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41 Introduction

42
43 Biodiesel, commonly referred as short chain alkyl (methyl or ethyl) esters obtained by the
44 transesterification of triglycerides (main constituent of oil/fats) with methanol.¹ It is
45 renewable, biodegradable and alternative fuel for diesel engine.^{2,3} Compared to conventional
46 diesel, biodiesel is technically more competitive because of its low emission profiles, high
47 flash point, excellent lubricity and superior cetane number.^{4, 5} Transesterification reaction is
48 generally catalyzed by alkali⁶, acid⁷ and enzymes⁸. It can be carried out under non-catalytic
49 conditions in supercritical methanol using 675 K temperature, 65MPa pressures and 42:1
50 alcohol to oil molar ratio, limiting its application to industrial scale.^{9,10} Applicability of
51 enzymes is economically limited because of high price of the enzymes, very large reaction
52 volumes and slow reaction rates. Usually, production at industrial scale is carried out with the
53 use of homogeneous alkali catalysts (KOH, NaOC₂H₅) when free fatty acids (FFAs) content
54 and moisture content in feedstock are < 0.5 and 0.1 wt.% respectively and homogeneous
55 acidic catalysts viz., H₂SO₄, HCl etc. with higher FFAs/moisture content. However, acidic
56 catalysts involve longer reaction times and higher molar ratio of methanol than stoichiometric
57 amount. Furthermore, the acid catalysts are more corrosive than basic ones, limiting their
58 application in industries. Though still challenging, heterogeneous basic catalysts can provide
59 solution for most of the problems associated with homogeneous catalysis¹¹⁻¹⁴. Various types
60 of heterogeneous basic catalysts for the transesterification of vegetable oils/animal fat are (a)
61 alkaline earth metal oxides, (b) active metal supported metal oxides, (c) hydrotalcites and
62 mixed oxides, and (d) mesoporous based catalysts. Among alkaline earth metal oxides,
63 calcium oxide has been extensively used for transesterification reactions as it is non toxic and
64 cost effective, and possesses relatively high basic strength¹⁵⁻¹⁷. Further, its catalytic activity
65 can be improved by wet-impregnation of active metals salts viz., Li, K and Na¹⁸⁻²⁰. But these
66 catalysts suffer the problem of reusability. Recent interest showed the use of waste mollusk

67 shells and eggs shells as catalysts for biodiesel preparation. These calcite shells upon heating
68 at higher temperature are converted to CaO^{21} . Hydrotalcites (HTs) or Layered Double
69 Hydroxides (LDHs) are anionic and basic clays found in nature with the general formula
70 $[\text{M}_{(1-x)}^{2+}\text{M}_x^{3+}(\text{OH})_2]^{x+} (\text{A}^{n-})_{x/n} \cdot y\text{H}_2\text{O}$ where M^{2+} and M^{3+} are divalent and trivalent cations and
71 A^{n-} is the interlayer anion. Pioneering work on HTs as catalysts for the synthesis of biodiesel
72 have been provided by Helwani et al.²² Since then a variety HTs have been used as catalysts
73 as well as supports for exogenous catalytic species. These catalysts without any modification
74 require comparatively higher reaction temperatures. They can be converted into
75 corresponding mixed metal oxides upon calcination. Mixed oxides i.e. the oxides containing
76 two or more different kinds of metal cations, represent an interesting class of heterogeneous
77 catalysts and catalyst supports for alkali, rare earth and noble metals²³. First commercial
78 heterogeneous catalyst based on mixed oxides for biodiesel production was developed by
79 French Institute of Petroleum (IFP)²⁴. The IFP patent is a mixed oxide of spinel (AB_2O_4) type
80 having composition of ZnAl_2O_4 , $x\text{ZnO}$, $y\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (with range of x and y being 0–2)²⁵. Another
81 subsequent IFP patent reported the sensitivity of the catalyst to water that could be used with
82 less than 1000 ppm of water content, implying the use of refined feedstock with the
83 catalyst²⁶.

84 One of the major hurdles faced by biodiesel industries is the use of edible oil as a raw
85 material, which is not recommended as it leads to global food problem, deforestation and
86 ecological imbalance while changing the virgin forests and arable lands to large scale biofuel
87 production. Transesterification of soybean bean oil²⁷ and rapeseed oil²⁸ has been carried out
88 with commercially available sodium silicate as heterogeneous catalyst after a series of
89 treatments that is dehydration, calcination, trituration followed by passing through 120 / 200
90 mesh sieves. Wang et al.²⁹ also demonstrated conversion of soyabean oil into biodiesel in 2 h
91 at 65 °C by the use of lithium silicate prepared by solid state reaction of SiO_2 and LiNO_3 .

92 On the other hand, the potential of non-edible oils has been explored less in
93 comparison to edible oils which may be due to the lack of efficient catalytic systems³⁰. There
94 are several non-edible oil seed species such as karanja (*Pongamia pinnata*), jatropha
95 (*Jatropha curcas*), neem (*Azadirachta indica*), mahua (*Madhuca indica*), simarouba
96 (*Simarouba indica*) etc., which can be utilized as a source for the production of oil. Among
97 these, karanja is grown in certain parts of India and Australia. Its seed kernels contain 27-39
98 % of oil and its annual production of oil in India is 200 million tonnes, of which only 6% is
99 being used in the soap and leather tanning industries³¹. *Jatropha curcas* is also equally potent
100 feedstock for biodiesel production having 27-40 % oil content in the seeds³². Fuel properties
101 of biodiesel obtained from both jatropha and karanja oil are quite comparable to those of
102 ASTM biodiesel standards³³.

103 The production of biodiesel from Karnaja oil at industrial scale has been proposed by
104 Vivek et al.³⁴ involving the neutralization of FFAs content of oil prior to transesterification.
105 Meher et al.³⁵ also reported neutralization of karanja oil with appropriate amount of
106 potassium hydroxide followed by filtration before transesterification. Patil et al.³³ reported
107 the preparation of biodiesel from jatropha and karanja oil via two steps viz., esterification of
108 FFAs followed by alkali catalyzed transesterification using KOH. Literature survey reveals
109 that the preparation of biodiesel from low grade feed stocks (non-edible oils or animal
110 greases) require complicated procedures of pre-treatment/neutralization by acids/alkalis,
111 filtration of resulting salt, washing and drying after acid catalyzed esterification and alkali
112 catalysed transesterification. We are reporting the preparation of biodiesel in a single step
113 from the non-edible oils (jatropha and karanja) using newly developed potassium
114 impregnated silicon dioxide catalyst.

115 **1. Experimental section**

116 1.1. Materials and Methods

117 Tetraethylorthosilicate (TEOS) and Pluronic P123 of 99.9% purity were purchased from
118 Sigma Aldrich. Ethanol, methanol, potassium hydroxide, hexane, ethyl acetate, Hammett
119 indicators viz., neutral red, bromothymol blue, phenolphthalein, 2,4-dinitroaniline, and 4-
120 nitroaniline of GR grade were obtained from Loba Chemicals Pvt. Ltd and used as such
121 without further purification. Jatropha and karanja oil was purchased from Medors Biotech
122 Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi (India). Their FFAs content was determined by reported method³⁶ and
123 was found to be 22.4 and 11.2 mg KOH/g for karanja and jatropha oil respectively. Moisture
124 content of both oils was determined by Karl Fisher method using AF7LC Orion Coulometric
125 autotitrator and was found to be in the range of 0.01-0.02 wt%.

126

127 1.2. Catalyst Preparation

128 Silicon dioxide impregnated with potassium having Si: K in 1:1, 1:2, 1:3, 1:4, 1:5 and 1:6
129 atomic ratio was prepared by sol-gel method and designated as Si: K-X (X being the atomic
130 ratio of Si to K). In a typical method of impregnation, calculated amount of KOH was
131 dissolved in a mixture of 40 ml of 1:1 mixture of ethanol and deionized water followed by the
132 addition of 10 g of Pluronic P123. After 2 h of stirring, 10 g of TEOS was added drop wise
133 and the mixture was stirred for another 2 h. Gel, so obtained was dried at 80°C for 48 h
134 followed by heating at 0.25°C/min upto 550°C and maintained the temperature for 6 h.

135

136 1.3. Catalyst Characterization

137 All the prepared catalysts were characterized by powder XRD, Transmission electron
138 microscopy (TEM), SEM-EDX (Scanning electron microscopy) and FT-IR. Basic site
139 strengths and soluble basicity of the prepared catalysts were determined by Hammett
140 indicators^{37,38} and acid-base titration¹⁴.

141 Powder XRD were carried on PANalytical X'pert using Ni-filtered Cu K α radiation in steps
142 of 0.0170° with a scan step time of 15.5 s in the 2 θ range of 10–80°. Identification of the
143 crystalline phases was made with the help of Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction
144 Standard (JCPDS) files. TEM were recorded on Hitachi (H-7500) 120 kW. SEM-EDX
145 measurements were taken on Jeol (JSM-7600F). FT-IR spectra were recorded in KBr matrix
146 using iS10, Thermo Scientific in the range of 500-4000 cm⁻¹. Basic site strength of the
147 catalyst was determined by observing change in colour of respective Hammett indicators
148 when 25 mg of the catalyst was shaken with 5 ml of 0.02 M methanolic solution of each
149 Hammett indicator.

150

151 1.4. Catalytic activity

152 All the prepared catalysts were tested for transesterification of karanja and jatropha oil with
153 methanol for optimizing the Si: K ratio for efficient catalytic activity. For the jatropha oil, 6
154 wt.% of catalyst and 1:60 oil to methanol molar ratio and for the karanja oil, 8 wt.% of
155 catalyst and 1:80 oil to methanol molar ratio was used along with stirring at 65°C. Progress of
156 the reaction was monitored on TLC using solvent system; hexane: ethyl acetate:: 24:1 v/v.
157 After the completion of reaction/stipulated time period, methyl esters were quantified by a
158 reported method³⁹ using ¹H NMR (400 MHz FT-NMR Cryo Spectrometer Bruker). Various
159 reaction parameters viz., catalyst amount, oil to methanol molar ratio and reaction
160 temperature were optimized by determining the “time period” for obtaining biodiesel i.e., >
161 96.5% methyl esters. Catalytic activity was also investigated in the presence of additional
162 0.5-1.5 wt.% of moisture. The turnover frequency (TOF) of the catalysts was calculated
163 using the following formula⁴⁰

$$164 \text{ TOF} = \frac{\text{mol}_{\text{FAME}}}{\text{B} \times \text{A} \times \text{T}}$$

165 where mol_{FAME} is the moles of FAME produced at time T, B is the basic sites (mmol/g) of
166 catalyst obtained by acid base titration and A is the amount of catalyst.

167 2. Results and discussion

168 2.1. Catalyst Characterization

169

170 2.1.1. Powder XRD

171 Powder XRD patterns of Si: K-X (X=1-6) are shown in Fig. 1. In Si: K-1, no sharp peak was
172 observed supporting the amorphous nature of silica. There is formation of coesite (a
173 polymorph of silicon dioxide having monoclinic crystal symmetry, JCPDF 73-1748)
174 supported by the appearance of peaks at 25.8° and 28.7° in all other prepared catalysts. In Si:
175 K-2, peaks at 29.8° , 30.3° , 34.3° , 37.0° and 43.8° support the formation of $\text{K}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5$ (JCPDS:
176 49-0163) as major phase. Other peaks at 31.6° , 32.1° , 34.21° and 43.4° also support the
177 presence of $\text{K}_6\text{Si}_3\text{O}_9$ (JCPDS: 84-0366). Similar diffraction patterns were observed for the
178 other catalysts (Si: K-X, X=3-6) supporting the formation of $\text{K}_6\text{Si}_3\text{O}_9$ (JCPDS: 84-0366) as
179 major phase and $\text{K}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5$ (JCPDS: 49-0163) as minor phase. Akbar et al.⁴¹ reported formation
180 of $\text{Na}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5$ as major phase along with minor phases of α , β , γ - $\text{Na}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5$ and Na_2SiO_3 in Na
181 doped SiO_2 prepared by similar (sol-gel) method using Na and Si in 50:50 atomic ratio.

182

183 2.1.2. Basic site strength and soluble basicity

184 Pure silicon dioxide is amphoteric⁴² in nature and its basic site strength was found in the
185 range of $6.8 < \text{H}_- < 7.2$. The basic site strength of all potassium impregnated silicon dioxide
186 catalysts (Si: K-X, X=1-6) were found to be in the range of $9.8 < \text{H}_- < 15.0$ and these
187 catalysts did not show any change in site strength upon storage in air even after 48 h. Wang et
188 al.²⁹ reported similar site strength for lithium silicates. Although, CaO demonstrated

189 comparatively high basic strength of $15 < H_- < 18.4$, but it showed reduction upon storage in
190 air²⁹.

191 Soluble basicity (total basic sites) of Si: K-X (X=1-6) was determined by acid-titration and
192 was found to be 6.4, 7.4, 8.2, 12.1, 15.6 and 19 mmol of HCl/g of the catalyst for X= 1, 2, 3,
193 4, 5, and 6 respectively. Increase in basicity was found to be a function of potassium
194 concentration in the catalyst.

195

196 2.1.3. TEM

197 The TEM images (Fig. 2) reveal almost spherical nano deposits of K species ranging from
198 0.7-5.2 nm that are uniformly dispersed throughout silica matrix. It is evident that with
199 increase in amount of potassium for X = 2, 4 and 6 in Si: K-X, there is appreciable change in
200 size of K nanospecies embedded in silica matrix with average particle size of 1.8, 2.2 and
201 3.5 nm, respectively (S.I.-Fig.1-3) along with increased concentration of number of K
202 species. The spherical silica nanoparticles in Si: K-2 and Si: K-6 were found to be in the
203 range of 14-41nm and 50-72 nm, respectively. Their average particle size increases from 26.8
204 nm to 66.8 nm (S.I.-Fig 4-5), hence surface area per-particle increases from 168.3 to 419.5
205 nm² with the increase in X from 2 to 6.

206 The impregnation of potassium has been further confirmed by SEM-EDX (S.I.-Fig. 6)
207 demonstrating the presence of 85.59 % (atomic percentage) of potassium and 14.41% (atomic
208 percentage) of silicon. These amounts correspond to the expected atomic ratio 1:6 of Si and K
209 respectively.

210

211 2.1.4. FT-IR

212 FT-IR spectra of Si: K-X (X=2-6) are shown in Fig. 3. Bands at 3200-3600 and 1653 cm⁻¹ are
213 due to stretching and bending vibration of silanol groups respectively and are in agreement to

214 those reported by Innocenzi et al.⁴³ due to its strongly bounded nature. Peaks at 1017 cm⁻¹
215 and 901 cm⁻¹ relate to the bending and stretching vibrations of Si-O respectively. Similar
216 spectrum for silica has been reported by Guo et al.²⁷ Band at 1403 cm⁻¹ can be assigned to C-
217 O vibration of carbonates.

218

219 **2.2. Catalytic activity**

220

221 2.2.1. Transesterification

222 A series of transesterification reactions were performed at 65°C using 8 wt.% and 6 wt.% of
223 Si: K-X (X=1-6) with 1:80 and 1:60 oil to methanol molar ratios for the karanja and jatropha
224 oil respectively and results are shown in Table 1. Among all the prepared catalysts, Si: K-6
225 catalyst has demonstrated best performance. The activity of the catalysts increases with the
226 increase in amount of potassium from X = 1 to 6. Increase in amount of potassium resulted
227 the generation of catalytic sites and increase in basicity of catalysts which could be attributed
228 to the formation of K₆Si₃O₉ as major phase. Catalytic sites which are possibly Lewis basic
229 sites (O²⁻) might have generated by interaction of potassium nanospecies with SiO₂. Turnover
230 frequency was calculated at 50 % conversion level for the catalysts resulting in yield > 96.5%
231 and is shown in Table 1. It increases with the increase in amount of potassium, suggesting
232 that the number of K nanoparticles impregnated in silica may be rate determining factor.
233 However, change in average particle size (1.8 to 3.5 nm) of potassium species for
234 transesterification may not be significant (TEM, Table 1), but more number of impregnated K
235 nanoparticles in silica matrix may led to observed enhanced catalytic activity to biodiesel.
236 Another decisive factor could be the per-particle surface area of the spherical silica matrix
237 which increases from 168.3 to 419.5 nm² with increase in amount of potassium for X= 2 to 6.

238 The higher reaction time for the karanja oil may be due to its higher FFAs content,
239 possibly due to blocking and neutralization of basic sites. This may happen due to strong
240 interactions of highly polar acetate ($-\text{COO}^-$) functional group of FFAs with K species on
241 surface of the catalyst resulting in the partial blocking of the active sites. The reaction
242 involving the use of KOH as homogeneous catalyst with oil having FFAs content > 0.5 wt.%
243 (e.g. karanja and jatropha oil) resulted in saponification instead of biodiesel formation.
244 However, with Si:K-6 catalyst, transesterification of jatropha and karanja oil having 5.6 and
245 11.3 wt.% of FFAs respectively, yielded $> 97\%$ conversion into fatty acid methyl esters.
246 Moreover, the homogeneous contribution of less than 5 % for Si: K-6 catalyst was observed by
247 refluxing the catalyst with optimized amount of methanol for 30 min followed by filtration
248 and using the methanol so obtained for transesterification of jatropha oil under optimized
249 reaction conditions, as per reported method⁴⁰.

250 2.2.1.1. Effect of catalyst amount

251 Transesterification reactions were carried out by using different amount of catalyst (Si: K-6)
252 with 1:60 and 1:80 oil to methanol molar ratios (with jatropha and karanja oil respectively) at
253 65°C and results are shown in Fig. 4. The time period for completion of reaction for jatropha
254 oil decreases from 1.75 to 0.3 h with increase in catalyst amount from 3 to 6 wt.%. Further
255 increase in amount (upto 7 wt.%) did not show any significant change in the reaction time.
256 Hence, 6 wt.% of catalyst was used for optimizing other reaction parameters. For the karanja
257 oil, 8 wt.% of catalyst showed the minimum reaction duration of 0.75 h and further
258 experiments were performed with this amount of the catalyst.

259

260 2.2.1.2. Effect of methanol to oil molar ratio

261 Transesterification reactions were performed by varying the methanol to oil molar ratios from
262 20:1 to 90:1 for karanja oil and from 20:1 to 70:1 for jatropha oil at 65°C till the completion

263 of reaction (Fig. 5). The jatropha oil showed decrease in time period for the completion of
264 reaction from 0.83 h to 0.3 h with increase in methanol: oil molar ratio from 20:1 to 60:1 and
265 further increase did not show any marked reduction in reaction time. The karanja oil showed
266 variation in the reaction time of completion from 1.5 h to 0.75 h with increase in molar ratio
267 from 20:1 to 80:1 for methanol to oil respectively. Further increase in molar ratio did not
268 show reduction in reaction time. Hence, 80: 1 and 60: 1 molar ratios of methanol to oil were
269 selected for karanja and jatropha oils respectively for optimizing other parameters.

270

271 2.2.1.3. Effect of Temperature

272 Transesterification of karanja and jatropha oil was not complete at temperatures lower than
273 50 and 45°C respectively. For jatropha oil, reaction time of completion decreases from 2.25 h
274 to 0.3 h with the increase in temperature from 45 to 65°C and for the karanja oil, time period
275 decreases from 5 h to 0.75 h with increase in temperature from 50 to 65°C (Fig. 6). At 65°C,
276 the minimum time period of 0.3 h and 0.75 h was observed with jatropha and karanja oils
277 respectively. The increase in temperature resulted in increased rate along with improvement
278 in the miscibility of polar alcoholic media with non-polar oily phase.

279 Hence, optimized reaction conditions for jatropha oil are: 1:60 oil to methanol molar ratio
280 with 6 wt.% of the catalyst at 65°C for 0.3 h of reaction time and for karanja oil: 1:80 oil to
281 methanol molar ratio with 8 wt.% of catalyst at 65°C for 0.75 h of the reaction time. With
282 soyabean oil, optimized reaction time of 2 h and 1 h is reported with lithium orthosilicate³¹
283 and calcined sodium silicate¹⁵ as catalysts. However, these catalysts are expected to take
284 lesser time with edible oils due to their low FFA content. The Na doped SiO₂⁴¹ having δ-
285 Na₂Si₂O₅ as major phase along with minor phases of α, β, γ- Na₂Si₂O₅ and Na₂SiO₃ required
286 0.75 h for 99% conversion of non-edible oil. Hence, variation in reaction time with different
287 catalysts could be due to different preparation conditions and resulting various crystalline

288 phases. The presence of mixed phases as in Na doped SiO₂ and in the present work favours
289 better catalytic activity. Shree et al.⁴⁴ also reported that a particular ratio of magnesia and
290 zirconia showed better activity for transesterification of jatropha oil due to the formation of
291 strong basic sites and smaller crystallite size of zirconia.

292

293 2.2.1.4. Effect of moisture on catalytic activity

294 The moisture resistance of the catalyst (Si: K-6) was studied for transesterification of jatropha
295 oil with methanol in the presence of additional water content of 0.5 -1.5 %. Biodiesel
296 (methyl esters >96%) was obtained even in the presence of 0.5 and 1 wt.% of moisture
297 content in 0.8 h and 1.2 h, respectively. Conversion of more than 96% was not obtained in the
298 presence of 1.5 wt.% of moisture during reaction time of 6 h. Hence Si: K-6 indicated the
299 tolerance of 1wt.% of moisture. Babu et al.⁴⁵ reported the catalytic activity of mixed oxides of
300 La and Mg for transesterification of sunflower oil containing 5 wt.% of FFA also showed
301 tolerance toward water content. It has been observed that when homogeneous KOH and
302 NaOH catalysts are used for the transesterification of triglycerides in the presence of moisture
303 > 0.06 wt.%, soap is produced instead of desired methyl esters, where as Si: K-6 catalyst
304 produced methyl esters even in the presence of 1 wt.% of moisture. Potassium species were
305 found to be in the impregnated/heterogeneised form in the Si: K-6 catalyst and these remain
306 insensitive to moisture content present in the reaction mixture.

307

308 2.2.1.5. Reusability

309 Reusability experiments were performed using Si: K-6 catalyst with jatropha oil under
310 optimized reaction conditions. The catalyst was separated from the product by filtration,
311 washed with methanol, dried and activated at 550°C before reuse for the next run. It showed
312 42% and 30% conversion during first two recycles respectively. In order to investigate the

313 loss in catalytic activity, EDX spectra of Si: K-6 catalyst after 2nd reuse (Fig. 7a) was
314 recorded which confirms the presence of silica and potassium in 3: 8 atomic ratio. Elemental
315 mapping studies (Fig. 7b) and STEM image (Fig. 8) of the same sample confirm uniform
316 dispersion of potassium nanospecies over silica nanoparticles. Powder XRD and soluble
317 basicity of Si: K-6 catalyst was also measured after both catalytic runs. Powder XRD
318 diffraction patterns of reused catalysts (S.I.-Fig. 7) showed diffraction patterns corresponding
319 to $K_6Si_3O_9$ (JCPDS: 84-0366) as major phase and $K_2Si_2O_5$ (JCPDS: 49-0163) as minor phase
320 as that observed in the fresh catalyst. Hence, catalysts structure did not showed any
321 significant change upon repeated use. Soluble basicity of the catalyst after 1st run decreases
322 from 19 to 7.3 mmol HCl/g and in subsequent two runs, it did not show marked variation
323 (that is 7.1 and 6.8 mmol HCl/g). The abrupt decrease in basicity after first run may be due to
324 neutralization and interaction of surface sites with free acids as described earlier. Later the
325 basicity did not show much variation and the conversion decreases from 42 % to 30 %.
326 However, the soluble basicity of Si: K-6 with cotton seed oil after first three recycles was
327 found to be 18.2, 17 and 15 mmol of HCl/g. Hence, FFA content seems to be responsible for
328 change in soluble basicity.

329 The reusability of Si: K-6 catalyst was also tested with cotton seed oil having 0.2 wt.% FFAs
330 content. The catalyst demonstrated 95%, 92.5% and 92% conversion during 1st three recycles
331 showing better reusability compared to that found with jatropha oil. Moreover, soluble
332 basicity of the catalyst after first three reuses with cotton seed oil was found to be 18.2, 17
333 and 15 mmol of HCl/g. Thus, catalyst reusability was negatively affected by the presence of
334 FFAs content in the triglyceride.

335 3. Conclusion

336 Nanospecies of potassium have been successfully impregnated over SiO_2 by sol-gel method.
337 These species generate basic sites over silica nanoparticles and resulted in solid basic

338 catalyst. Transesterification of jatropha and karanja oil with methanol using Si: K-6 catalyst
339 at 65°C, resulted in conversion of more than 97 % biodiesel in 0.3 h and 0.75 h respectively.
340 The Si: K-6 catalyst also showed the formation of biodiesel in presence of additional 1 wt.%
341 of the moisture with jatropha oil. The same catalyst also demonstrated remarkable reusability
342 with cotton seed oil.

343

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345

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348

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Table 1 Turnover frequency and time period for conversion (> 97%) of jatropha and karanja oil into biodiesel by using Si: K-X, (X = 1-6) catalysts.

Catalyst	TOF _{jatropha} ($\times 10^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$)	T _{jatropha}	TOF _{karanja} ($\times 10^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$)	T _{karanja}
Si: K-1	-	NC	-	NC
Si: K-2	6.08	1.25	-	NC
Si: K-3	6.87	1.0	-	NC
Si: K-4	7.06	0.66	1.08	3.75
Si: K-5	7.22	0.50	2.63	1.0
Si: K-6	9.88	0.30	2.90	0.75

TOF_{jatropha}, Turnover frequency for jatropha; TOF_{karanja}, Turnover frequency for karanja; T_{jatropha}, Time period (h) for conversion of jatropha oil into biodiesel; T_{karanja}, Time period (h) for the conversion of karanja oil into biodiesel; NC, Not Completed; *reaction conditions for jatropha oil: oil/methanol molar ratio, 1: 60; catalyst amount, 6 wt % of oil; and temperature, 65 °C; reaction conditions for karanja oil: oil/methanol molar ratio, 1: 80; catalyst amount, 8 wt % of oil; and temperature, 65 °C.*

Fig. 1 Powder XRD pattern of Si: K-X (X = 1-6) (*, $\text{K}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5$; O, $\text{K}_6\text{Si}_3\text{O}_9$; #, SiO_2).

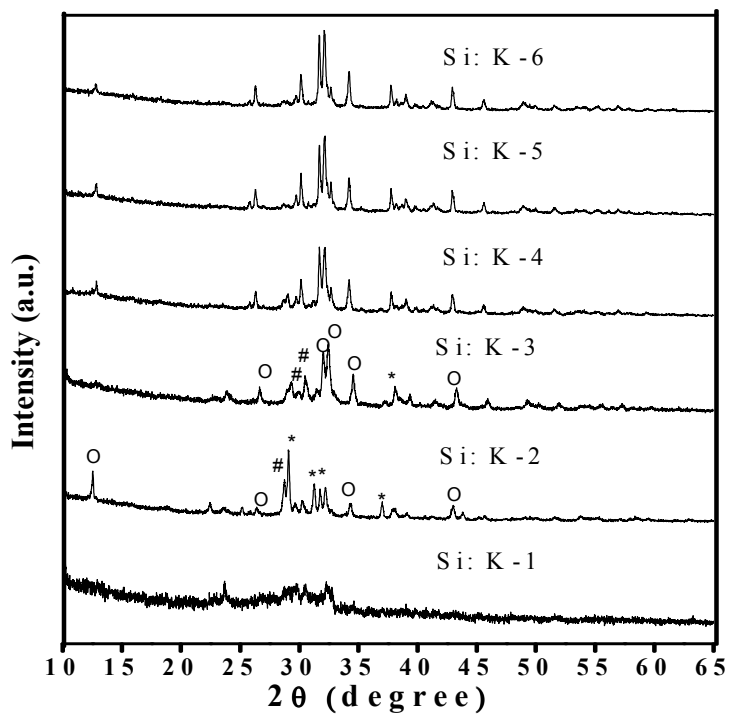


Fig. 2 TEM images of (a) Si: K-2 and (b, c) Si: K-6

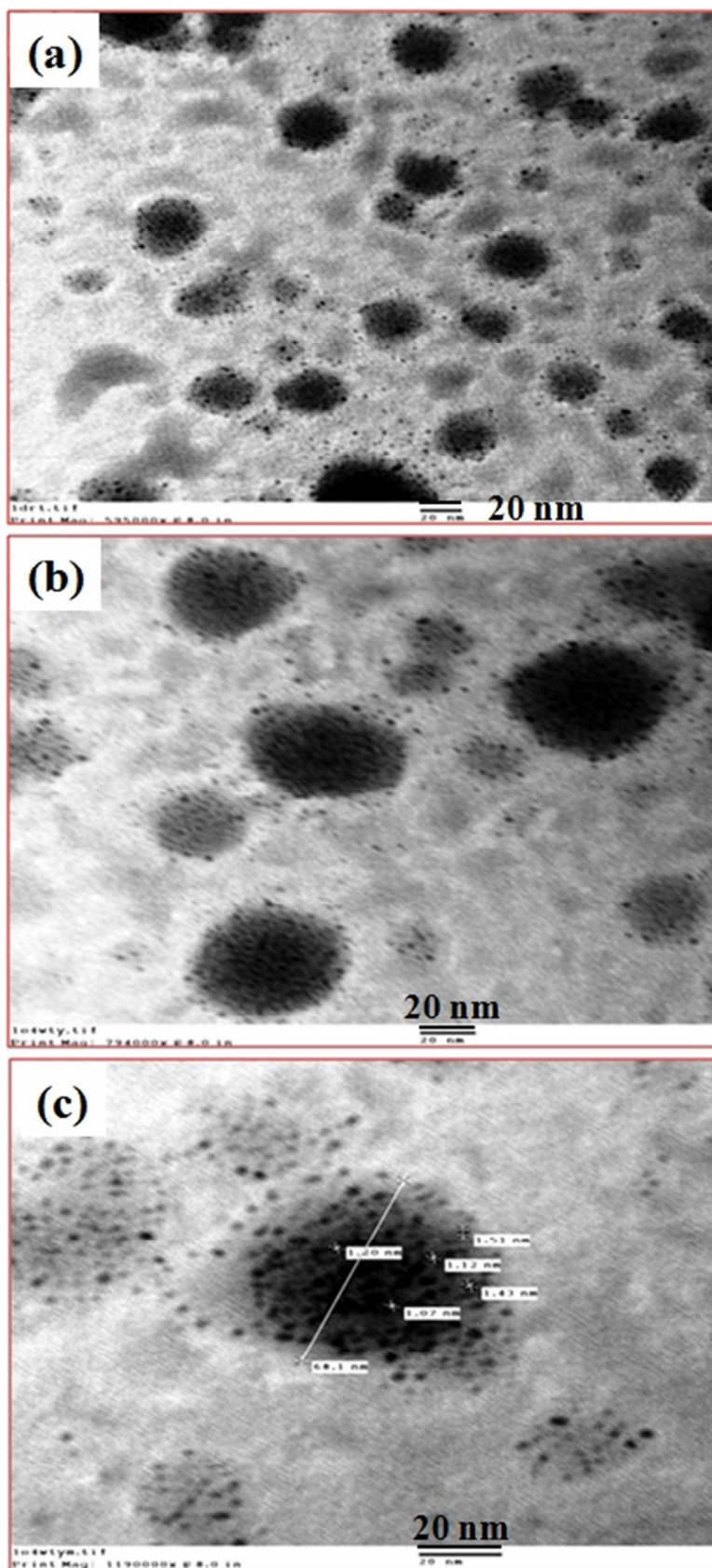


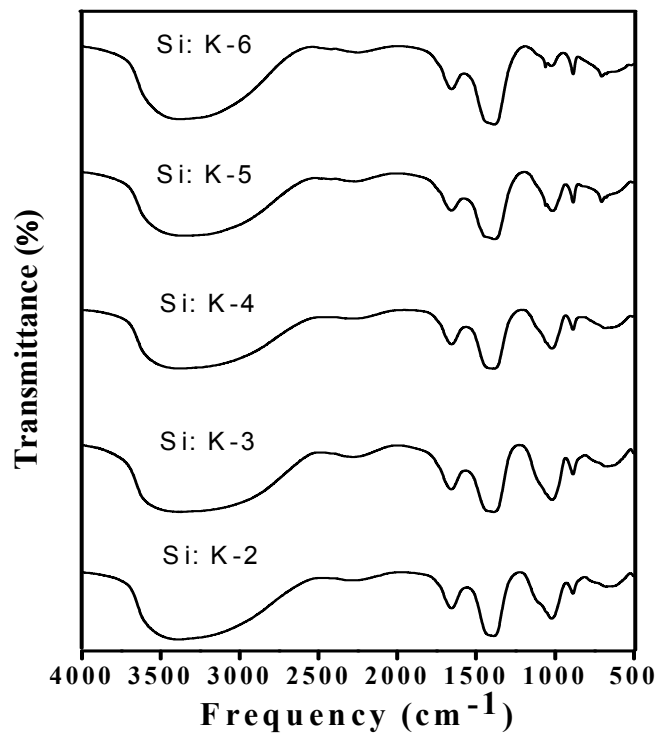
Fig. 3 FT-IR spectra of Si: K-X (X = 2-6).

Fig. 4 Effect of catalyst amount (reaction conditions for jatropha oil: oil/methanol molar ratio, 1: 60; and temperature, 65 °C; reaction conditions for karanja oil: oil/methanol molar ratio, 1: 80; and temperature, 65 °C).

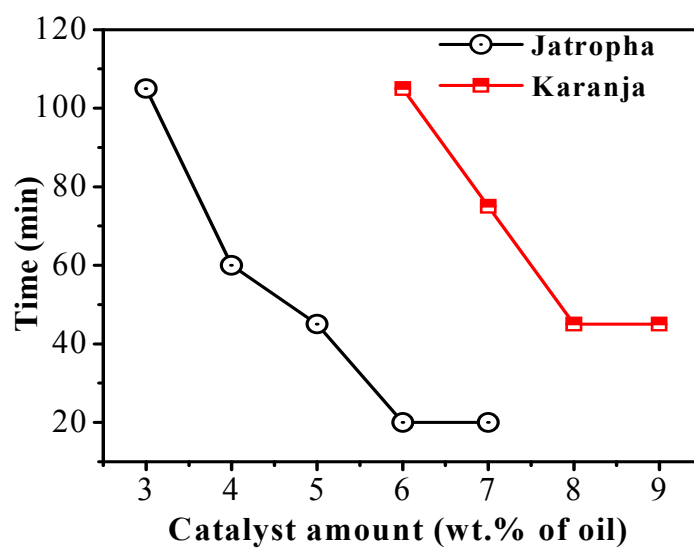


Fig. 5 Effect of methanol to oil molar ratio (*reaction conditions for jatropha oil: catalyst amount, 6 wt % of oil; and temperature, 65°C; reaction conditions for karanja oil: catalyst amount, 8 wt % of oil; and temperature, 65°C*).

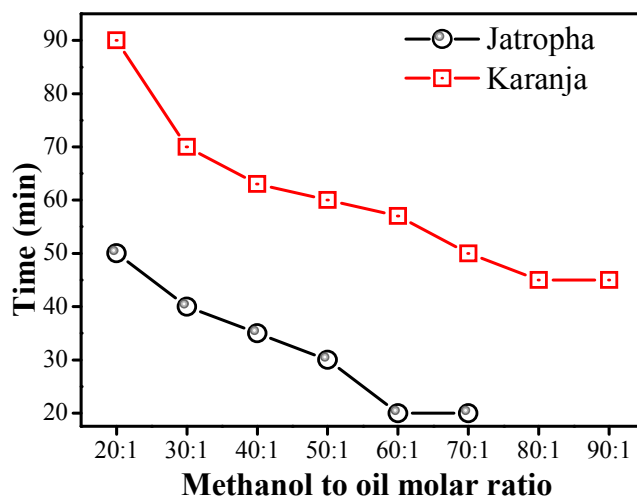


Fig. 6 Effect of Temperature (reaction conditions for jatropha oil: oil/methanol molar ratio, 1: 60; catalyst amount, 6 wt % of oil; reaction conditions for karanja oil: oil/methanol molar ratio, 1: 80; catalyst amount, 8 wt % of oil).

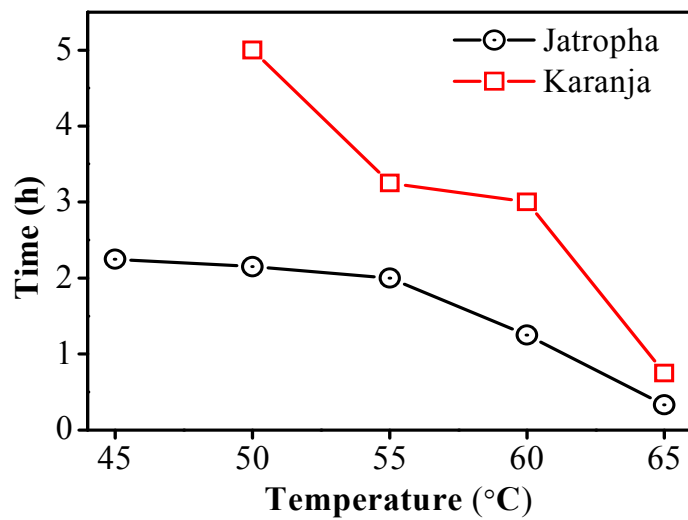


Fig.7. (a) EDX spectra, (b) STEM image and elemental mapping of Si: K-6 catalyst after 2nd reuse with jatropha oil.

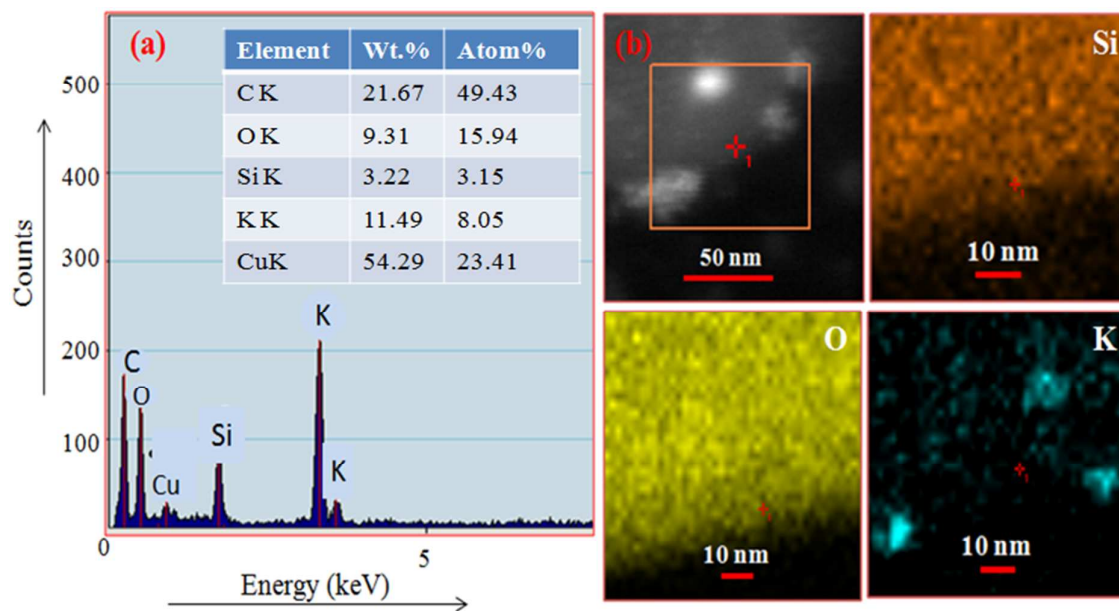


Fig.8. STEM image of Si: K-6 catalyst after 2nd reuse with jatropha oil.

