performance towards stearic acid hydrodeoxygenation in limonene with a conversion rate of 14% at 280 °C with N_2 , so the second metal was incorporated in order to improve the desired activity. The addition of Co, Cu, Fe, Zn, and Rh aided with the second Pd center by the co-impregnation method was shown to be inactive for stearic acid hydrodeoxygenation in limonene at identical conditions (Fig. 2b, Table S2). By adding the Ru site to Pd, the bimetallic RuPd/HZSM-5 catalyzed around 50% hydrocarbon yield (mainly C₁₇ and C₁₈) from stearic acid in limonene at 280 °C with N_2 . It was surprising that the addition of Ni sharply increased the C₁₇/C₁₈ hydrocarbons to nearly 100% from stearic acid conversion while maintaining a 70% *p*-cymene yield from limonene conversion, making a good use from simultaneous dehydrogenation of limonene over Pd, H-transfer from Pd to Ni, and hydrodeoxygenation of stearic acid over Ni in a one-pot process.

In terms of the kinetics of the chemical conversion process, Fig. 2c and Fig. 2d present the respective kinetics curves of the two feedstock. Limonene followed initial isomerization and partial hydrogenation pathway and finally underwent dehydroaromatization to produce *p*-cymene, reaching an initial dehydrogenation rate of 204 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹. On the other hand, firstly stearic acid was esterified with fatty alcohol (formed by hydrogenation of stearic acid) as a primary product with a rate of 5.3 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹, then was subjected to the sequential C-O bond cleavage and finally the decarbonylation of the ester led to final long-chain alkanes formation (Table S3, Fig. S2). The durability of PdNi/HZSM-5 catalyst was evaluated by stearic acid conversion in limonene at 280 °C in the presence of N_2 at 0.8 MPa for 2 h. The obtained activity (100% conversion after 2 h) and selectivity (100% after 2 h) were

consistent in the consecutive four recycling tests and demonstrated that the developed PdNi/HZSM-5 catalyst exhibited high stability in this catalytic system (Fig. S3).

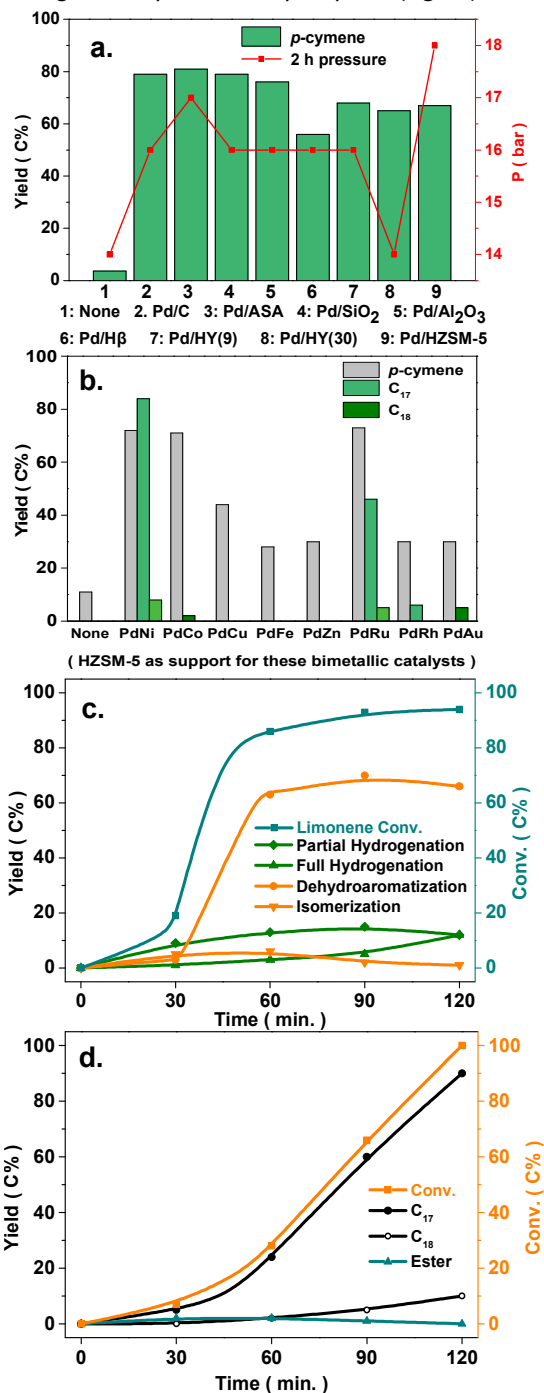


Figure 2. (a) Yields of dehydroaromatization of limonene with diverse supported 1% Pd catalysts. Conditions: 10 mL limonene, 80 mL *n*-dodecane, 2 h. (b) Product distributions for stearic acid hydrodeoxygenation in limonene with bimetallic Pd-M/HZSM-5 catalysts. Conditions: 1.0 g stearic acid, 50 mL limonene, 2 h. Product distributions for (c) limonene dehydroaromatization and (d) stearic acid hydrodeoxygenation in the overall reaction with PdNi/HZSM-5 as a function of time. Conditions: 1.0 g stearic acid, 50 mL limonene. General conditions: 0.20 g catalysts, 280 °C, 0.8 MPa N_2 , stirring at 650 rpm.

The major gas-phase component (Fig. 6b) was H₂ derived from limonene dehydrogenation. In addition, trace amounts of CO and CO₂ (formed in decarbonylation and decarboxylation reactions), CH₄ (generated by methanation of CO and CO₂ with H₂), C₃H₈ (released by C-C cracking of *p*-cymene), and other lighter alkanes (C₂H₆, C₂H₄, *i*-, *n*- C₄H₁₀, and *i*-, *n*- C₅H₁₂) were also detected (Table S6).

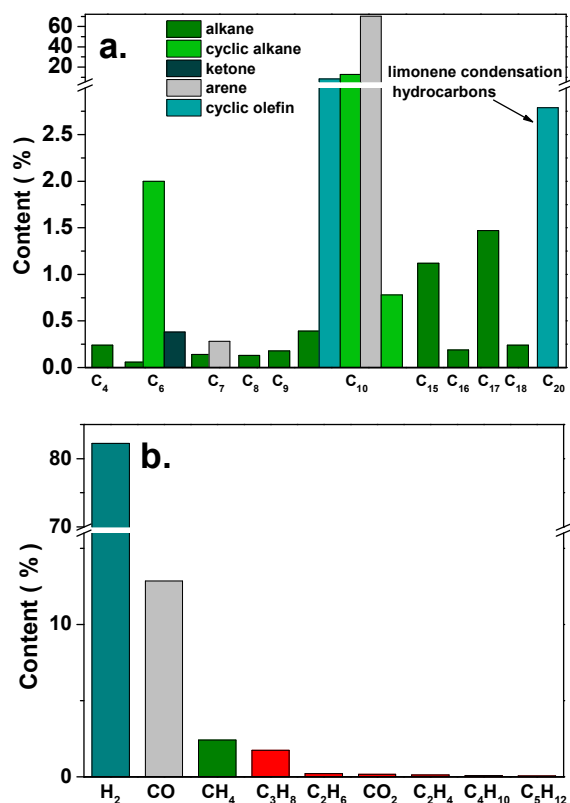


Figure 6. (a) Liquid phase and (b) gas phase products for co-reaction of palm oil and limonene in the absence of H₂.

In co-activation of palm oil and limonene over PdNi/HZSM-5 in the absence of H₂, the hydrocarbon products (C₁₅, C₁₆, C₁₇ and C₁₈) linearly increased from palm oil conversion as a function of time reaching a rate of 2.35 g_{oil}·g⁻¹·h⁻¹. At the same time, the H₂ donor - limonene underwent sequential isomerization and dehydrogenation to produce H₂ and *p*-cymene at a rate of 492 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ (Figs. S9a and S9b). The in-situ H₂ was a direct reactant for palm oil hydrodeoxygenation which also promoted the equilibrium shift for the hydrogenation-dehydrogenation reaction of limonene.

In summary, we demonstrate a novel approach for the conversion of palm oil and limonene to bio-jet fuel ranged hydrocarbons without the need of hydrogen. Using a PdNi/HZSM-5 zeolite catalyst, a monoterpene can release aromatic hydrocarbons and hydrogen and smaller C₉-C₁₅ alkanes at 280 °C. The in-situ generated hydrogen from terpene dehydroaromatization enables the hydrodeoxygenation of lipid to C₁₄-C₁₈ alkanes. We show that lighter alkanes and aromatic hydrocarbons are produced from limonene simultaneously with C₁₄-C₁₈ hydrocarbons generated

from lipids, filling the gap for essential ingredients for a perfect composition of bio-jet fuel.

The cascade reactions for palm oil and limonene co-activation at moderate temperature under the inert N₂ atmosphere lead to high yields of bio-jet fuel in a simple, efficient, and green way. By directly boiling the two biomass feedstock it is possible to solve the high-demand issues for H₂, aromatics and light alkanes for production of the bio-jet fuel in a highly integrated one-pot process. Future studies would focus on a more detailed characterization of the properties of resultant bio-jet fuel and experiments to optimize the process at an industrial scale.

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