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1 **Ultrasonic assisted biodiesel production from waste cooking oil**
2 **over synthesis of novel sulfonic functionalized carbon spheres**
3 **derived from cyclodextrin via one-step: A way to produce**
4 **biodiesel at short reaction time**

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1 Abstract

2 In this study, a novel sulfonated carbon catalyst has been synthesized via one-step
3 hydrothermal carbonization of cyclodextrin, hydroxyethylsulfonic acid and citric acid. The
4 ultrasonic assisted biodiesel production from waste cooking oil in the existence of catalyst
5 was investigated. The novel catalyst was characterized by BET, XRD, PSD, SEM-EDS,
6 TGA, FT-IR, XPS and TPD. The catalyst exhibited a high acidity up to 1.87 mmol/g. 2^k
7 factorial and Box-Behnken designs were applied to find the optimum conditions obtaining a
8 maximum fatty acid methyl ester (FAME) yield. The result of the optimization implies that
9 catalyst loading of 11.5 wt.%, reaction time of 8.8 min and reaction temperature of 117 °C
10 provide a maximum FAME yield up to 90.8% in the ultrasonic assisted biodiesel production.
11 The reusability of catalyst was studied for 4 cycles under optimum conditions and the results
12 found that regenerated catalyst can be reused without any serious reduction of FAME yield.
13 Kinetic studies showed that the reaction followed the first order reaction with activation
14 energy of 11.64 kJ/mol.

15 **Keywords:** Ultrasonic assisted biodiesel production; cyclodextrin; 2^k factorial design; Box-
16 Behnken design; Kinetic.

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1. Introduction

The current declining reserves of fossil fuels have been concerned due to growing environment and technology. Recently, biofuels are considered to be one of further generation for alternative fuels because it can be generally found on the world, and also utilized easily.^{1,2} Biodiesel is a kind of renewable energy for diesel engines, which is required for the transportation. Advantages of biodiesel are biodegradable, non-toxic, eco-friendly fuel.³ There are potential feedstocks such as edible oils and non-edible oils.⁴ The conventional edible oils have been identified such as palm oil, soybean oil and sunflower oil. However, waste cooking oil and non-edibles oil such as Jatropha oil and rubber seed oil have more attracted due to no effecting to food consumption.⁵ For example, about 7 % of edible oil supplies were applied for biodiesel production in 2007, leading to state of food versus fuel issue. Therefore, this work has purposed to use the waste cooking oil as a raw material for biodiesel production which does not rely on the food supply as reported literatures.⁶⁻⁸ Unfortunately, due to waste cooking oil has amount of high free fatty acids, it was limited with a wide range of base catalysts. As well known that saponification can be occurred between FFA and alkali catalyst to form the soap and the water.⁹ To solve this problem, acid catalysts should be used. The conventional homogeneous acid catalysts are mostly used for biodiesel production such as HCl and H₂SO₄. However, the use of these catalysts causes many problems: (1) reactor corrosion, (2) large amount of waste water and (3) difficulty to reuse the catalysts, resulting in the increasing of overall cost for biodiesel production.^{10,11} Recently, Lee and Yoo,¹² reported that heterogeneous catalysis was the most important technology in chemical industry as well as other environmental, energy applications, etc. Heterogeneous acid catalysts are offered as an optimum solution because they can eliminate such as corrosion, toxicity and separation. They also can be reused. Recently, heterogeneous acid catalysts were reported such as sulfonated zirconia, aminophosphonic acid resin D418,

1 amberlyst-15, SO₃H-SBA-15 and heteropolyacid catalyst.¹³⁻¹⁷ Some catalysts limited due to
2 low catalytic activity, low stability and high cost. Acid activated carbon derived from sugar
3 and synthesized by sulfonation is regarded as a good catalytic performance for esterification.
4 It has soft aggregate of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons rather than carbon material which
5 directly obtained from lignocellulose.¹⁸ Usually, its sulfonic group can be easily leached from
6 structure when carried out at high temperature (>100 °C). For these reasons, glucose was
7 used as carbon precursor for preparation of acid carbon catalyst. It was investigated and
8 found that carbon material derived from glucose can form as a rigid structure composed of
9 small poly cyclic aromatic carbon (a 3D sp³-bonded structure) by hydrothermal
10 carbonization. The hydrothermal carbonization method showed many advantages such as
11 very cheap, mild, and absolutely “green” as it involves no catalyst, surfactant and organic
12 solvent. Cyclodextrin (CD) is a new carbon precursor and catalyst to catalyze in the
13 transesterification which has cyclic oligosaccharides structure of R-D-glucopyranose. It can
14 produces into aromatic carbon spheres via hydrothermal carbonization.¹⁹ The conventional
15 surface modifications of the carbon materials involve the treatment with acids or ozone,
16 thereby generating functionalities such as carboxylic acids, sulfuric acid and hydrochloric
17 acid. In general, the sulfonated carbon-glucose was synthesized via two-step. First step,
18 glucose was incompletely carbonized at high temperature for long time. Then sulfonation was
19 taken to introduce the sulfonic acid groups in the second step. However, this method is
20 required in harsh conditions for the inactive surface, gave the environmental unfriendly, the
21 low product yield and the high numerous harmful wastes. Here, the novel catalyst has been
22 synthesized via one-step hydrothermal carbonization of CD, hydroxyethylsulfonic acid and
23 citric acid. The sulfonic group can be directly connected to the surface of the carbon during
24 the carbonization process. Based on the structure of CD precursor, we are believed that it has
25 higher catalytic activity and stability than conventional carbon catalyst for transesterification.

1 Ultrasonic irradiation technique on transesterification has shown the increase of
2 reaction rate by order of magnitude due to a drastic increase in the interfacial area and
3 improved heat/mass transfer phenomena and thermal/specific of mixing.^{20,21} Ultrasound wave
4 generates cavitation bubbles as it passes through the liquid. Ji *et al.*,²² investigated the
5 influences of sonication, mechanical stirring and hydrodynamic cavitation on the biodiesel
6 production from soybean oil by KOH catalyst. They were found that ultrasonic method
7 provided shorter reaction time and higher biodiesel yield when compared with the
8 conventional mechanical stirring. Stavarache *et al.*,²³ also reported that ultrasonic method
9 gave better results such as lower reaction time, lower reaction temperature, lower catalyst
10 loading and higher FAME yield, resulting from the immiscible liquids and intensified
11 reaction. Moreover, Choedkiatsakul *et al.*,²⁴ studied the further improvement with
12 transesterification of palm oil by incorporation of mechanical stirring into the ultrasonic
13 reactor. Recently, many researchers have studied biodiesel production from edible-oils and
14 non-edible oils by using heterogeneous catalysts with sonication method.²⁵ Shahraki *et al.*,²⁶
15 reported that sono-synthesis of biodiesel from soybean oil achieved with catalysis by KF/ γ -
16 Al_2O_3 . Pukale *et al.*,²⁷ studied transesterification of waste cooking oil in the presence of
17 heterogeneous solid catalyst. The optimum conditions such as catalyst concentration of 3
18 wt.% K_3PO_4 and reaction time of 90 min gave a highest FAME yield up to 92.0%. Kumar *et*
19 *al.*,²⁸ reported that ultrasonic-assisted transesterification of *Jatropha curcus* oil using Na/SiO₂
20 catalyst was environmental, ecologically and economically friendly process. To date, very
21 few studies focused on the ultrasonic assisted biodiesel production from waste cooking oil,
22 especially with using heterogeneous catalyst.²⁹ No study has been reported on the biodiesel
23 production over sulfonated solid carbon derived from cyclodextrin (SO₃H-CD) with
24 ultrasonic system. The main objective of this work was to optimize of ultrasonic assisted
25 biodiesel production via a single-step process using SO₃H-CD catalyst. Experimental design

1 was investigated.³⁰ A 2^k factorial design was used to screen the significant factor. Response
2 surface methodology (RSM) was applied to find the levels of optimum conditions using a
3 Box-Behnken design. The $\text{SO}_3\text{H-CD}$ catalyst was characterized by BET, XRD, PSD, SEM-
4 EDX, TGA, FT-IR, XPS, NH_3 -TPD and titration. The catalyst reusability was studied.
5 Moreover, a kinetic model was investigated and the kinetic parameters were determined by
6 fitting the model with the experimental results.

7

8 **2. Experimental**

9 *2.1. Materials*

10 Waste cooking oil was obtained from local restaurants in Thailand. The properties of
11 waste cooking oil are shown in Table S1. Hydroxyethylsulfonic acid was obtained from
12 synthesis of mercaptoethanol and 5 vol.% H_2O_2 via oxidation reaction. Cyclodextrin ($\geq 98\%$
13 reagent grade), methanol (99.8% reagent grade), citric acid ($\geq 99.5\%$ reagent grade), sulfuric
14 acid (95-98% AR grade) and methyl heptadecanoate ($\geq 99\%$ reagent grade) were purchased
15 from Sigma-Aldrich.

16 *2.2. Catalyst preparation*

17 Firstly, 10 g of CD, 3 g of hydroxyethylsulfonic acid, 5 g of citric acid and 80 mL of DI
18 water were mixed and stirred at ambient temperature for 1 h. The mixture solution was added
19 in a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave and heated at $180\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 4 h. Then the black slurry
20 was filtered, washed with 1000 mL of DI water and dried at $105\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ to obtain sulfonated solid
21 carbon. The sulfonated solid carbon derived from CD was initialized as $\text{SO}_3\text{H-CD}$ catalyst.

22 *2.3. Characterization of catalyst*

1 The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area and the Barrett–Joyner–Hallenda
2 (BJH) pore size of catalyst were measured by N₂ adsorption and desorption at liquid nitrogen
3 temperature of -196 °C. The crystalline structure of catalyst was analyzed by powder X-ray
4 diffraction (XRD). The particle-size distribution (PSD) of catalyst was measured by a particle
5 size analyzer (Malvern/Mastersizer X). The morphology of catalyst was characterized by a
6 scanning electron microscope (SEM) equipped with energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS).
7 The thermal stability of catalyst was determined by thermo-gravimetric analysis (TGA). The
8 FT-IR spectra of sulfate group in the catalyst were analyzed using a Perkin Elmer Spectrum
9 100 FTIR spectrometer. The graphitization degree was accessed by X-ray photoelectron
10 spectroscopy (XPS). The acid density of catalyst was analyzed by NH₃-temperature
11 programmed desorption (NH₃-TPD) and titration.

12 *2.4. Experimental procedure*

13 The transesterification reaction was performed in a 250 mL three-neck round bottom
14 flask equipped with an ultrasonic probe , a condenser and thermocouple thermometer (Fig.
15 S1). In each experiment, a frequency of ultrasonic probe and a stirring speed were fixed at 25
16 kHz and 800 rpm, respectively. The effects of catalyst loading (5-15 wt.%), reaction time (2-
17 14 min), reaction temperature (50-150 °C) and molar ratio of methanol to oil (20:1-40:1) on
18 the FAME yield were investigated using statistical analysis design. After finishing the
19 transesterification reaction, the spent catalyst was separated from the mixture by
20 centrifugation. The filtrate was separated into two layers using a separation funnel. The upper
21 layer or FAME was performed under rotary evaporation to remove the remaining methanol
22 and water. Finally, the obtained FAME was filtered with sodium sulfate before gas
23 chromatography (GC) analysis. The FAME product was determined by GC (Agilent 7820A),
24 equipped with a flame ionization detector and a capillary column (DB-WAX, 30 m × 0.25

1 mm × 0.25 μm), following the standard method of EN 14103 with the use of methyl
2 heptadecanoate (C17:0) as an internal standard.

3 The percentage of FAME yield was calculated by following Eq. (1):

$$\text{FAME yield (\%)} = \frac{(\sum A) - A_{\text{EI}}}{A_{\text{EI}}} \times \frac{C_{\text{EI}} \times V_{\text{EI}}}{W_{\text{S}}} \times \frac{W_{\text{P}}}{W_{\text{O}}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

4 where $\sum A$ is the total peak area of FAME product, A_{EI} is the peak area of C17:0, C_{EI} is the
5 concentration of C17:0 (mg/mL), V_{EI} is the amount of C17:0 (mL), W_{S} is the weight of
6 sample (mg), W_{P} is the weight of produced FAME (mg) and W_{O} is the weight of used oil.

7 2.5. Catalyst reusability

8 After finishing the reaction, the spent catalyst was washed with acetone to remove
9 glycerin and any undesired materials attached on the surface. The spent catalyst was
10 regenerated by soaking with conc. H_2SO_4 . To study the long-term stability of catalyst, it was
11 reused up to 4 cycles. The regenerated catalyst was investigated to compare with the catalyst
12 without regeneration on the response of FAME yield.

13 2.6. Experimental design

14 The purpose of the design was to investigate the significance of process factor and to
15 optimize the biodiesel production over $\text{SO}_3\text{H-CD}$ catalyst by employing a single-step process
16 under ultrasonic condition.

17 A 2^4 factorial design was used to screen the significant factors and to increase the
18 model accuracy. Four factors such as catalyst loading (X_1), reaction time (X_2), reaction
19 temperature (X_3) and molar ratio of methanol to oil (X_4) were designed by consisting of 16
20 experiments with their low and high values. The ranges of full factorial design of each factor

1 are shown in Table 1. The regression model for screening the factors was expressed as
 2 following Eq. (2):

$$Y = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i X_i + \sum_{i < j} \sum \beta_{ij} X_i X_j \quad (2)$$

3 Where Y is the FAME yield (%), β_0 is the constant coefficient, β_i is the coefficient for the
 4 linear effect, β_{ij} is the coefficient for the interaction effect and X_i and X_j are the factor codes.

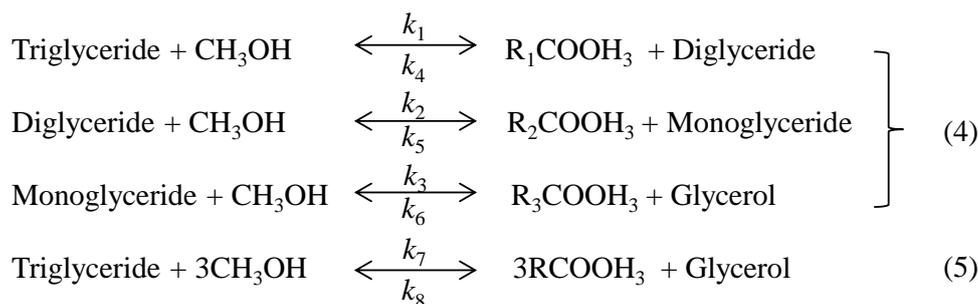
5 Investigating a Box-Behnken design required 15 experiments with three factors in this
 6 research (Table 2). This design was studied the response pattern and to find the optimum
 7 condition together with maximum FAME yield. Table 2 shows the ranges and levels of
 8 factors. The Box-Behnken model for optimizing the factors was expressed as following Eq.
 9 (3):

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_{11} X_1^2 + \beta_{22} X_2^2 + \beta_{33} X_3^2 + \beta_{12} X_1 X_2 + \beta_{13} X_1 X_3 + \beta_{23} X_2 X_3 \quad (3)$$

10 Where Y is the FAME yield (%), β_0 is the constant coefficient, β_1 , β_2 and β_3 are coefficients for
 11 the linear effects, β_{11} , β_{22} and β_{33} are the coefficients for the quadratic effects, β_{12} , β_{13} and β_{23}
 12 are the coefficients for the interaction effects and X_1 , X_2 and X_3 are the factor codes.

13 2.7. Kinetic modeling

14 The kinetic study for the transesterification reaction was carried out to continuously
 15 investigate after optimization process achieved. The stoichiometry of three step and overall
 16 transesterification reaction can be written as following Eqs. (4) and (5):



1

2

From above stoichiometry, the conversion of waste cooking oil into FAME was

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determined as the total mol of RCOOH₃ or FAME divided by total mol of triglycerides (Eq.

4

(6)).

5

$$\text{Conversion (\%)} = [\text{Total mol of FAME produced}/3 \times (\text{Total mol of triglyceride})] \times 100 \quad (6)$$

6

The reaction rate was determined as following Eq. (7):

$$-\frac{dC_A}{dt} = k_7 C_A^X C_B^Y - k_8 C_C^W C_D^Z \quad (7)$$

7

where C_A , C_B , C_C and C_D are the concentrations of triglyceride, methanol, glycerol and

8

FAME, respectively. W , X , Y and Z refer to their reaction order. k_7 and k_8 are the kinetic

9

constants for the forward and backward reaction, respectively.

10

From the Eq. (7), it can be reduced to:

$$-\frac{dC_A}{dt} = k' C_A^n \quad (8)$$

11

where $k' = k_7 C_B^Y$ and/or k' is modified rate constant. Due to the used molar ratio of methanol

12

to oil was much higher than other components, therefore, $k_7 C_B^Y$ can be constant. Moreover, k_7

13

is also much higher than k_8 .³¹

$$C_A = C_{A0}(1 - X) \quad (9)$$

1 where C_{A0} and X are the initial concentration of triglyceride and the conversion of oil or
 2 triglyceride into FAME, respectively. Therefore, the overall reaction rate can be summarized
 3 and expressed as following Eq. (10):

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \frac{k'}{C_{A0}} [C_{A0}(1 - X)]^n = k'' [C_{A0}(1 - X)]^n \quad (10)$$

4 When $k'' = k'/C_{A0}$ and $n = 1$, thus, Eq. (10) can be rearranged and integrated to obtain as
 5 following Eq. (11):

$$\ln(1 - X) = k't \quad (11)$$

6 In case that $n \neq 1$, rearranging and integrating of Eq. (10) can be obtained as following Eq.
 7 (12):

$$(1 - X)^{(1-n)} = 1 + (n - 1)k''C_{A0}^n t \quad (12)$$

8 From above equation, the best straight line was determined from line based on highest
 9 R^2 close to 1. According to Arrhenius equation, the reaction rate can be expressed as a
 10 function of temperature in the following Eq. (13):

$$\ln k' = -\frac{E_a}{RT} + \ln A \quad (13)$$

11 where E_a is the activation energy (kJ/mol), A is the pre-exponential factor (min^{-1}), R is the gas
 12 constant (8.314 J/Kmol) and T is the reaction temperature (K).

13

14 **3. Results and discussion**

15 *3.1. Characterization of catalyst*

1 Fig. 1A shows the XRD patterns of catalyst. The broad diffraction peak at 10-30° was
2 assigned to (002) plane of the carbon in CD. After sulfonation, the mentioned (002)
3 diffraction peak was shifted to the larger 2θ angle, suggesting that the carbonization may be
4 occurred during the sulfonation process with concentrated acid resulted in smaller polycyclic
5 carbon ring.¹⁹ Fig. 1B shows the particle-size distribution of catalyst. It was found to be in the
6 range of 0-15 μm . This result was related with SEM image in Fig. 1C. Moreover, it was found
7 to be regular particle shape of sphere carbon with the existence of S element, suggesting that rich
8 sulfonic group attached on the surface of catalyst. Figure 1D shows TGA patterns of CD-carbon
9 and $\text{SO}_3\text{H-CD}$ catalyst. The initial weight loss in the temperature ranges of 0-120 °C due to
10 loss of water. Gradual weight loss of $\text{SO}_3\text{H-CD}$ at higher temperature ≥ 280 °C shows the
11 decomposition of sulfonic group. It should be noted that $\text{SO}_3\text{H-CD}$ catalyst had the thermal
12 stability at temperatures closes to 280 °C under oxygen-free conditions. The FTIR spectra of
13 catalyst is shown in Figure 1E. The strong bands at 1040 cm^{-1} and 940 cm^{-1} could be
14 identified to the stretching modes of sulfate groups. This evidence indicates that the sulfuric
15 resulted in extensive covalent sulfonation of carbonized CD catalyst. Parthiban and
16 Perumalsamy,⁴ reported that sulfonic acid group coupled with carbon ring can be formed a
17 stable covalent structure, leading to good stability maintaining at high reaction temperature.
18 The XPS spectra are presented in Fig. 1F. The S_{2p} photoelectron peak at 168 eV and the
19 inserted O_{1s} photoelectron peak at 531.6 eV were attributed to the carbon material containing
20 sulfonic group. Fig. 1G shows NH_3 -TPD profile of catalyst. The NH_3 -TPD profile showed
21 that three acid sites, a weak acid (70-150 °C), a medium acid (170-240 °C) and strong acid
22 (270-320 °C) were observed. The BET surface area and pore size of $\text{SO}_3\text{H-CD}$ catalyst were
23 determined to be $8.2\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ and 22.1 nm, respectively (Table 3). The titration result found that
24 high $-\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ density of fresh catalyst was 1.87 mmol/g. It should be noted that the low surface
25 area and large pore size can increase the accessibility of sulfuric acid into the carbon bulk,

1 which would give a higher concentration of covalently bonded carbon with a sulfonic group.
2 Moreover, due to large pore size obtained, reactant such as oil and methanol can be easily
3 diffused into the internal of catalyst structure, resulting in the increase of catalytic activity.³²⁻
4 ³⁴ Shuit *et al.*,³⁵ reported that low surface and narrow pore size of solid catalysts exhibited a
5 mass transfer resistance because of the presence of a three phase system as oil, methanol and
6 solid catalyst in the reaction mixture that limits the pore diffusion process and reduces the
7 active sites available for the catalytic reaction, thereby decreasing the reaction rate.

8 *3.2. Ultrasonic assisted biodiesel production with statistical analysis*

9 Using a 2⁴ factorial design, 16 experiments were carried out and provided the responses
10 as experimental FAME yields (Table 1). To screen the significant factors, estimate values
11 were plotted versus normal probability (Fig. 2). As shown in Fig. 2, it was clearly seen that
12 catalyst loading, reaction time, reaction temperature and their interactions had a significant
13 effect on ultrasonic assisted biodiesel production, while the ranges of molar ratio of methanol
14 to oil had no effect on the FAME yield. One can see that this work used the ranges of molar
15 ratio of methanol to oil (20:1-40:1) which is an excess amount, leading to shift forward
16 equilibrium to the FAME product. It should be note that remaining amount of methanol can
17 be recovered from the mixture by evaporation. The X₃ factor or reaction temperature had a
18 most effect on biodiesel production, suggesting that transesterification reaction required high
19 temperature due to its endothermic nature. Table S2 shows the analysis of variance
20 (ANOVA) for 2⁴ factorial design. The confidence level for all stages was determined at 95%.
21 The F-value more than 5.32 indicated model terms are significant. The summary of ANOVA
22 provided a result according with normal probability graph in Fig .2. The regression model
23 was determined using a significant coefficient, which model can be expressed in team of liner
24 equation as following Eq. (14):

$$Y = 63.98 + 5.77X_1 + 7.955X_2 + 17.63X_3 - 6.42X_1X_2 - 2.655X_1X_3 - 3.42X_2X_3 + 0.845X_1X_2X_3 \quad (14)$$

where Y is the FAME yield (%), X_1 is the catalyst loading (wt.%), X_2 is the reaction time (min) and X_3 is the reaction temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$). The regression model was also applied for calculation of predicted values. Fig. 3A shows the normal probability of residuals. It was found to be well fitted with R^2 close to 1 ($R^2 = 0.9590$). Moreover, Fig. 3B also represents residual distribution of model did not follow a particular trend with respect to predicted values, indicating that this model has dependability and acceptable. Here, a lowest molar ratio of methanol to oil (20:1) was selected and fixed for optimization and kinetic process.

The experimental design for optimization of ultrasonic assisted biodiesel production from waste cooking oil over $\text{SO}_3\text{H-CD}$ was a Box-Behnken design. In this work, Box-Behnken design is a combination between 2^k factorial design with an incomplete block design, providing to 15 experiments. Based on this design and experimental results are shown in Table 2. The quadratic regression model for determination of predicted values is given as following Eq. (15):

$$Y = 87.7 + 7.675X_1 + 3.938X_2 + 6.513X_3 - 9.25X_1^2 - 6.225X_2^2 - 6.525X_3^2 - 2.575X_1X_2 - 5.175X_1X_3 - 3.1X_2X_3 \quad (15)$$

where Y is the FAME yield (%), X_1 is the catalyst loading (wt.%), X_2 is the reaction time (min) and X_3 is the reaction temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$).

Fig. 4 shows the plot between experimental and predicted FAME yields. As expected, the predicted values are well close to the experimental values, providing a value of $R^2 = 0.9770$, indicating that the fitted model could explain 97.70% of the variability. The effects of catalyst loading and reaction time on ultrasonic assisted biodiesel production at a constant

1 reaction temperature of 100 °C are presented in Fig. 5A. As expected, increasing the catalyst
2 amount enhances the FAME yield because an increase in the active sites for the reaction.
3 Moreover, it may be due to the fact that addition of excess catalyst loading results in faster
4 reaction of esterification and transesterification which increases the FAME yield. However,
5 the trend was reversed when the catalyst loading reached a certain amount, resulting from
6 over catalyst loading would make the esterification of free fatty acid progress faster and more
7 water could be easily formed in a shorter time. As well known that the excess water amount
8 could lead to deactivation of the catalyst due to hydration reaction occurred. The sulfonic
9 acid-catalyzed esterification mechanism consists of protonation of the free fatty acid with the
10 catalyst. The accessibility of alcohol on the carbocation leads to the occurrence of tetrahedral
11 intermediate and releasing of water (Fig. 6). The mechanism was also related on theoretical
12 alcohol adsorption mechanisms of Langmuir–Hinshelwood and Eley–Rideal.^{36,37} In addition,
13 it is possible that the increase of catalyst amount affected the some problems such as phase
14 separation and more glycerol amount, presenting under unsuitable conditions. The reaction
15 time presented a positive influence on the FAME yield but had less effect than catalyst
16 loading as it can be observed in Fig. 5A. At too long reaction time, it could promote the
17 backward reaction with decreasing of FAME yield. This promoting was explained by
18 influence of ultrasonic energy increasing in interfacial area and activity of the microscopic
19 and macroscopic bubbles formed when ultrasonic waves were applied in the three-phase
20 reaction system.³⁸ The bubbles will be formed and undergoes breakdown after an
21 approximate period at 400 ms, resulting in small hotspots that can offer the energy for some
22 chemical reactions (Fig. S2). The effects of catalyst loading and reaction temperature on
23 ultrasonic assisted biodiesel production at a constant reaction time of 8 min are presented in
24 Fig. 5B. The FAME yield was increased significantly when catalyst loading and reaction
25 temperature increased with their optimum conditions were 12 wt.% and 120 °C, respectively,

1 providing a maximum FAME yield (90%) as it can be observed in Fig. 5B. Fig. 5C shows the
2 effects of reaction time and reaction temperature at a constant catalyst loading of 10 wt.%. As
3 shown in Fig. 5C, a maximum FAME yield was obtained to be 89.6 % with a reaction time
4 and a reaction temperature were 9.2 min and 120 °C, respectively. One can see in Fig. 5B and
5 C that the reaction temperature fixed a constant at 120 °C. It should be noted that as beyond
6 temperature, it could occur the frying process and/or some chemical reactions such as
7 thermolytic, hydrolytic and oxidative reactions. Moreover, it can be attributed the evaporation
8 of methanol as vapor phase in reactor system, leading to less available in reaction
9 environment.³¹ Based on the quadratic regression model, the predicted maximum FAME
10 yield of 90.3% was achieved under the optimum conditions: catalyst loading of 11.5 wt.%,
11 reaction time of 8.8 min and reaction temperature of 117 °C. To confirm the prediction of
12 model, the optimum conditions were tested up to three replicates for biodiesel production.
13 The average FAME yield from actual experiment was obtained to be 90.8% indicating that
14 experimental value closed to predicted value. For comparison, optimum condition of
15 experiment was compared with without ultrasonic system using heating and stirring methods.
16 The FAME yield was reduced to about 56% with without ultrasonic system, suggesting that
17 longer reaction time was necessary. As a result, the use of ultrasonic system is beneficial in
18 both of the FAME yield as well as the rate of reaction.

19 *3.3. Catalyst reusability*

20 The influences of catalyst reusability on ultrasonic assisted biodiesel production are
21 illustrated in Fig. 7. One can see that a significant reduction in catalytic activity was detected
22 catalyst without regeneration. The reduction of FAME yield in each cycle could be explained
23 attending to different possibilities: (1) the deactivation of active sites due to their poisoning
24 by some molecules present in the reaction mixture such as ion-exchange between alkali
25 cations with protons and natural adsorption of reactants and products in system and (2) the

1 dependency of acid loss with temperature and sonic suggests acid sites are reacting, for
2 instance with alcohol to lead methyl sulfonates (Fig. S3). However, in this case, a
3 regeneration process as via repeating sulfonation could be applied to solve the deactivation
4 problems of catalyst. As shown in Fig. 7, for catalyst after regeneration, no serious reduction
5 on FAME yield was observed in very cycles, suggesting that catalyst after regeneration could
6 exist in the presence of sulfonic group, which this ascription was confirmed by titration and
7 elemental analysis results in Table 3. Moreover, the presence of Na element on the surface of
8 spent catalyst (4th reuse) without regeneration can be clearly found on SEM-EDS result in
9 Fig. S4. However, with spent catalyst (4th reuse) after regeneration, one can see that a little
10 amount and/or almost disappearance of Na element together with an increasing of S amount
11 were observed, resulting from the sulfonation with ion-exchange nature. For comparison of
12 catalytic activity, the commercial catalysts such as Amberlyst-15 (4.5 mmol/g of acidity and
13 45 m²/g of surface area), zeolite (HY) (0.33 mmol/g of acidity and 425 m²/g of surface area),
14 γ -Al₂O₃ (0.31 mmol/g of acidity and 221 m²/g of surface area) and CD-carbon derived from
15 hydrothermal carbonization of CD and water (0.02 mmol/g of acidity and 11 m²/g of surface
16 area) were tested for the transesterification of waste cooking oil. As shown in Fig. S5, SO₃H-
17 CD exhibited better catalytic activity than other catalysts. The CD-carbon obtained from
18 single cyclodextrin showed almost no catalytic activity, resulting from its low acidity. This is
19 probably due to their acidity promote the activity for transesterification. To confirm the
20 influence of acidity, SO₃H-CD was synthesized with different acid densities, following with
21 acid densities on catalyst reusability result. As shown in Fig.S6, it can be seen that the
22 increase of FAME yield was related with increasing of acid densities. This result was
23 corresponded with catalyst reusability result. Moreover, it also believed that the outer layer of
24 SO₃H-CD carbon sphere consists of active site and hydrophilic group such as sulfonic group,
25 carboxylic group and hydroxyl group while inner layer consists of hydrophobic group such as

1 polyaromatics could promote the effect of mass transfer, leading to the higher catalytic
2 performance.

3 *3.4. Kinetic of the transesterification process*

4 In the present study, kinetic of transesterification reaction was investigated as a
5 function of temperatures with times in the range between 60 to 120 °C and 2 to 10 min,
6 respectively. The optimum catalyst loading (11.5 wt.%) was fixed. As shown in Fig. 8, it
7 indicated that the transesterification catalyzed by CD-SO₃H and assisted by ultrasonic system
8 occurred in a first order reaction due to kinetic data curves in each temperature fitted with R^2
9 > 0.99 . According to previous report of Freedman et al.,³⁹ they found that acid catalyzed
10 transesterification process was a first order reaction. After fitting data in Fig. 8, different
11 temperatures with reaction rate constants are given in Table 4. Based on the data in Table 4,
12 due to the considerable effect of reaction temperature on rate constant, the relationship
13 between them was obeyed using the Arrhenius law (Eq. 13). Fig. 9 shows the graph plotted
14 between the natural logarithm of reaction rate constant ($\ln k'$) versus the inverse of
15 temperature ($1/T$). The activation energy ($E_a = 11.64$ kJ/mol) and pre-exponential factor ($A =$
16 3.14 min^{-1}) was obtained from slope and intercept of Arrhenius plot, respectively. The
17 activation energy values in the range of 33-84 kJ/mol have been reported for acid-base
18 catalyzed homogeneous transesterification of edible oil.^{39,40} Uzun et al.,⁴¹ reported that the
19 activation energy of alkali-catalyzed transesterification of waste frying oils (WFO) was 11.7
20 kJ/mol. The activation energy was reported value of 70.6 kJ/mol for alkaline ethanolysis of
21 castor oil.⁴² For heterogeneous catalyst, Kumar and Ali,⁴³ reported that the activation energy
22 of transesterification using nanocrystalline K-CaO catalyst was found to be 54 kJ/mol. The
23 activation energy for the Zr/CaO catalyzed methanolysis and ethanolysis was found to be
24 29.8 kJ/mol and 42.5 kJ/mol, respectively.⁴⁴ Kansedo and Lee,⁴⁵ reported that activation
25 energy of 36.03 kJ/mol and pre-exponential factor of $5.56 \times 10^2 \text{ min}^{-1}$ were obtained using

1 sulfated zirconia catalyst for biodiesel production from non-edible sea mango oil. It should be
2 noted that the range of activation energy (26-84 kJ/mol) reported for heterogeneous catalysts
3 with transesterification reaction. These evidences indicated that the activation energy of this
4 work was observed outside the range of reported values. This is due to the effect of the
5 reduction of the mass transfer resistances which helped by cavitation process of intense
6 turbulence and micro-scale liquid circulation. Based on the fitting Eq. (16), it was clearly
7 confirmed that $\ln k$ changed linearly with $1/T$ in the studied temperature range as expected for
8 a single rate-limited thermally activated process.

$$\ln k' = -\frac{1.4}{T} + 1.444 \quad (R^2 = 0.9953) \quad (16)$$

9 Moreover, reaction temperature was proved to be a positive effect which was closely relative
10 with the conversion efficiency of transesterification process. The FAME or biodiesel product
11 was tested by comparing with American ASTM D 6751 standard (Table 5). The properties of
12 biodiesel produced in this work met the criteria of ASTM standard. From this result, it could
13 be rated as a realistic alternative to petroleum diesel.

14 **4. Conclusions**

15 In the present study, ultrasonic assisted transesterification process catalyzed by SO_3H -
16 CD was proved to be a high performance technology for biodiesel production. The catalyst
17 was characterized by BET, XRD, PSD, SEM-EDS, TGA, FT-IR, XPS and TPD. The
18 statistical analyses were clarified by $R^2 > 0.95$. The maximum FAME yield was 90.8% at
19 optimum conditions: catalyst loading of 11.5 wt.%, reaction time of 8.8 min and reaction
20 temperature of 117 °C. The high stability and catalytic performance of catalyst showed
21 excellent after the regeneration. The SO_3H -CD showed better catalytic performance when
22 compared with commercial catalysts. Kinetic studies showed that the reaction followed the

1 first order reaction with activation energy of 11.64 kJ/mol and pre-exponential factor of 3.14
2 min⁻¹.

4 Acknowledgments

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6 Rangsit University for supporting all instruments and chemicals.

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1 **Table captions**

2 **Table 1** 2^4 factorial design analysis of each factor and obtained FAME yield.

3 **Table 2** Box-Behnken design for 3 factors with experimental and predicted FAME yields.

4 **Table 3** Physicochemical properties of catalyst.

5 **Table 4** Reaction rate constants for the ultrasonic assisted transesterification of waste
6 cooking oil and methanol using CD-SO₃H catalyst at different temperatures.

7 **Table 5** The properties of biodiesel in this work with ASTM D 6751 standard.

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9

10 **Figure captions**

11 **Fig. 1.** (A) XRD patterns, (B) particle-size distribution, (C) SEM-EDS image, (D) TGA
12 patterns, (E) FT-IR spectra, (F) XPS spectra and (G) NH₃-TPD profiles of catalyst.

13 **Fig. 2.** Normal probability plot of effect estimate for 2^4 factorial design.

14 **Fig. 3.** (A) Normal probability plot of residual and (B) distribution plot of residual versus
15 predicted FAME yield for 2^4 factorial design.

16 **Fig. 4.** Plot of experimental versus predicted values of FAME yield. Distribution plot of
17 residual versus predicted FAME yield for Box-Behnken design was inserted in this figure.

18 **Fig. 5.** The response surface plot of FAME yield: (A) based on catalyst loading and reaction
19 time, (B) based on catalyst loading and reaction temperature, and (C) based on reaction time
20 and reaction temperature.

21 **Fig. 6.** Water molecule obtained from esterification mechanism of free fatty acid with SO₃H-
22 CD.

1 **Fig. 7.** Catalyst reusability in biodiesel production from waste cooking oil. Reaction
2 condition: catalyst loading of 11.5 wt.%, reaction time of 8.8 min and reaction temperature of
3 117 °C.

4 **Fig. 8.** The first order reaction plot between time versus $-\ln(1-X)$.

5 **Fig. 9.** Arrhenius plot $1/T$ versus $\ln k'$.

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1 **Table 1** 2⁴ factorial design analysis of each factor and obtained FAME yield.

Run	X ₁ (wt.%)	X ₂ (min)	X ₃ (°C)	X ₄ (mol/mol)	FAME yield (%)
1	5 (-1)	2 (-1)	50 (-1)	20:1 (-1)	20.9
2	15 (1)	2 (-1)	50 (-1)	20:1 (-1)	49.7
3	5 (-1)	14 (1)	50 (-1)	20:1 (-1)	54.1
4	15 (1)	14 (1)	50 (-1)	20:1 (-1)	59.9
5	5 (-1)	2 (-1)	150 (1)	20:1 (-1)	69.7
6	15 (1)	2 (-1)	150 (1)	20:1 (-1)	84.6
7	5 (-1)	14 (1)	150 (1)	20:1 (-1)	87.8
8	15 (1)	14 (1)	150 (1)	20:1 (-1)	85.5
9	5 (-1)	2 (-1)	50 (-1)	40:1 (1)	20.2
10	15 (1)	2 (-1)	50 (-1)	40:1 (1)	49.1
11	5 (-1)	14 (1)	50 (-1)	40:1 (1)	56.5
12	15 (1)	14 (1)	50 (-1)	40:1 (1)	60.4
13	5 (-1)	2 (-1)	150 (1)	40:1 (1)	69.6
14	15 (1)	2 (-1)	150 (1)	40:1 (1)	84.4
15	5 (-1)	14 (1)	150 (1)	40:1 (1)	86.9
16	15 (1)	14 (1)	150 (1)	40:1 (1)	84.4

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3 The factors are coded as following: X₁ = catalyst loading (wt.%), X₂ = reaction time (min), X₃
4 = reaction temperature (°C) and X₄ = molar ratio of methanol to oil (mol/mol).

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1 **Table 2** Box-Behnken design for 3 factors with experimental and predicted FAME yields.

Run	X_1 (wt.%)	X_2 (min)	X_3 (°C)	FAME yield (%)	
				Experimental	Predicted
1	5 (-1)	2 (-1)	100 (0)	55.6	58.8
2	15 (1)	2 (-1)	100 (0)	72.1	71.5
3	5 (-1)	14 (1)	100 (0)	70.5	71.1
4	15 (1)	14 (1)	100 (0)	83.7	80.5
5	5 (-1)	8 (0)	50 (-1)	53.2	51.7
6	15 (1)	8 (0)	50 (-1)	65.9	68.1
7	5 (-1)	8 (0)	150 (1)	78.3	76.1
8	15 (1)	8 (0)	150 (1)	80.3	81.8
9	10 (0)	2 (-1)	50 (-1)	63.2	61.5
10	10 (0)	14 (1)	50 (-1)	75.4	76.4
11	10 (0)	2 (-1)	150 (1)	85.7	84.8
12	10 (0)	14 (1)	150 (1)	89.5	91.2
13	10 (0)	8 (0)	100 (0)	85.3	85.6
14	10 (0)	8 (0)	100 (0)	85.5	85.6
15	10 (0)	8 (0)	100 (0)	85.9	85.6

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3 The factors are coded as following: X_1 = catalyst loading (wt.%), X_2 = reaction time (min)
4 and X_3 = reaction temperature (°C).

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1 **Table 3** Physicochemical properties of catalyst.

CD-SO ₃ H	BET Surface area (m ² /g)	Pore size (nm)	Acidity (mmol/g)	S (wt.%)	C (wt.%)	O (wt.%)
Fresh catalyst	8.2	22.1	1.87	5.98	85.80	8.22
Spent catalyst ^a	8.4	18.5	1.85	5.91	86.23	7.86
Spent catalyst ^b	7.8	17.4	1.51	4.13	88.9	6.97

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3 ^a After regeneration (4th reuse).4 ^b Without regeneration (4th reuse)

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1 **Table 4** Reaction rate constants for the ultrasonic assisted transesterification of waste
2 cooking oil and methanol using CD-SO₃H catalyst at different temperatures.

Temperature (°C)	Reaction rate constant (min ⁻¹)	R ²
60	0.0472	0.9918
80	0.0581	0.9905
100	0.0751	0.9911
120	0.0884	0.9934

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1 **Table 5** The properties of biodiesel in this work with ASTM D 6751 standard.

Properties	Unit	Value	
		Biodiesel (ASTM 6751)	Biodiesel (This work)
Density@15 °C	g/cm ³	0.86-0.89	0.8766
Viscosity@15 °C	mm ² /s	1.9-6.0	4.15
Oxidative stability@110 °C	h	≥3	2.6
Pour point	°C	-10 to 12	2
Flash point	°C	≥130	194
Heating value	cal/g	9940	9912
Cetane number		≥47	50
Acid value	(KOH mg/kg)	≤0.5	0.45
Sulfur content	(%, w/w)	≤0.05	0.003
Water content	(mg/kg)	≤0.05	0.0045

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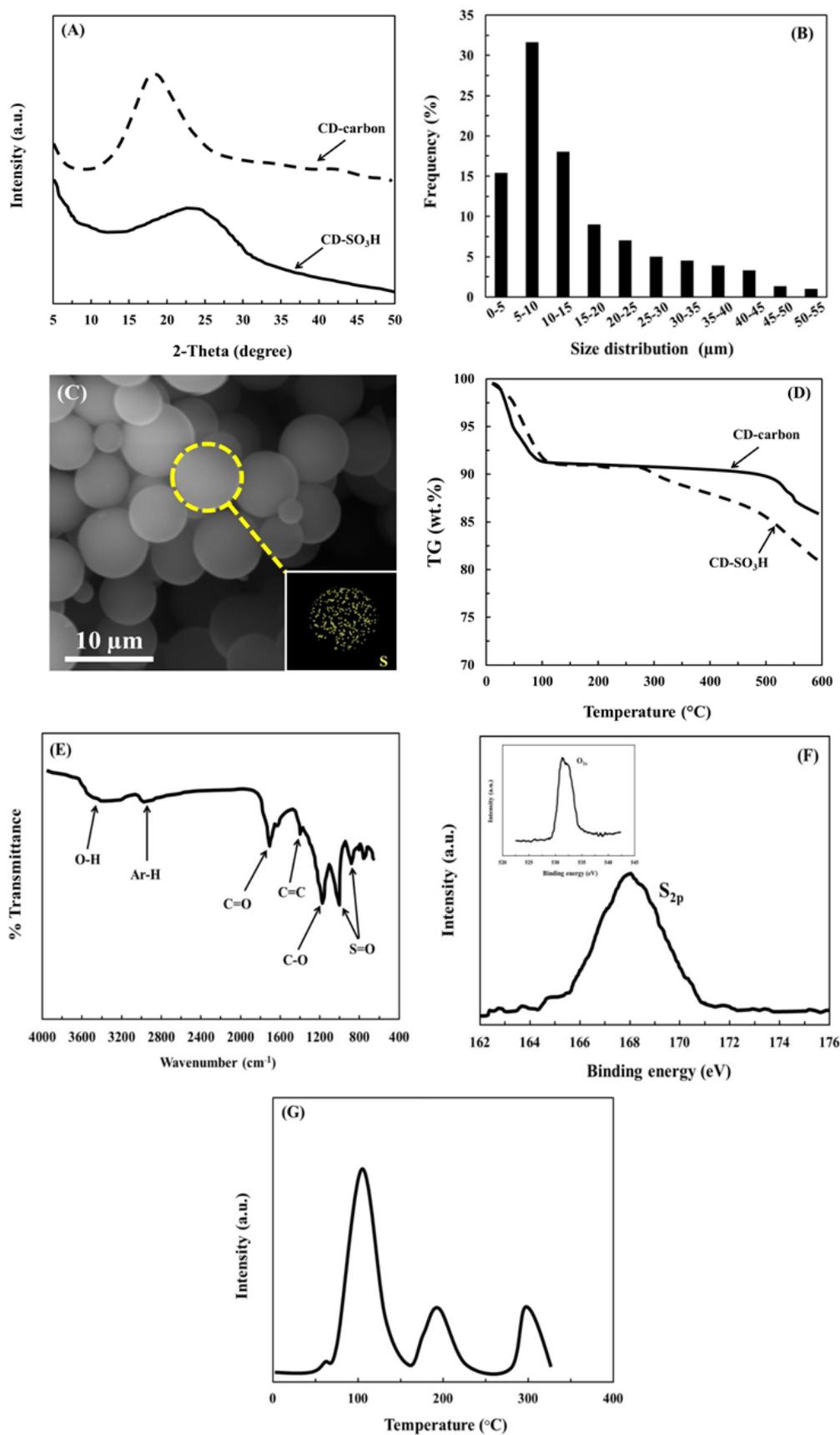
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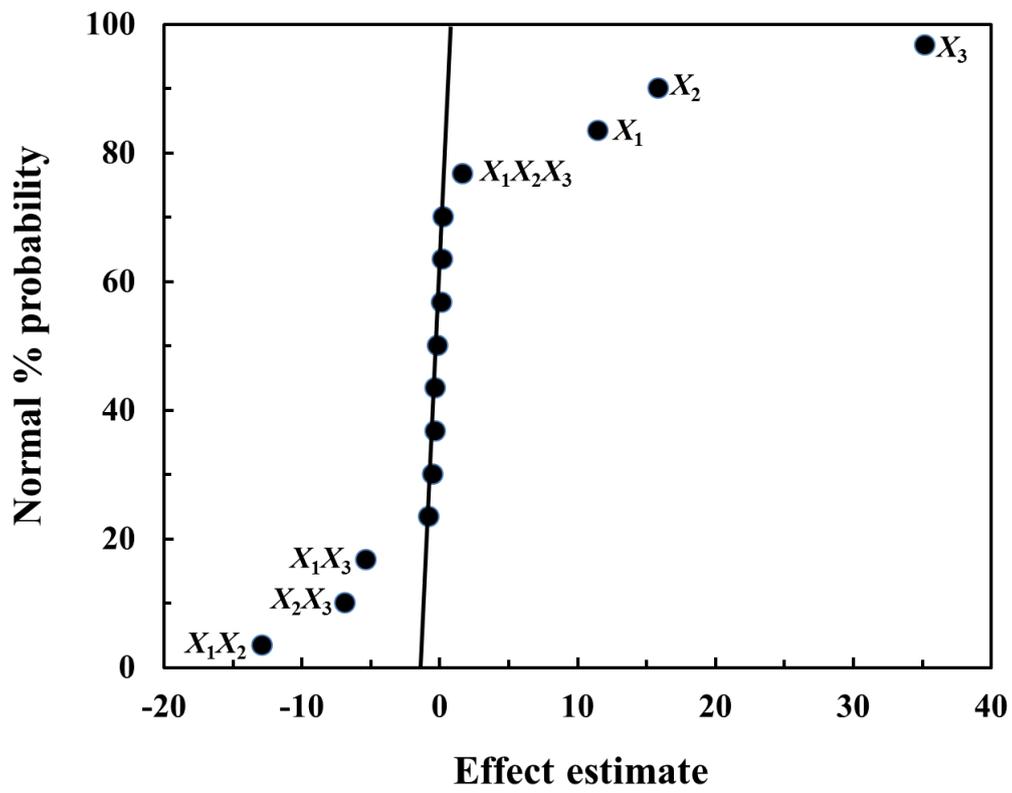
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1 Figure 1



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1 **Figure 2**

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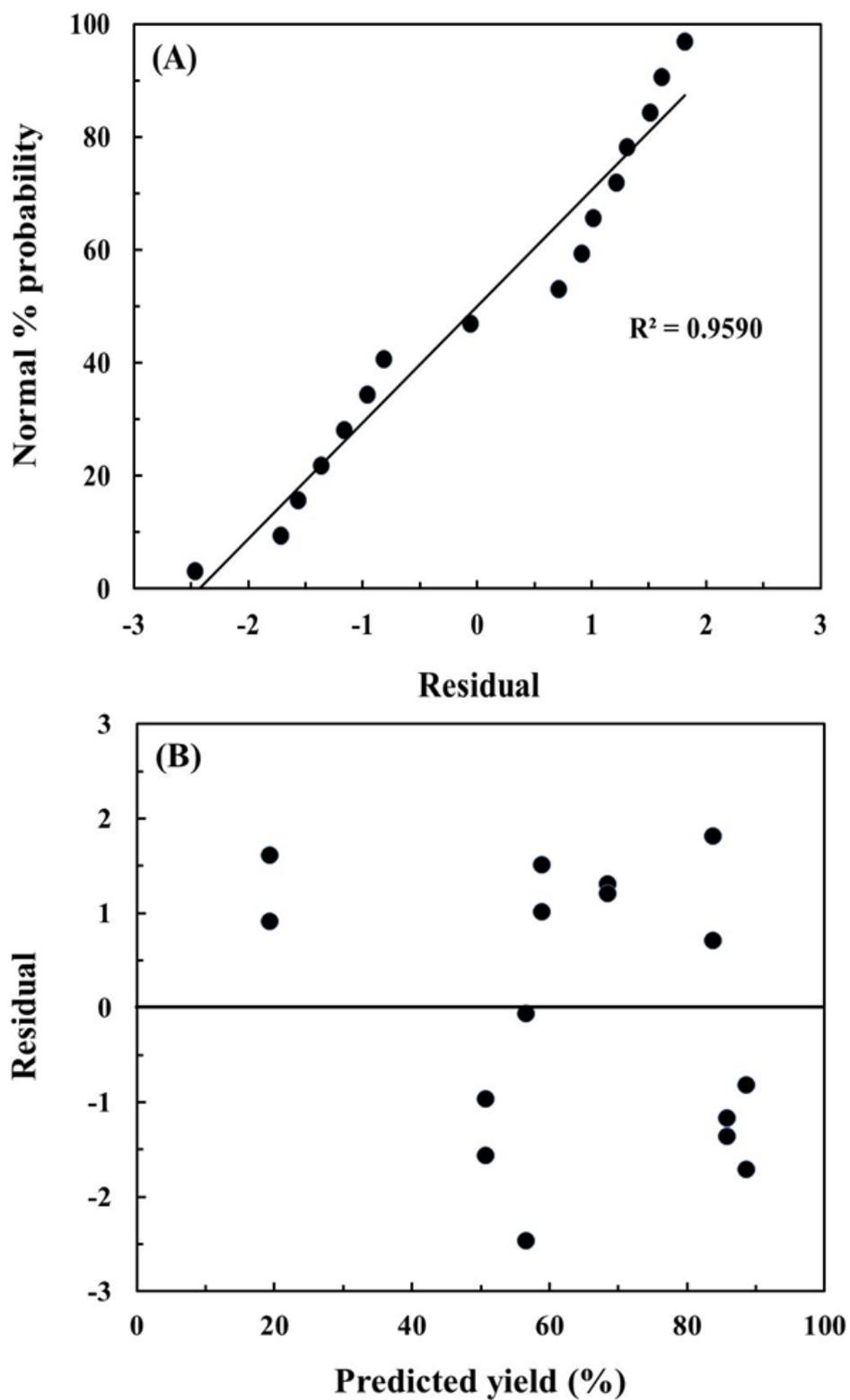
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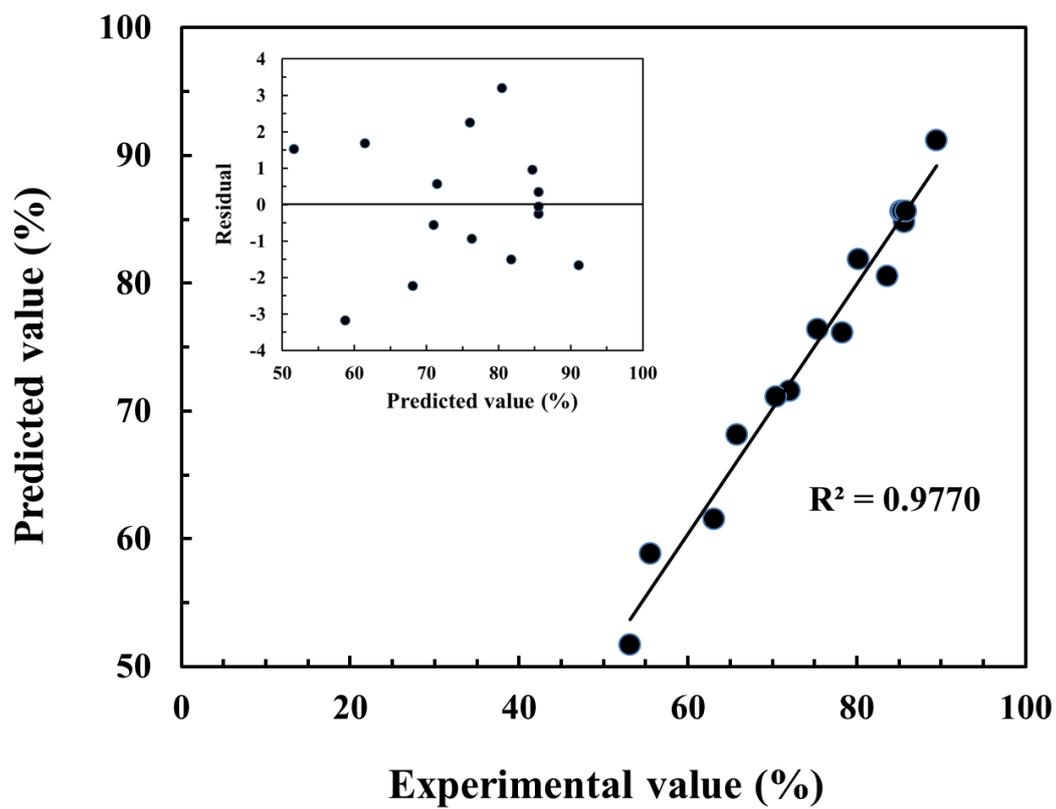
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1 **Figure 3**

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1 **Figure 4**

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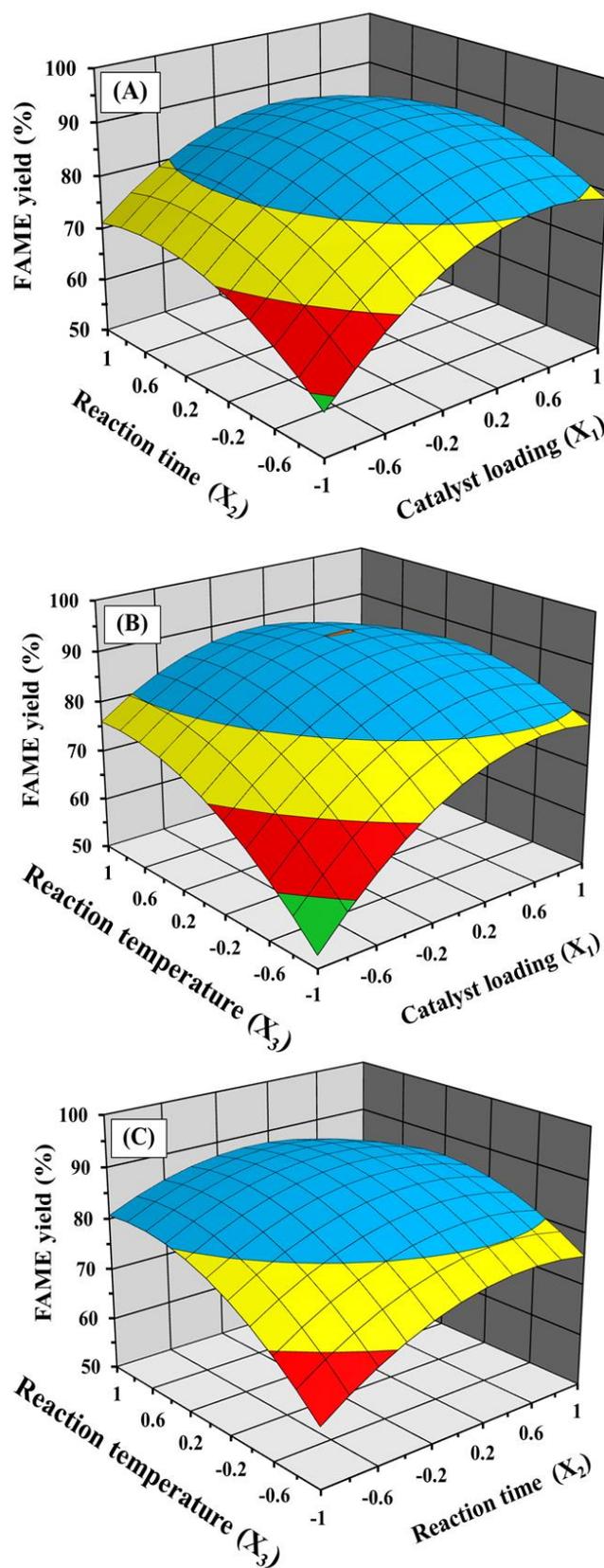
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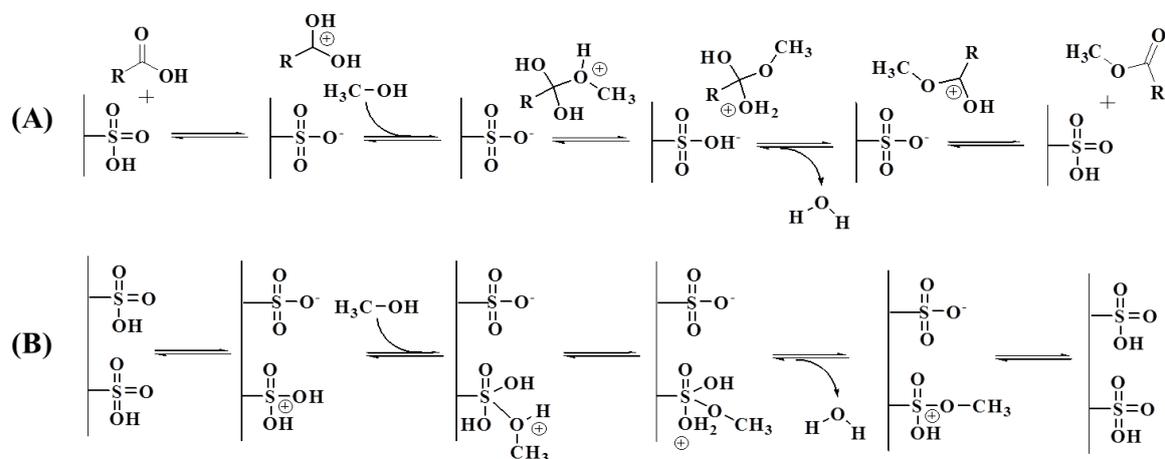
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1 Figure 5



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1 **Figure 6**

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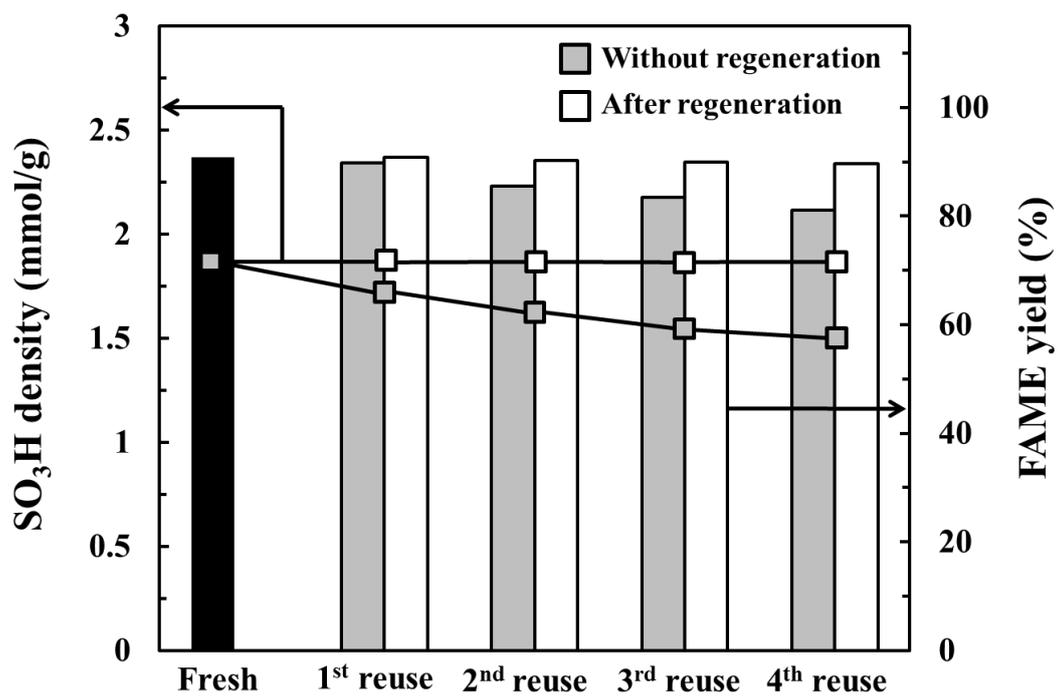
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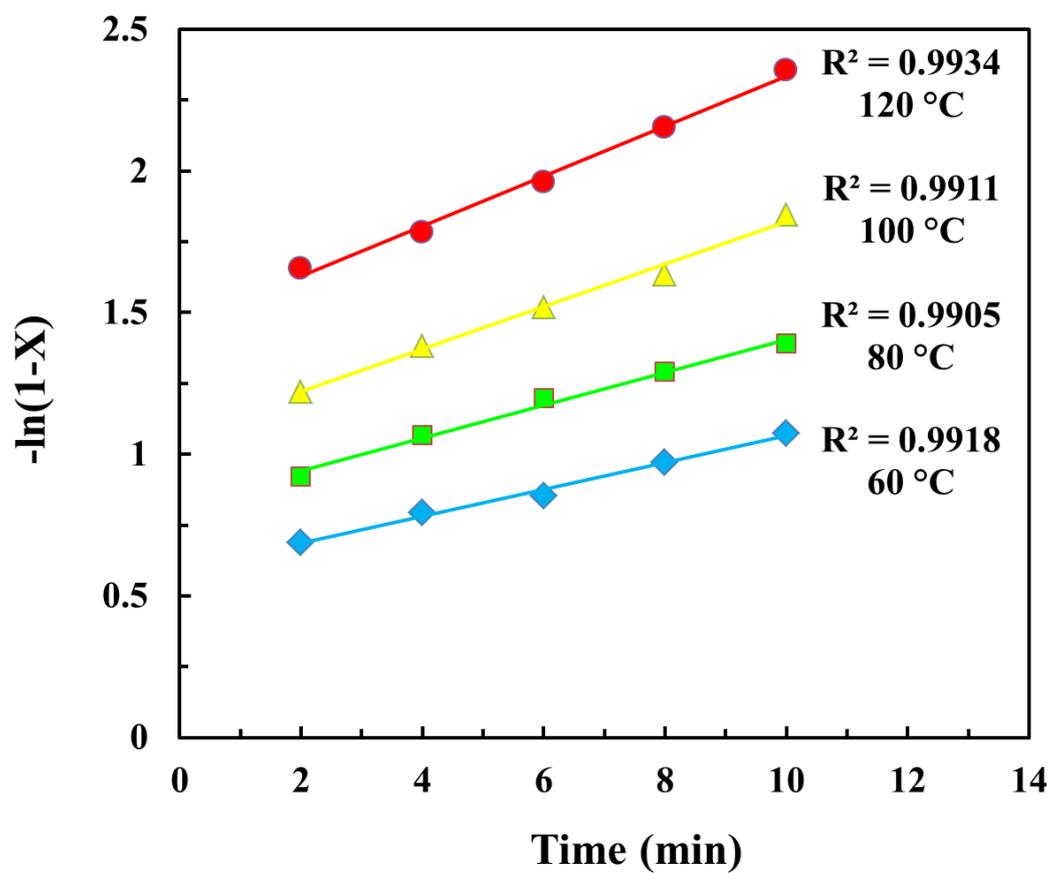
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1 **Figure 7**

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1 Figure 8



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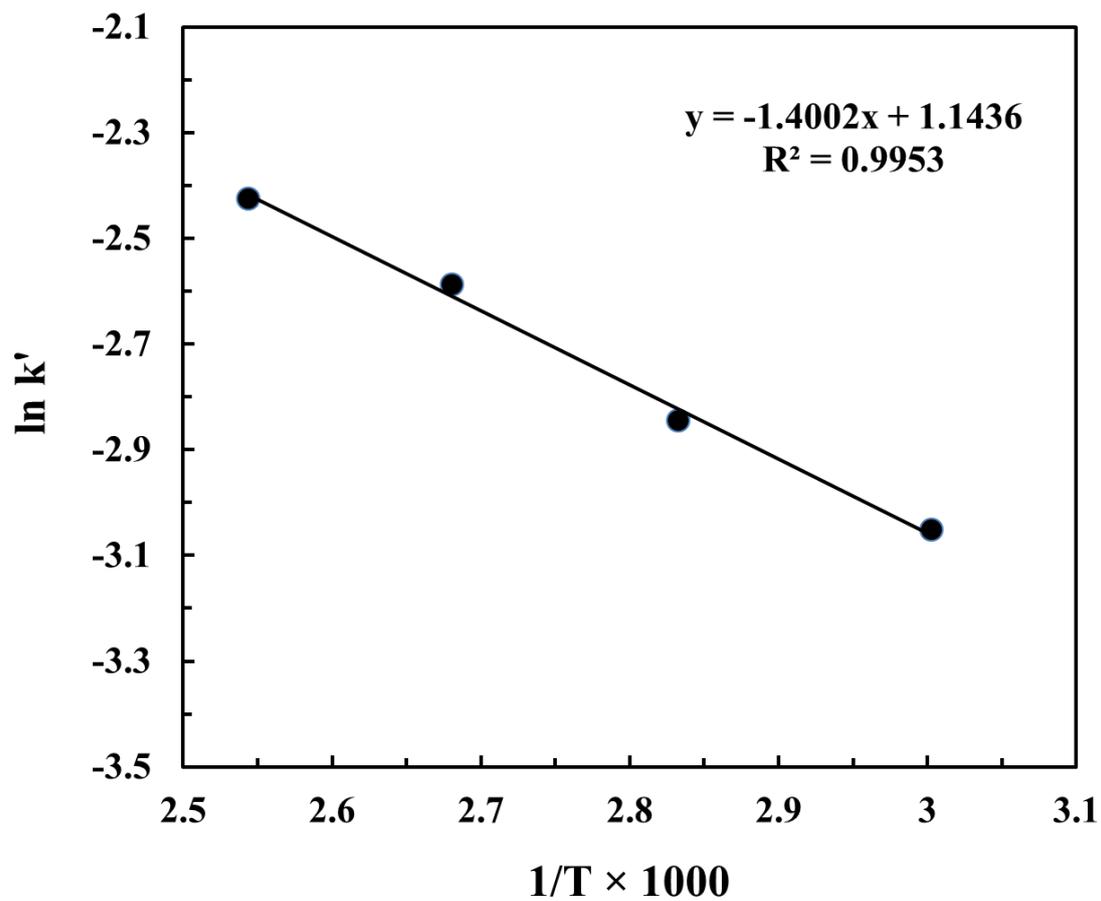
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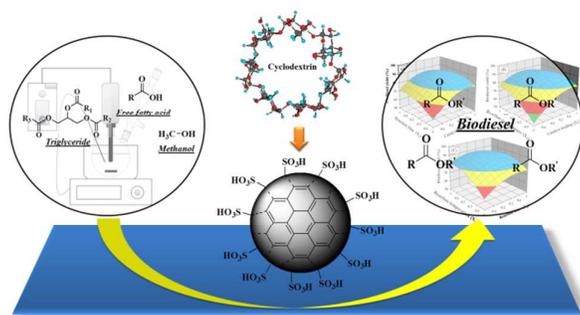
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1 **Figure 9**

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Table of contents entry



A novel sulfonated carbon derived from cyclodextrin showed high catalytic activity for the ultrasonic assisted transesterification of waste cooking oil.