



A novel production of phase-divided jet-fuel-ranged hydrocarbons and phenols-enriched chemicals from catalytic co-pyrolysis of lignocellulosic biomass with low-density polyethylene over carbon catalysts

| | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| Journal: | <i>Sustainable Energy & Fuels</i> |
| Manuscript ID | SE-ART-03-2020-000419.R1 |
| Article Type: | Paper |
| Date Submitted by the Author: | 06-May-2020 |
| Complete List of Authors: | Duan, Dengle; Washington State University - Tri Cities; Zhongkai University of Agriculture and Engineering; Nanchang University Zhang, Yayun; Washington State University - Tri Cities; East China University of Science and Technology, Chemical engineering Lei, Hanwu; Washington State University, Dept. Biological Systems Engineering Qian, Moriko; Washington State University, Dept. of Biological Systems Engineering Villota, Elmar; Washington State University - Tri Cities Wang, Chenxi; Washington State University, Department of Biological Systems Engineering Wang, Yunpu; Nanchang University, Ruan, Roger; Center for Biorefining and Department of Bioproducts and Biosystems Engineering, University of Minnesota, 1390 Eckles Ave., Bioproducts and Biosystems Engineering |
| | |

1 **A novel production of phase-divided jet-fuel-ranged hydrocarbons**
2 **and phenols-enriched chemicals from catalytic co-pyrolysis of**
3 **lignocellulosic biomass with low-density polyethylene over carbon**
4 **catalysts**

5 Denge Duan^{a,b,d}, Yayun Zhang^{a,c}, Hanwu Lei^{a,*}, Moriko Qian^a, Elmar Villota^a,
6 Chenxi Wang^a, Yunpu Wang^d, Roger Ruan^e

7

8 ^a Department of Biological Systems Engineering, Washington State University, 2710 Crimson
9 Way, Richland, WA 99354, USA

10 ^b College of Light Industry and Food, Zhongkai University of Agriculture and Engineering,
11 Guangzhou, 510225, China.

12 ^c State Key Laboratory of Chemical Engineering, East China University of Science and
13 Technology, Shanghai, 200237, China

14 ^d Engineering Research Center for Biomass Conversion, Ministry of Education, Nanchang
15 University, Nanchang 330047, China

16 ^e Center for Biorefining and Department of Bioproducts and Biosystems Engineering,
17 University of Minnesota, 1390 Eckles Ave., St. Paul, MN 55108, USA

18

19 *Correspondence to: hlei@wsu.edu

20

21 **Abstract:** The catalytic co-pyrolysis of Douglas fir and low-density polyethylene
22 with commercial activated carbon catalysts was investigated for the first time. Six
23 types of activated carbon catalysts were tested and compared. The obtained liquid
24 product contained physically separated parts being in the oil and water phases, where
25 the percentage of the oil phase ranged from 10.10 to 64.4 wt.% depending on various
26 co-pyrolysis conditions. The oil phase of bio-oil was rich in C₈-C₁₆ aromatics and
27 aliphatics (up to 98.6 area.%) that were compatible with transportation jet fuel. In
28 addition, the main components of the bio-oil in water phase comprised of phenols and
29 guaiacols, in which the high phenols selectivity (up to 92.9 area.%) and phenol
30 concentration (up to 26.4 mg/mL) were achieved. Hydrogen, methane, carbon
31 dioxide, and carbon monoxide were the main fractions of gaseous products, where a
32 high concentration of methane (23.6 vol.%) and carbon monoxide (39.1 vol.%) could
33 be obtained. The process was optimized based on an overall consideration of bio-oil
34 yield, C₈-C₁₆ hydrocarbons selectivity, and phenol concentration. Further, the reaction
35 mechanism involving the production of phenols and hydrocarbons were proposed.
36 Our findings may provide a novel, green, and cost-effective route to produce
37 phase-divided phenols-enriched chemicals and transportation jet fuels.

38

39 **Introduction**

40 The diminishing supply of fossil-based petroleum and the destructive influence
41 on natural environments has spurred tremendous interests in the exploitation of
42 renewable resources for developing high-value-added chemicals and green biofuels
43 ¹⁻². As one of the sustainable sources, lignocellulosic biomass, which consists of
44 cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin, exhibits greatly promising potential in the
45 fabrication of universal chemicals and renewable hydrocarbon biofuels ³⁻⁴. The
46 lignocellulosic biomass is plentiful mainly in the form of waste streams, energy crops,
47 wood, and agricultural residues, which as the feedstock to produce chemicals and
48 biofuels is much cheaper than edible biomass and crude oil from the perspective of
49 economic⁵⁻⁶. Fast pyrolysis has been demonstrated as a facile and eco-friendly
50 conversion technology to acquire bioenergy from lignocellulosic biomass over the
51 past two decades, which is on the verge of commercialization ⁷⁻⁹. Fast pyrolysis is
52 always performed at 400-600 °C in the oxygen-free conditions. A high yield of liquid
53 product that is known as bio-oil, which can be a potential alternative to conventional
54 fossil fuel resources ¹⁰⁻¹¹.

55 Phenol, an important chemical intermediate, is indispensable to manufacture
56 various chemicals and materials, such as phenolic resins and alkylphenols, et al.
57 However, the current technology to produce phenol is mainly through the industrial
58 conversion by cumene process from benzene, at the cost of plentiful consumption of
59 fossil fuels and environment contamination ¹²⁻¹³. Fortunately, phenols can be obtained
60 from the bio-oil produced by lignocellulosic biomass pyrolysis, which provides a new
61 pathway to manufacture phenols from the renewable natural resources ¹⁴. The phenols
62 are thought to be mainly generated from the lignin decomposition. However, the
63 content of phenols in bio-oil is very low, which causes the down-stream expensive
64 extraction and purification of phenols. Therefore, producing phenol-rich bio-oil from
65 the conversion of lignocellulosic biomass still faces a huge challenge ¹⁵. Numerous
66 efforts have been performed to enhance the phenols formation by using catalysts
67 during the pyrolysis process. Activated carbon catalyst (ACC) has been recognized as
68 an effective catalyst in selectively converting lignocellulosic biomass into phenols

69 ¹⁶⁻¹⁷. Due to its interesting properties, such as high surface area, tunable surface
70 functional groups and pore volume, ACC exhibits excellent catalytic performance in
71 converting the volatiles from lignocellulosic biomass pyrolysis into phenols ¹⁷.
72 According to our previous studies, ACC was demonstrated to hold a good
73 performance in phenolic-rich bio-oil production during the lignocellulosic biomass
74 pyrolysis process ¹⁸⁻¹⁹. High-purity production of phenol can be achieved when
75 H₃PO₄-activated carbon employed as a catalyst during the glucose pyrolysis process.
76 However, the absolute content of phenols in bio-oil was still not high, which was only
77 around 50 mg/mL ¹⁵. Therefore, the practical fulfillment of lignocellulosic biomass
78 claims effective technologies to achieve the mass production of high-value-added
79 chemicals.

80 In addition, the conversion of lignocellulosic biomass into transportation
81 biofuels, such as jet fuels, gasoline, and diesel has also attracted great attention
82 worldwide ²⁰⁻²¹. The typical chemical compositions of bio-oil prepared from
83 lignocellulosic biomass are small carbonyl compounds, sugar-derived compounds,
84 and lignin-derived compounds, mainly include acids, ester, sugars, alcohols,
85 aldehydes, ketones, phenols, furans, and aromatic hydrocarbons ²². Among them,
86 aromatic hydrocarbons are recognized as satisfying products for biofuel because they
87 do not only have good volumetric energy content but also have a large positive
88 influence on seal-swell, O-rings, self-sealing bladder, adhesives, etc. in jet engine
89 systems ²³. However, it is found that the oxygen-enriched intrinsic nature and
90 hydrogen deficiency of lignocellulosic biomass are not conducive to the aromatic
91 generation. The low hydrogen/carbon effective (H/C_{eff} , <0.3) of biomass always
92 results in a low carbon yield and much formation of coke ²⁴. To mitigate these
93 problems, it is very necessary to co-feed of lignocellulosic biomass with other
94 feedstock with a high H/C_{eff} ratio during catalytic pyrolysis process to enhance the
95 aromatic yields and lower the coke generation ^{3, 25}. Previous studies have indicated
96 that catalytic co-pyrolysis of lignocellulosic biomass and plastic materials was
97 conducive to decrease oxygen content and improve the aromatic compounds in bio-oil
98 due to the modified reaction mechanism ^{3, 26-27}. Our previous study found that ACC

99 during catalytic pyrolysis process gave rise to decarboxylation, dehydration,
100 aromatization, oligomerization and Diels-Alder reaction, which caused the conversion
101 of C5 and C6 compounds into phenols ¹⁵. Therefore, we speculated that under the
102 existent of hydrogen donor conditions, ACC could lead to the hydrogenation and
103 deoxygenation of phenol in bio-oil produced from lignocellulosic biomass pyrolysis
104 and simultaneously resulted in the facilitation of aromatics generation.

105 On the other side, although our previous studies unveiled the good performance
106 of home-made activated carbon catalyst in biomass catalytic pyrolysis processes, the
107 lab-scale production of ACC could not meet the industrial usage and usually comes
108 with less energy efficiency, which will impede the development of such promising
109 carbon-based catalysts. Alternatively, traditionally activated carbons, which have
110 been used for several decades, play important roles in many aspects of domestic and
111 industry, especially as the adsorbent. Fortunately, with the advanced technology,
112 commercial activated carbons are produced by a mature production line with
113 minimum energy input and thus can be obtained cost-effectively at the industrial
114 scale. Therefore, a successful attempt to commercial activated carbons employed as
115 catalysts in biomass catalytic conversion will dramatically drive further development
116 of renewable biomass utilization. According to the aforementioned consideration, the
117 catalytic co-pyrolysis of Douglas fir (DF) and low-density polyethylene (LDPE) over
118 several typical commercial activated carbons (CACs) as the catalysts in a facile fixed
119 bed reactor was performed for the first time. The main purpose of this study was to
120 investigate the simultaneous generation of renewable high-purity phenol and
121 aromatics in bio-oil by fast pyrolysis technology over commercial available ACC. The
122 influence parameters included the CAC category, pyrolytic temperature,
123 catalyst/feedstock ratio and LDPE/DF ratio were discussed in detail on the production
124 of phenols and jet fuel range aromatic hydrocarbons. In addition, the lifetime and
125 performance of CACs during the pyrolysis process were also investigated to provide a
126 comprehensive evaluation. The current study will provide a cost-effective,
127 eco-friendly and convenient route to simultaneously produce hydrocarbon-rich bio-oil

128 and phenols-rich chemicals, ultimately achieving the high-efficiency conversion of
129 lignocellulosic biomass into valuable products.

130 **Experimental**

131 **Materials**

132 CAC1 to CAC6 were purchased from Cabot Norit Activated Carbon Americas
133 (Marshall, TX, USA), namely, PETRODARCO 8X30, NORIT GAC 1240, MRX,
134 NORIT GCN 1240 PLUS, NORIT C GRAN, and GAC 830 PLUS. Douglas fir (DF,
135 diameter: 7 mm) was purchased from Bear Mountain Forest Products Inc.

136 **Co-pyrolysis setup**

137 The catalytic co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF with ACC were performed in a facile
138 fixed bed reactor, and the detailed experimental device was exhibited in Fig. 1.
139 Ex-situ catalytic pyrolysis has been demonstrated to be a promising process to achieve
140 better catalytic performance, however, this process causes the cost increase because of
141 the utilization of additional heating facilities on the separated heating area ²⁸. In the
142 current study, a handy means was employed to divide the catalyst and feedstock in the
143 same tube furnace, which was not only conducive to enhance the heating efficiency
144 but retrench the economic depletion ^{15, 29}. The effects of ACC categories (CAC1,
145 CAC2, CAC3, CAC4, CAC5, and CAC6), pyrolytic temperatures (425 °C, 450 °C,
146 475 °C, 500 °C, 525 °C and 550 °C), catalyst/feedstock ratios (0.4, 0.7, 1.0 and 1.2),
147 and LDPE/DF ratios (only LDPE, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, 1.0 and only DF) on product prepared
148 from catalytic co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF were investigated as shown in Table 1.
149 For all runs, a fixed 3 g of DF was used. The usage of LDPE and catalyst was
150 calculated related to the mass of DF. Before each run, the feedstock and catalyst were
151 simultaneously placed into the quartz tube. The quartz wool was used to divide the
152 feedstock and catalyst. The high purity nitrogen was introduced to the reactor at 160
153 mL/min for 15 min to provide an oxygen-free inert environment. Then the quartz
154 reactor was transferred into the oven after the oven (Thermo Scientific) temperature
155 reached the target value. The high-pure nitrogen at a rate of 70 mL/min was used as
156 the carrier gas to drive the volatiles produced by feedstock pyrolysis passing through

157 the catalyst. Each run was carried out at the target temperature for 10 min to
158 accomplish the pyrolytic reaction. The condenser was employed to collect the
159 non-condensable part in the form of liquid. The yield of bio-oil was based on the
160 difference of collector with or without bio-oil. The solid residue was also collected
161 and weighed after each run. The coke, which deposited on the catalyst, was calculated
162 by the mass difference of the catalyst before and after the experiment. The gas
163 fraction was collected in the Tedlar gas bag. The yield of gas was calculated by
164 difference based on the mass balance of feedstock.

165 **Analysis of bio-oil and gas products**

166 The obtained bio-oil consisted of two parts, namely the water and oil phases. The
167 oil and water phases were stratified due to their natural characterization. The mass of
168 oil and water phases was calculated by their actual weight. The organic phase was
169 analyzed by GC-MS (GC, Agilent 7890A; MS, Agilent 5975C) with a DB-5 capillary
170 column. Before analyzing, the ethyl acetate (HPLC grade, 99.5+%, Alfa Aesar, USA)
171 was used to extract the organic phase from the water phase. The ratio of ethyl
172 acetate/bio-oil was 10:1 (v/v). Then the resulted organic phase was filtered by a 0.22
173 μm organic syringe membrane. On the other side, the obtained bio-oil in oil-phase
174 was also diluted directly by using ethyl acetate before conducting further analysis.
175 The GC was first heated to 55 °C for 5 min and elevated to 280 °C at a rate of 5
176 °C/min, which was maintained for 2 min. The high pure helium with a constant flow
177 rate of 0.6 mL/min was used as the carrier gas. The ion source temperature was 230
178 °C. The compounds were recognized by comparing the spectral data with those in the
179 NIST data library. The product selectivity was determined by the area percent of
180 compounds obtained from GC/MS results. The phenol concentration in the organic
181 phase was quantified by injecting different standard solutions with various
182 concentrations of phenol into GC/MS.

183 The components of gas fraction were analyzed by Micro-GC (INFICON INC, Santa
184 Clara, CA, USA) system with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD). The calibration
185 gases include H_2 , N_2 , CH_4 , and CO . In this study, the chemical compounds of the gas

186 fraction with more than 2 carbon atoms were not tested or a very small amount
187 without calculation.

188 **Results and discussion**

189 **Catalytic co-pyrolysis of DF and LDPE over various ACs**

190 As shown in Table 1, the various commercial ACs (CAC1, CAC2, CAC3,
191 CAC4, CAC5, and CAC6) were used as catalysts during catalytic co-pyrolysis of DF
192 and LDPE. Detailed descriptions of these activated carbons were listed in supporting
193 information. The products prepared from catalytic co-pyrolysis of DF and LDPE
194 included bio-oil, coke, gas, and char. As shown in Fig. 2A, the yields of bio-oil and
195 gas varied from 47.1 to 59.7 wt.% and from 21.9 to 34.9 wt.%, respectively. The
196 relatively high bio-oil yield was obtained by using CAC1 and CAC3, indicating that
197 most of the fractions produced from catalytic co-pyrolysis of DF and LDPE were
198 converted into condensable liquid fuel compounds. The coke yield from catalytic
199 co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF ranged from 3.1 to 9.0 wt.%. The higher coke yield was
200 conducive to suppress the catalytic efficiency of the catalyst due to the fact that the
201 coke always deposited on the catalyst during the catalytic pyrolysis process, causing
202 the blockage of micropores and further decline of activating sites ^{3, 30}. The result
203 showed that CAC4 caused higher coke yield than other CACs. The char yield
204 produced from catalytic co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF over various ACCs ranged
205 around 14.0%, suggesting that the formation of char was insensitive to the catalyst
206 category. This was due to that the same pyrolytic temperature was employed, which
207 played a crucial role during the pyrolysis experiment ^{3, 31}.

208 In the bio-oil produced from the catalytic pyrolysis process of lignocellulosic
209 biomass, the generation of water is always accompanied by pyrolytic bio-oil due to
210 the dehydration reaction of hemicellulose, cellulose, and lignin. The water content
211 usually ranges 15-30%, which varies with diverse starting materials, catalyst
212 categories and heating manners ¹¹⁻¹². The high content of water is pernicious to bio-oil
213 quality. In the current study, the content of the oil phase in bio-oil produced from
214 catalytic co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF over various ACCs ranged from 54.1 to 67.5

215 wt.%. The maximum and minimum oil phase contents were obtained when CAC2 and
216 CAC6 as a catalyst, respectively. To better understand the effect of various CACs on
217 the components of bio-oil produced from the catalytic co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF,
218 the GC/MS was employed to analyze the organic chemical compositions of the oil
219 phase and water phase in bio-oil, respectively. In general, the components of the oil
220 phase mainly are hydrocarbons, such as aromatics, alkanes, etc., and the components
221 of the water phase mainly are oxygenates, such as acid, ketones, furan, phenolics,
222 aldehydes, etc ¹⁹. The detail organic components of the water and oil phases produced
223 from the current reaction condition were exhibited in Fig. 2B and Fig. 2C.
224 Interestingly, the results showed that the major components in the oil phase were
225 hydrocarbons, and these hydrocarbons can be divided into five parts, namely C₈-C₁₆
226 aromatics and aliphatics (jet fuel fractions), C₁₇-C₂₃ aromatics and alkanes (diesel
227 fractions), and others (C₂₃₊ aliphatics and oxygenates). It can be seen from Fig. 2B,
228 the jet fuel fractions were the dominating components in the oil phase of bio-oil. The
229 selectivity of C₈-C₁₆ aromatics and alkanes varied from 15.0 to 51.6 area.% and from
230 38.5 to 54.6 area.%, respectively. The maximum C₈-C₁₆ aromatics (51.6 area.%) and
231 C₈-C₁₆ hydrocarbon (90.1 area.%) was achieved when the CAC5 was the catalyst
232 during the catalytic co-pyrolysis process, which also resulted in the minimum
233 selectivity of other components. This may be ascribed to the different activated
234 methods of CACs that only CAC5 was chemically activated by H₃PO₄ and others
235 were produced by steam activation. It reported that activated carbon produced by the
236 chemical activation process always has a large surface area and advanced cellular
237 structure ³². The components of the water phase predominantly consisted of phenolics
238 (guaiacols and phenols) and other oxygenates as shown in Fig. 2C. Among them, the
239 phenolics included guaiacols and phenols. The selectivity of phenolics in the water
240 phase produced from catalytic co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF ranged from 30.4 to 92.9
241 area.% and the maximum was achieved when the CAC5 was used as a catalyst in the
242 current study. More important, the quantified GC/MS showed that the maximum
243 phenol concentration (25.0 mg/mL) can be obtained in the water phase produced from
244 the co-pyrolysis process over the CAC5 catalyst. The results demonstrated that when

245 using CAC5 as a catalyst during co-pyrolysis of the LDPE and DF process, both
246 hydrocarbons-rich and phenols-rich bio-oil can be obtained simultaneously.
247 Therefore, the CAC5 exhibited the optimum catalytic performance when compared
248 with other ACCs. In order to further understand the catalytic performance of CAC5
249 during the catalytic co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF process, the effect of important
250 parameters including pyrolysis temperature, LDPE/DF ratio and catalyst/feedstock
251 ratio on pyrolysis products were investigated respectively.

252 **Catalytic co-pyrolysis of DF and LDPE under various pyrolytic temperatures**

253 Fig. 3 shows the product yields and selectivity of representative chemical
254 compounds on the basis of various pyrolytic temperatures with the fixed
255 catalyst/feedstock ratio of 1.0 and LDPE/DF ratio of 0.7. The liquid, coke, char, and
256 gas yields are presented in Fig. 3A. Pyrolytic temperature is the most critical
257 operating argument during the pyrolysis process due to the fact that it regulates the
258 decomposition and cracking of the materials. The obtained bio-oil yield with various
259 pyrolytic temperatures (425-550 °C) firstly increased from 39.4 to 52.7 wt.% then
260 slightly decreased to 51.2 wt.%, with the maximum value at 525 °C. The gas yield
261 monotonically increased from 14.1 to 35.5 wt.% with the pyrolytic temperature
262 increased from 425 to 550 °C. These were ascribed to that the pyrolysis reaction is a
263 kind of endothermic processes, increasing pyrolytic temperature was conducive to the
264 devolatilization and cracking, which caused the increase in the liquid and gas yields.
265 However, further enhancing the pyrolytic temperature from 525 to 550 °C could
266 accelerate the secondary cracking reaction, resulting in the conversion of vapor into
267 non-condensable gaseous products³³⁻³⁴. This was consistent with the increased gas
268 yield by rising temperatures from 525 to 550 °C. The yields of char and coke showed
269 similar trends, which decreased steadily from 16.9 to 12.9 wt.%, and from 29.6 to 0.4
270 wt.%, respectively, when the pyrolytic temperature increased from 425 to 550 °C.
271 Similar results were reported in previous studies^{15, 25, 35}. The char is the solid residue
272 left after feedstock degradation, while the coke is deposited on the catalyst during the
273 pyrolysis process. The results demonstrated that higher pyrolytic temperature

274 promoted the decomposition of feedstock in the tube furnace into volatile compounds.

275 The oil phase in bio-oil produced from catalytic co-pyrolysis at 425 °C was
276 merely 11.0 area.%. This was due to that the dehydration reaction was the domination
277 under such low pyrolytic temperature. The maximum oil phase of 59.0 area.% was
278 achieved at 450 °C and finally decreased to 45.7 area.% when the pyrolytic
279 temperature increased to 550 °C. The effect of pyrolytic temperature on the
280 components of bio-oil produced from the catalytic co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF was
281 investigated as shown in Fig. 3B. In the oil phase of bio-oil, the selectivity of C₈-C₁₆
282 hydrocarbons showed an increasing trend, and the maximum value of 98.5 area.%
283 was obtained at 550 °C. On the other hand, the selectivity of C₁₇-C₂₃ hydrocarbons
284 decreased from 38.8 to 0 area.% with increase pyrolytic temperature from 425 to 550
285 °C. The results showed that high pyrolytic temperature was conducive to improve the
286 bio-oil quality from the perspective of jet fuel. Among of them, the selectivity of
287 C₈-C₁₆ aromatics increased from 15.6 to 67.3 area.%, while the C₈-C₁₆ alkanes
288 decreased from 44.8 to 31.3 area.% with increased temperature from 424 to 550 °C.
289 This phenomenon was due to that the aromatics were generated from the
290 deoxygenation of phenols and Diels-Alder reaction of olefins from the cracking of
291 long-chain hydrocarbons ³⁶. High pyrolytic temperature accelerated the cracking of
292 long-chain hydrocarbons, promoting the conversion of olefins into aromatics through
293 the Diels-Alder reaction, which caused the increase in selectivity of aromatics and the
294 decrease in long-chain aliphatics selectivity. In the meantime, hydrogen radicals can
295 be divulged from the Diels-Alder reaction of olefins, and the high temperature was
296 conducive to accelerate the transformation of hydrogen radicals to biomass-derived
297 oxygenates, ultimately promoting the deoxygenation of phenols to produce aromatics
298 ^{3, 31}. As shown in Fig. 3C, the quantified GC/MS showed that the phenol
299 concentration increased from 23.5 to 25.5 mg/mL then decreased to 21.7 mg/mL with
300 an increase of catalytic temperature from 425 to 550 °C. There were no guaiacols in
301 the water phase when the pyrolytic temperature was above 475 °C. The phenolics
302 selectivity firstly increased from 77.4 to 92.9 area.% and then decreased to 87.2
303 area.% with the increase of pyrolytic temperature from 425 to 550 °C. Both the

304 maximum value of phenolic selectivity and the minimum other oxygenates selectivity
305 were obtained at 500 °C. The phenolics were formed after the aromatization,
306 decarboxylation, and dehydration of oxygenates during the catalytic co-pyrolysis
307 process over ACC^{15,19}.

308 Based on the selectivity of C₈-C₁₆ hydrocarbons, the 550 °C was the optimum
309 pyrolytic temperature for catalytic co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF. However, the
310 catalytic co-pyrolysis process at 500 °C resulted in the highest oil phase in bio-oil and
311 the optimum phenol selectivity. In addition, from an economic perspective, 500 °C
312 was more energy conservation and low consumption when compared with 550 °C.
313 Therefore, the pyrolytic temperature of 500 °C was employed for the following
314 research.

315 **Catalytic co-pyrolysis of DF and LDPE under various LDPE/DF ratios**

316 The effect of various LDPE/DF ratios (0, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, 1.0) on the products
317 produced from catalytic co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF over CAC5 is exhibited in Fig.
318 4. The pyrolytic temperature was 500 °C and the catalyst/feedstock ratio was 1. As
319 shown in Fig. 4A, there was no char formation during the catalytic pyrolysis of LDPE
320 alone, suggesting the LDPE can be converted totally with a high yield of bio-oil (81.7
321 wt.%) and low yield of coke (2.7 wt.%). On the contrary, the lower yield of bio-oil
322 (39.0 wt.%), higher yields of coke (6.7 wt.%), and char (24.3 wt.%) were observed
323 during catalytic pyrolysis of DF alone. With the increase of LDPE in feedstock during
324 the catalytic co-pyrolysis process, the bio-oil yield increased from 46.2 to 59.5 wt.%,
325 while the yields of coke and char showed an opposite trend, which decreased from 4.9
326 to 2.0 wt.% and from 18.5 to 11.8 wt.%, respectively. The optimum product yields
327 were achieved at the LDPE/DF ratio of 1.0. The increased bio-oil yield was due to
328 that more loading of LDPE could provide more hydrogen during the co-pyrolysis
329 process, suppressing the polymerization reaction of oxygenates derived from DF
330 pyrolysis and accelerating the conversion of DF. In the meantime, the combination of
331 LDPE derived free hydrogen radicals with DF derived oxygenates could accelerate
332 the cracking of hydrocarbon chains and its derivatives, which was also conducive to

333 promote the conversion of LDPE³⁷⁻³⁸. The decreased yields of char and coke could be
334 attributed to that the transformation of hydrogen from LDPE to DF during
335 co-pyrolysis process suppressed the cross-linking and poly-reaction, reducing the
336 formation of stable macromolecular polymers³¹.

337 It was worth noticing that there was no oil phase in bio-oil produced from
338 catalytic pyrolysis of DF alone, and similarly no water phase in bio-oil produced from
339 merely catalytic pyrolysis of LDPE. The high oil content usually represents the great
340 quality of bio-oil, it can be seen from Fig. 4A, with the increase of the LDPE/DF ratio
341 from 0.3 to 1.0 in the feedstock, the oil phase increased from 10.1 to 59.5 wt.%. The
342 maximum oil phase in bio-oil was obtained when the LDPE/DF ratio was 1.0. The
343 components of oil and water phases in bio-oil produced from catalytic co-pyrolysis of
344 LDPE and DF also significantly affected by various ratios of LDPE/ DF. As shown in
345 Fig. 4B, there were no hydrocarbons in the oil phase produced from catalytic
346 pyrolysis of DF alone. This was due to the fact that ACC was conducive to improve
347 the phenolic selectivity and convert lignocellulosic biomass into phenolics during fast
348 pyrolysis process¹⁷.

349 The result agreed with the organic compositions in the water phase, which were
350 mainly consisted of phenolics (35.0 area.% guaiacols and 55.5 area.% phenols) as
351 shown in Fig. 4C. The phenols selectivity significantly increased when the LDPE/DF
352 ratio was higher than 0.3 and without guaiacols in the obtained bio-oil. The highest
353 phenols selectivity of 92.9 area.% was reached at the LDPE/DF ratio of 0.7. The
354 results showed that the excessive utilization of LDPE was not conducive to improve
355 the phenols selectivity. In addition, the GC/MS quantification results showed that an
356 increase in LDPE addition caused a decrease of phenol concentration. These were due
357 to the fact that with the increase of LDPE in the feedstock, more hydrogen was
358 provided to DF derived oxygenates, facilitating the deoxygenation reaction during the
359 co-pyrolysis process. It is reported that the oxygen of the methoxy group in guaiacols
360 was more likely to be interrupted than that of phenolic hydroxyl group³⁹⁻⁴⁰.
361 Therefore, with the increase of LDPE/DF ratio from 0.3 to 0.7, the deoxygenation
362 reaction of methoxy in guaiacols was dominant accompanied with lightly

363 deoxygenation reaction of phenolic hydroxyl group during co-pyrolysis process,
364 causing a large increase in alkoxy phenol and slightly decrease in phenol, which
365 resulted in the significantly improved phenols selectivity and slightly decrease in
366 phenol concentration. With further improved the LDPE/DF ratio to 1.0, the
367 deoxygenation reaction of the phenolic hydroxyl group strengthened, causing a
368 significant decrease in both selectivities of phenols and phenol concentration. The
369 total C₈-C₁₆ hydrocarbons in the oil phase produced from co-pyrolysis LDPE/DF
370 decreased slightly, among of them, C₈-C₁₆ aromatics decreased from 62.2 to 46.8
371 area.% with the increase of LDPE in the feedstock. This can be ascribed that the main
372 products from LDPE pyrolysis were alkanes (38.6 area.% of C₈-C₁₆ aliphatics and
373 24.7 area.% of C₁₇-C₂₃ aliphatics). The increase in LDPE loading resulted in a
374 decrease in catalyst/LDPE ratio, suggesting that lesser catalytic sites were provided to
375 volatiles produced from LDPE pyrolysis. This prevented the cracking of long-chain
376 hydrocarbons and Diel-Alder reaction of an olefin, leading to less generation of
377 aromatics in bio-oil. It can be verified by the selectivity of C₈-C₁₆ aliphatics and
378 C₁₇-C₂₃ aliphatics, which increased from 30.5 to 41.2 area.% and from 5.5 to 10.5
379 area.%, respectively, with the increase of LDPE loading during the co-pyrolysis
380 process.

381 To better understand the interaction between LDPE and DF during the catalytic
382 co-pyrolysis process, the synergistic effect was studied via bio-oil yield, aromatic
383 selectivity, aliphatic selectivity, and phenolic selectivity, respectively. The calculated
384 value of bio-oil yield and aromatic selectivity were calculated by the following
385 equation:

$$386 \quad SE = (Y_e - Y_c)/Y_c \quad (1)$$

$$387 \quad Y_c = P_1 \times Y_1 + P_2 \times Y_2 \quad (2)$$

388 Where the P_1 and P_2 are the weight percentages of LDPE and DF in the feedstock,
389 respectively; Y_1 and Y_2 are the experimental values of bio-oil yield, aromatic
390 selectivity, aliphatic selectivity and phenolic selectivity produced from LDPE and DF
391 pyrolysis, receptively; Y_c and Y_e are the calculated value and experimental value. As

392 exhibited in Table 2, the experimental value of bio-oil yield was lower than the
393 calculated value, suggesting that there was no synergistic effect between LDPE and
394 DF. However, the experimental value of aromatic selectivity, aliphatics selectivity,
395 and phenolic selectivity dramatically higher than the calculated value under various
396 LEPD/DF ratios. Therefore, from the perspective of aromatic selectivity, aliphatics
397 selectivity, and phenolic selectivity, there was a synergistic effect between LDPE and
398 DF during the catalytic co-pyrolysis process. It can be seen from Table 2, the
399 synergistic effects of aromatic selectivity and aliphatics selectivity between LDPE and
400 DF decreased with increasing addition of LDPE, whereas the phenolic selectivity
401 showed a different trend, which increased from 0.33 to 0.87. From the phenol
402 selectivity, the LDPE/DF ratio of 0.7 was the optimum condition for catalytic
403 co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF.

404 **Catalytic co-pyrolysis of DF and LDPE under various catalyst loadings**

405 Fig. 5A exhibits the various products yields on the basis of catalyst loadings with
406 a fixed pyrolytic temperature of 500 °C and the LDPE/DF of 0.7. The coke yield
407 firstly increased from 3.1 to 4.1 wt.% then decreased to 2.9 wt.% with an increase of
408 catalyst loading, and the maximum value was obtained at the catalyst/feedstock ratio
409 of 0.7. The char yield varied from 13.9 to 14.5 wt.% and the minimum yield was
410 achieved at the catalyst/feedstock ratio being 0.4. The relatively low char yield
411 indicated that most feedstocks were degraded during the catalytic co-pyrolysis
412 process. The bio-oil yield significantly decreased with the increase of catalyst
413 addition. It can be seen that the bio-oil yield decreased from 56.5 to 46.1 wt.% with
414 the catalyst/feedstock ratios ranging from 0.4 to 1.3, suggesting that a higher catalyst
415 loading was against to the bio-oil generation. This was ascribed to that more catalyst
416 loading caused longer residence time when the volatiles produced from feedstock
417 degradation passed through the catalyst, which resulted in the more secondary
418 cracking reaction of volatiles into small molecular chemicals^{34, 41}. It was in
419 agreement with the gas yield, which increased from 26.5 to 36.5 wt.% with an
420 increase of catalyst/feedstock ratio from 0.4 to 1.3. In addition, the oil phase

421 decreased monotonically from 64.4 to 48.6 wt.% with the increase of catalyst loading.
422 The relatively low oil phase in bio-oil indicated higher water phase content in bio-oil.
423 This was due to that more catalyst addition provided more activated sites and
424 facilitated the deoxygenation in the form of water, resulting in the more generation of
425 the water phase in bio-oil.

426 Fig. 5B and Fig. 5C show the components of bio-oil produced from catalytic
427 co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF under various catalyst loadings. The selectivity of jet
428 fuel fractions (C_8 - C_{16} hydrocarbons) improved from 69.7 to 93.2 area.% with more
429 catalyst usage, indicating that the bio-oil quality improved obviously. The C_8 - C_{16}
430 aromatics and phenols increased significantly from 22.1 to 58.7 area.% and from 43.2
431 to 94.6 area.%, respectively. This was due to the fact that longer residence time
432 caused by increasing the catalyst loading prolonged the contact between catalyst and
433 volatiles produced from feedstock decomposition, facilitating the cracking reaction of
434 long-chain hydrocarbons derived from LDPE. As a result, more short-chain aliphatics
435 were generated and therefore facilitated the aromatization and Diels-Alder reaction,
436 leading to an increase in aromatic selectivity. In addition, more hydrogen radicals
437 were released during aromatization and Diels-Alder reaction of light aliphatics, and
438 thus accelerated the dehydration reaction of the oxygenates derived from DF, leading
439 to the increase in phenol selectivity. In the meantime, the phenol concentration
440 increased dramatically with the increase of catalyst/feedstock ratio from 0.4 to 0.7 and
441 then maintained at about 25.5 mg/mL with further increasing the catalyst/feedstock
442 ratio to 1.3. It can be seen from Fig.5B, the selectivity of C_8 - C_{16} aliphatics, C_{17} - C_{23}
443 hydrocarbons and other oxygenates decreased dramatically. The results demonstrated
444 that more catalyst loading was conducive to improve the bio-oil quality by enhancing
445 the selectivity of aromatics and phenols. However, it prevented the bio-oil yield and
446 the generation of the oil phase in bio-oil. The catalytic co-pyrolysis at
447 catalyst/feedstock ratio of 1.0 caused higher bio-oil yield, and the selectivity of
448 aromatics and phenols was similar to that at 1.3. In addition, from an economic
449 perspective, the cost of the catalyst/feedstock ratio of 1.0 was lower than that of 1.3
450 due to less consumption of catalysts. Therefore, according to the aforementioned, the

451 catalyst/feedstock of 1.0 was the optimum condition for catalytic co-pyrolysis of
452 LDPE and DF under the current experiment.

453 **Process robustness and the recyclability of the CAC5**

454 The co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF was investigated in the aforementioned
455 decomposition conditions to assure the generation of miscellaneous levels of jet fuels
456 and phenols. The recyclability and lifetime are critical properties in evaluating a
457 catalyst for practical utilization. Herein, the used CAC5 after one time run with a
458 pyrolytic temperature of 500 °C, catalyst/feedstock ratio of 1.0, and LDPE/DF ratio of
459 0.7 as exhibited in Table 1. R21 was reused for the second time and the third time
460 with the same experimental conditions. The catalytic co-pyrolysis results exhibited a
461 low selectivity of aromatics (24.3 area.%) and phenols (37.5 area.%), and the majority
462 of chemicals in the water phase of bio-oil with used CAC5 were oxygenated. The jet
463 fuel fraction in the oil phase also decreased significantly. The results suggested that
464 the activated sites of catalyst were partly blocked by coke deposition in the surface of
465 CAC5 and therefore exhibited lower activities after the second recycling run,
466 indicating that the durability and lifetime of CAC5 were poor. This can be
467 demonstrated by the yield of bio-oil, which increased from 51.4 to 64.3 wt.%. The
468 previous research by our group found that the calcination was an effective and
469 low-cost method to improve the regeneration capacity of biomass-based activated
470 carbon ¹⁵. Maybe it is also a promising way to improve the recyclability of
471 commercial CAC5 in the current study, which needs further verification in a future
472 study. Additionally, Yang et al. proposed deep regeneration approach using H₂O and
473 O₂ as regeneration agents to overcome the catalytic activity deterioration of activated
474 carbon, and the results implied that the regenerated activated carbon could maintain
475 its physical properties within several cycles of reuse ⁴². Lately, Jeon et al. regenerated
476 the spent activated carbon by washing with a surfactant followed by drying and
477 calcination aimed to remove the boron from the catalysts. The authors stated that
478 boron might block the catalyst pores leading to the decline of active sites. And it was
479 demonstrated that the activity and surface area of the activated carbon were

480 significantly recovered after the regeneration process ⁴³. Therefore, although the
481 recyclability of CAC5 was poor, it is still a promising catalyst due to its lower
482 production cost and environmental-friendly properties ⁴⁴.

483 **The analysis of the chemical composition of non-condensable gas produced from**
484 **the catalytic co-pyrolysis process under various conditions**

485 CO₂, CH₄, CO, and H₂ were reported as the major components of gas products
486 from catalytic pyrolysis of biomass over ACC ⁴⁵. However, the gas fraction is always
487 ignored and not well investigated. In the current study, the components of gas
488 products were analyzed and quantified by Micro-GC, which could afford more
489 knowledge for researching the decomposition pathway in the catalytic co-pyrolysis
490 process. The components of gas (H₂, CH₄, CO, C₃H₈/C₃H₆, and C₄H₁₀/C₄H₈) were
491 identified and quantified in a gas fraction. In general, the concentrations of
492 C₂H₆/C₂H₄, C₃H₈/C₃H₆ and C₄H₁₀/C₄H₈ were very low (< 8.9 vol.%) in a gas fraction,
493 especially for the concentrations of C₃H₈/C₃H₆ and C₄H₁₀/C₄H₈, which lower than 4.7
494 vol.% in a gas fraction. Here, the syngas was researched as the target components and
495 therefore added the CO₂ into other categories in order to simplify the further analysis.
496 As shown in Fig. 6A, the catalytic co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF over the CAC5
497 catalyst caused the highest concentration of target gas. The result was due to that the
498 CAC5 provided the optimum catalytic efficiency than other catalysts, facilitating the
499 decarbonylation and cracking reaction of volatiles into small molecules, which
500 resulted in a high concentration of CH₄ and target gas. This was in agreement with the
501 aforementioned results.

502 The effect of various pyrolytic temperatures on the gas components at the fixed
503 LDPE/DF ratios of 0.7 and catalyst/feedstock ratios of 1.0 is exhibited in Fig. 6B. In
504 the current study, among the target components, CO was the dominant fraction from
505 22.7 to 37.6 vol.%. The CO from the co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF was mainly
506 originated from the decarbonylation reaction due to the catalytic effect of activated
507 carbon. The concentration of H₂ was increased from 1.9 to 23.7 vol.% then decreased
508 to 9.7 vo.l% when the pyrolytic temperature increased from 425 to 550 °C, and the

509 maximum was obtained at 525 °C. The concentration of CH₄ showed a similar trend
510 with H₂, which obtained a maximum of 23.6 vol.% at 500 °C. The results showed that
511 high temperature was conducive to the bonding cracking of volatiles towards small
512 molecules, the relatively low temperatures were appropriate for the demethylation of
513 the volatiles within the CAC5. These were in agreement with previous studies^{15, 31, 46}.
514 The gas components under various LDPE/DF ratios at the fixed pyrolytic temperature
515 of 550 °C and catalyst/feedstock ratio of 1.0 is described in Fig. 6C. It was suggested
516 that the increasing addition of LDPE enhanced the concentration of H₂ from 8.1 to
517 17.4 vol.%, whereas reduced the CH₄ and CO concentration. The increased
518 concentration of H₂ was due to that H₂ from the co-pyrolysis of LDPE and DF was
519 mainly originated from the cracking reaction of LDPE. When increasing the amount
520 of LDPE, the LDPE/catalyst ratio in reaction system will be increased, resulting in the
521 activated sites of ACC was not sufficient to convert a feedstock, which caused the
522 reduction of demethylation and decarbonylation, and further caused the decrease of
523 CH₄ and CO concentrations. Fig. 6D shows the effect of catalyst/feedstock ratios on
524 gas components with a fixed pyrolytic temperature of 550 °C and LDPE/DF ratios of
525 0.7. The results showed that increasing loading of catalyst enhanced the
526 concentrations of H₂ and CH₄, whereas decreased the concentration of CO. This was
527 due to that more catalyst loading accelerated the cracking of long-chain aliphatics in
528 LDPE into light hydrocarbons, meanwhile improved the aromatization reaction of the
529 resulted light olefin, causing more generation of hydrogen. Therefore, the more
530 hydrogen could be provided to oxygenates derived from DF, the more accelerated the
531 formation of water. As a consequence, the decarbonylation was alleviated and
532 resulted in less generation of CO. In the catalyst deactivation experiment, the
533 micropores of catalyst were partly blocked and alleviated the catalyst performance,
534 leading to the yield reduction of CH₄ and target gas (R21-R23).

535 Real waste plastics vary from one another and also differ with model plastics
536 regarding structures, constitutions, and properties, etc., which may have effects on the
537 catalytic performance of activated carbon and is also an important part of our
538 following co-pyrolysis studies. The previous work of our group performed the

539 catalytic pyrolysis of daily waste plastics including polystyrene (PS), polyethylene
540 (PE), polypropylene (PP), and polyethylene terephthalate (PET) over commercial
541 activated carbons. It was found that the activated carbons could also catalyze the
542 conversion of real waste plastics and showed a good potential on withstanding
543 deactivation. The resulting liquid products had a similar distribution with that from
544 the catalytic pyrolysis of model LDPE, which was comparable to jet fuel range
545 hydrocarbons ⁴⁷. Norbert et al. investigated the catalytic pyrolysis of the mixture of
546 real waste plastics LDPE and HDPE over activated carbon and zeolites. The authors
547 declared that the activated carbon showed a better nature in the case of decreasing the
548 sulfur content in liquid oil by comparison with zeolites MCM-41 and HZSM-5 ⁴⁸.

549 **A proposed mechanism of phenol and renewable jet fuel generation from** 550 **catalytic co-pyrolysis of Douglas fir and LDPE**

551 In the current study, the production of renewable jet fuels and high-purity
552 phenols can be achieved simultaneously. A plausible reaction mechanism for
553 co-feeding Douglas fir and LDPE was proposed as shown in Fig. 7. Many types of
554 research have revealed that phenols were primarily produced from lignin
555 depolymerization due to its benzene rings structure ^{16, 49}. During the pyrolysis process,
556 the β -O-4 bond of lignin can be cracked by the energy provided by heating, which
557 resulted in the formation of some free radicals. The resulted free radicals were then
558 depolymerized into some phenols and methoxy-phenols. At the same time, the
559 resulted methoxy-phenols can be converted into phenol and methyl-phenol due to acid
560 catalytic sites provided by activated carbon ⁵⁰. In the current study, as a kind of
561 renewable plentiful biomass resources, Douglas fir consists of cellulose,
562 hemicellulose, and lignin. It is reported that some C5 and C6 molecules such as
563 furfural and furan ring were generated from the decomposition of cellulose and
564 hemicellulose by dehydration, arrangement, and decarboxylation ^{51,52}. On the one
565 hand, the resulted C5 molecules can be converted into benzene ring fraction by
566 catalytic sites of ACC via Diels-Alder, oligomerization, and decarbonylation. In the
567 meantime, CO, CH₄, and H₂O were released. On the other hand, the resulted C6

568 molecules were via rearrangement reaction by the “phenol pool” of ACC converted
569 into 2-methyl-2-cyclopentene-1-one, a most crucial intermediate in phenol
570 production, which was further converted into phenol by rearrangement reaction and
571 releasing a hydrogen molecule ¹⁵.

572 As for LDPE decomposition, it is reported that the C-C bond of LDPE can be
573 cracked by energy provided by heating during the pyrolysis process. The LDPE was
574 decomposed into long-chain hydrocarbons and low-molecular-weight olefins through
575 random scission and chain-end scission ^{53,54}. During the co-pyrolysis process, the
576 low-molecular-weight olefins derived from LDPE reacted with partial furan
577 compounds derived from Douglas fir by Diels-Alder reaction and dehydration
578 reaction to form aromatics. At the same time, these olefins also can be converted into
579 aromatics by oligomerization, cyclization, and aromatization reaction. In addition, the
580 H⁺ produced from LDPE degradation was provided to Douglas fir-derived
581 oxygenates, resulting in the conversion of partial phenolics and oxygenates into
582 aromatics over ACC by the dehydration, oligomerization and cracking reactions.
583 Many previous studies have demonstrated that ACC has excellent performance to
584 catalytic biomass into phenol-rich bio-oil ^{16,55,56}. However, in the current study, the
585 results revealed that biomass can be converted into aromatics and phenol
586 simultaneously when co-feeding with hydrogen donors. This innovative finding paves
587 a novel and eco-friendly pathway for converting biomass into hydrocarbon-rich
588 bio-oil and phenols-rich chemicals.

589 **Conclusions**

590 The conversion of Douglas fir and LDPE into bio-oil was carried out in the
591 current study. The effects of catalyst category, pyrolytic temperature,
592 catalyst/feedstock ratio, and polyethylene/Douglas fir ratios on the products were
593 analyzed. Among six commercial activated carbons, CAC5 was found to be effective
594 in the conversion of feedstock into jet fuel and phenols. From the perspectives of
595 bio-oil quality, the optimal reaction condition for catalytic co-pyrolysis of feedstock
596 was the pyrolytic temperature of 500 °C, the catalyst/feedstock ratio of 1.0, and the

597 LDPE/DF ratio of 0.7. The GC/MS results showed that the highest selectivity of jet
598 fuel was 98.6 area.%, in which the high selectivity of aromatics (67.3 area.%) was
599 achieved. The highest phenols selectivity of 92.9 area.% was obtained under the
600 optimal reaction conditions. The phenol concentration up to 26.4 mg/mL can be
601 obtained in the current study. The Miro-GC results indicated that among CH₄, CO₂,
602 H₂ and CO, the high concentrations of CH₄ (23.6 vol.%) and CO (39.1 vol.%) were
603 obtained. The current work paves a promising route to simultaneously produce
604 renewable jet fuels and high-purity phenols under inexpensive and mild conditions.

605 **Conflicts of interest**

606 There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

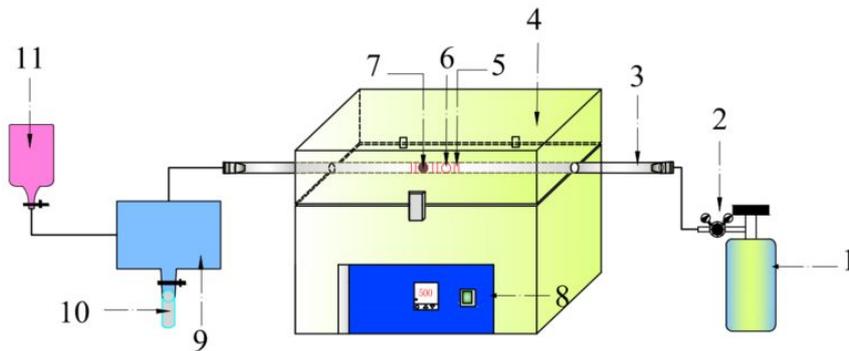
607 **Acknowledgment**

608 This study was partially supported by The Agriculture and Food Research Initiative of
609 National Institute of Food and Agriculture, United States Department of Agriculture
610 (Award Number: 2016-67021-24533; Award Number: 2018-67009-27904), The
611 National Natural Science Foundation of China, The Key Research and Development
612 Program of Jiangxi Province, China Scholarship Council (Award Number: 21766019;
613 Award Number: 20171BBF60023; Award Number: 201706820027) and Xcel Energy.
614 We would like to thank Dr. Aftab Ahamed for the help with GC/MS analysis. And we
615 also appreciate Dr. Valerie Lynch-Holm and Dr. Dan Mullendore for the SEM/EDS
616 training and analysis carried out in Franceschi Microscopy & Imaging Center (FMIC)
617 of Washington State University.

618

619 **Figures:**

620



621

622

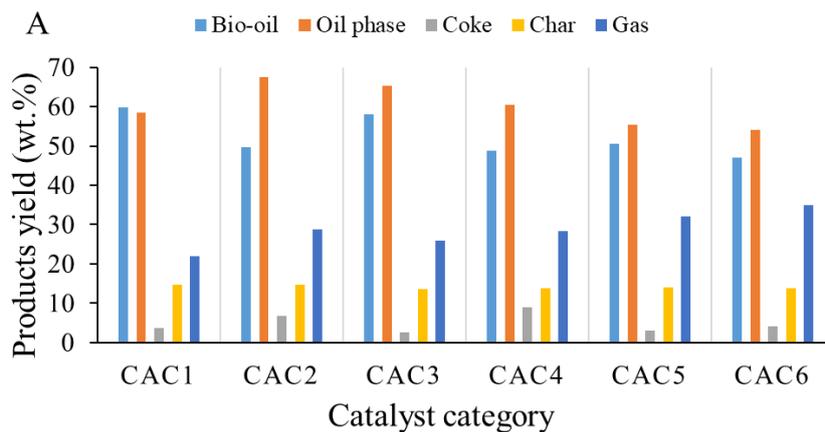
623 **Fig. 1.** Schematic diagram of ex-situ catalytic pyrolysis. (1): Nitrogen gas; (2):

624 Gas-flow meter; (3): Quartz tube; (4): Fixed bed furnace; (5): Quartz wool; (6):

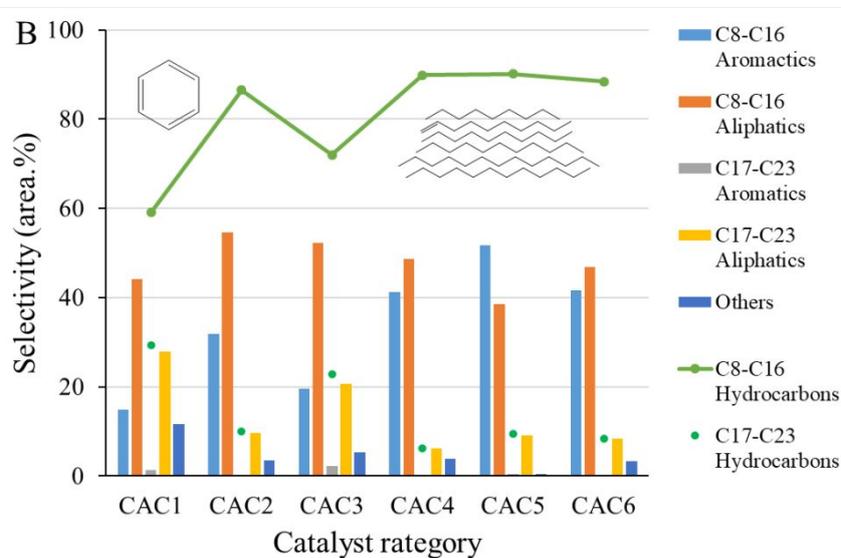
625 Samples; (7): Catalysts; (8): Control panel of the furnace; (9): Condenser; (10):

626 Liquid collector; (11): Gas collector.

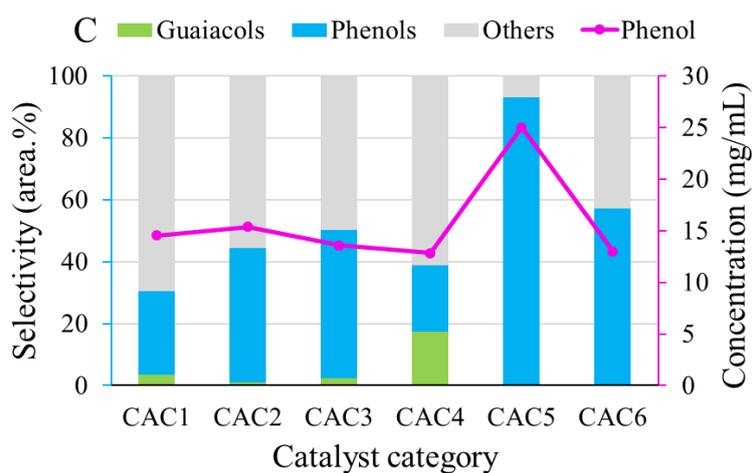
627



628



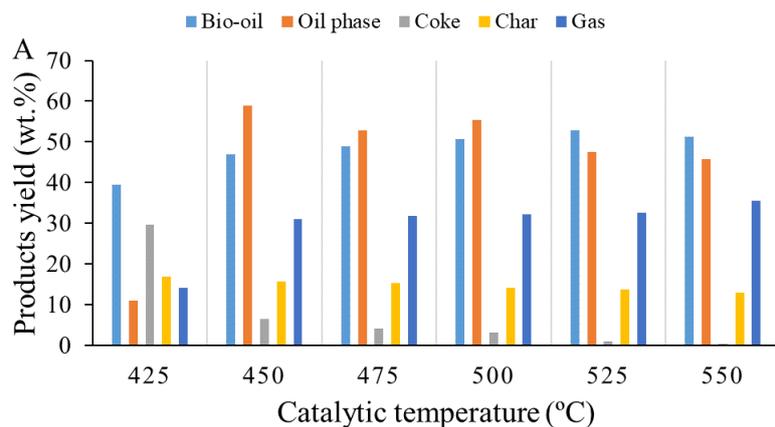
629



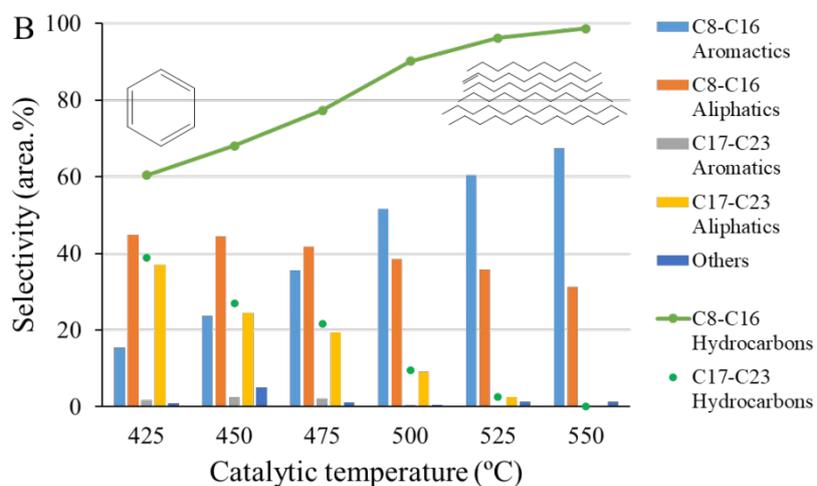
630

631

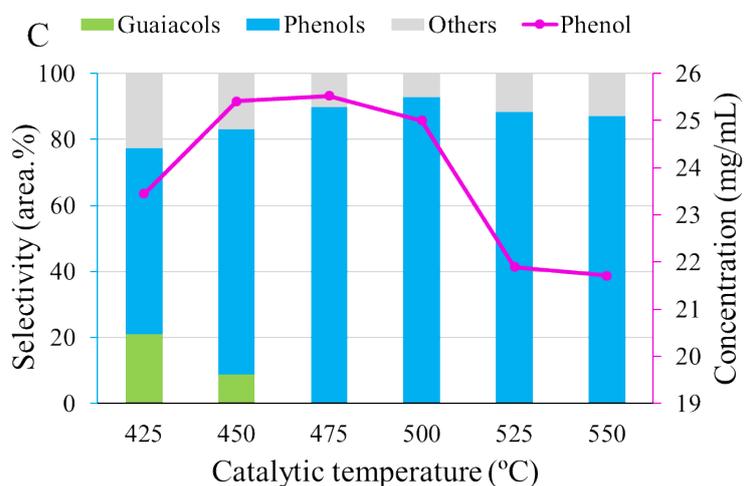
632 **Fig. 2.** Product yield distribution and composition of upgraded bio-oils varied with
 633 different catalyst categories.



634



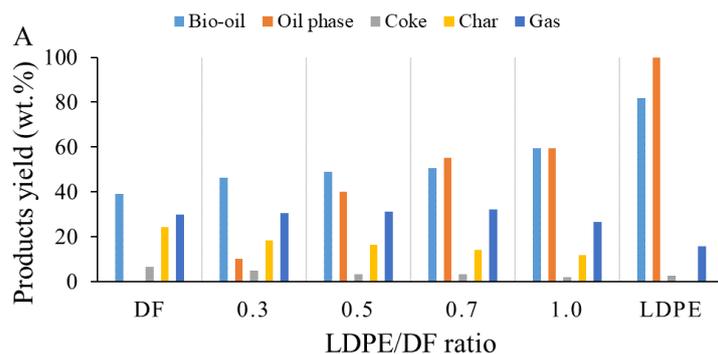
635



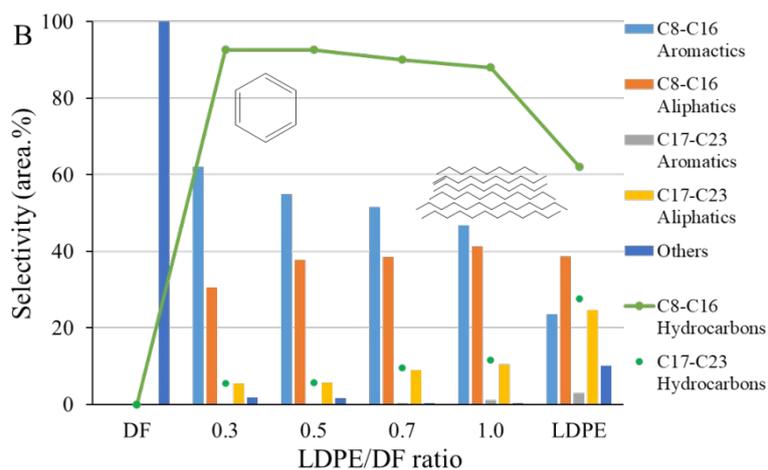
636

637

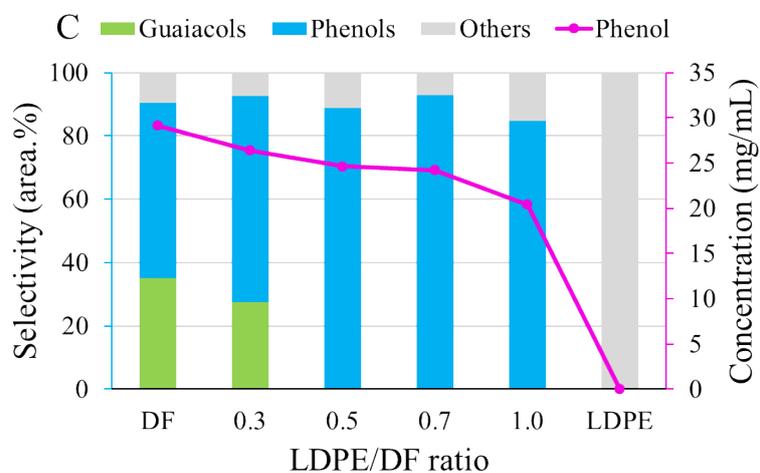
638 **Fig. 3.** Product yield distribution and composition of upgraded bio-oils varied with
 639 different pyrolytic temperatures over CAC5.



640



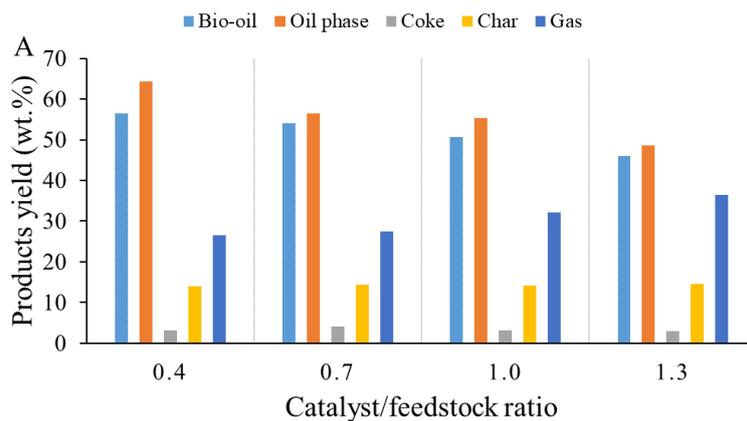
641



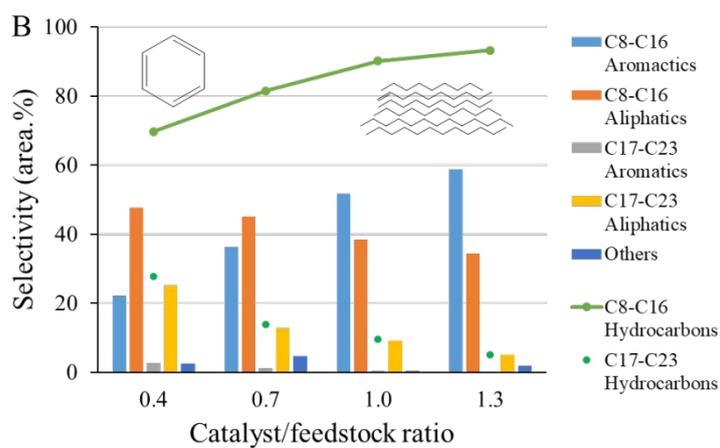
642

643

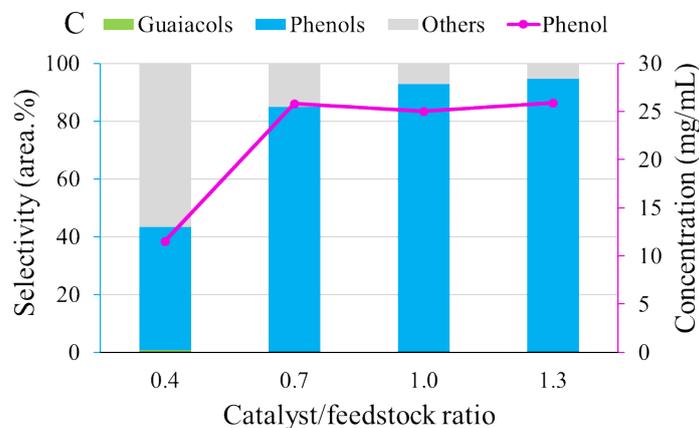
644 **Fig. 4.** Product yield distribution and composition of upgraded bio-oils varied with
 645 different LDPE/DF ratios. The pyrolytic temperature was 500 °C and the
 646 CAC5/feedstock ratio was 1.



647



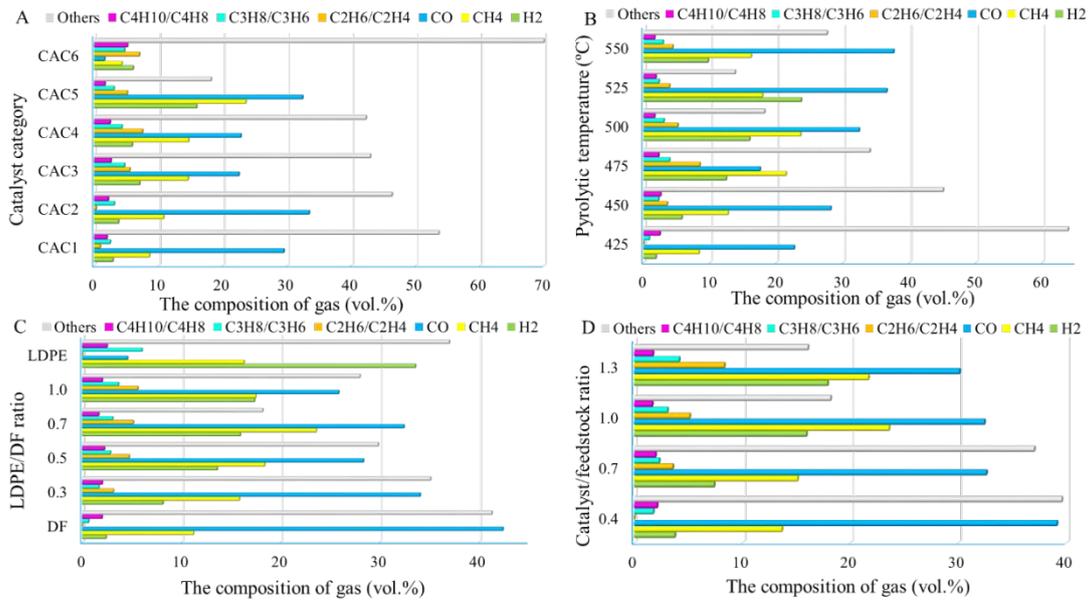
648



649

650

651 **Fig. 5.** Product yield distribution and composition of upgraded bio-oils varied with
 652 different CAC5/feedstock ratios. The pyrolytic temperature of 500 °C and the
 653 LDPE/DF of 0.7.



654

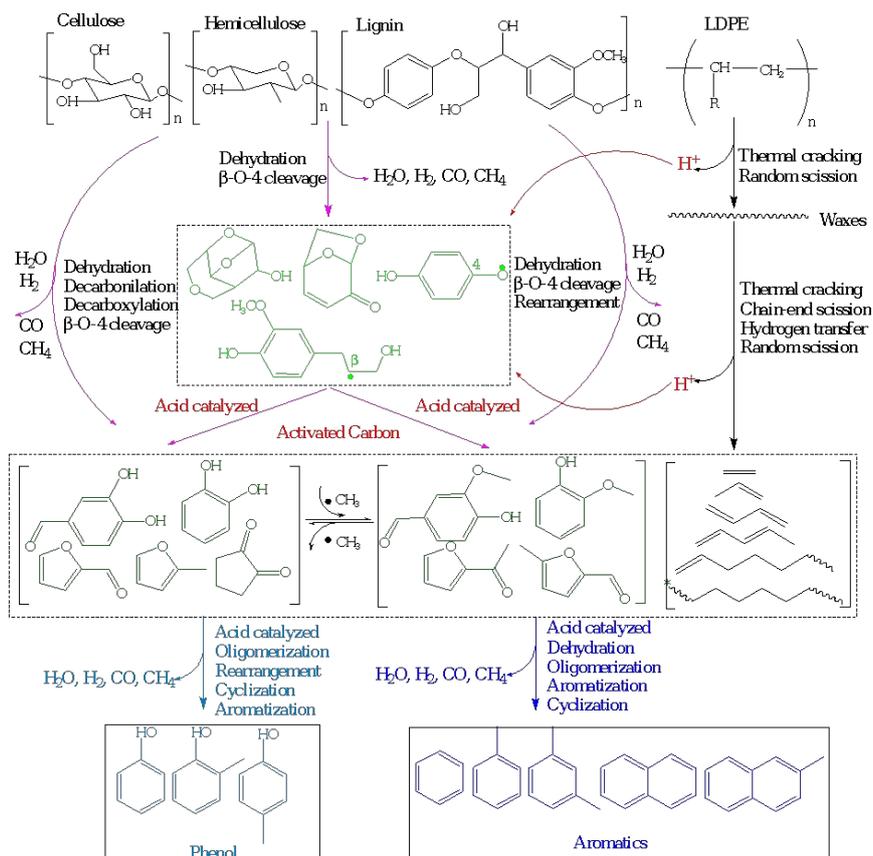
655

656 **Fig. 6.** The composition of gas fraction varied with (A) catalyst categories, (B)

657 pyrolytic temperatures, (C) LDPE/DF ratios, and (D) catalyst/feedstock ratios.

658

659



660

661

662 **Fig. 7.** The proposed reaction pathway of forming phenol and aromatics from the
 663 co-pyrolysis of Douglas fir and LDPE over activated carbon catalyst.

664

665 **Tables:**

666 **Table 1** List of reaction condition for each run

| Run ^a | Catalyst Category | Pyrolytic Temperature (°C) | LDPE/DF Ratio | Catalyst/feedstock Ratio |
|------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|---------------|--------------------------|
| R1 | CAC1 | 500 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R2 | CAC2 | 500 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R3 | CAC3 | 500 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R4 | CAC4 | 500 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R5 | CAC5 | 500 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R6 | CAC6 | 500 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R7 | CAC5 | 425 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R8 | CAC5 | 450 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R9 | CAC5 | 475 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R10 | CAC5 | 525 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R11 | CAC5 | 550 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R12 | CAC5 | 500 | DF | 1.0 |
| R13 | CAC5 | 500 | 0.3 | 1.0 |
| R14 | CAC5 | 500 | 0.5 | 1.0 |
| R15 | CAC5 | 500 | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| R16 | CAC5 | 500 | LDPE | 1.0 |
| R17 | CAC5 | 500 | 0.7 | 0.4 |
| R18 | CAC5 | 500 | 0.7 | 0.7 |
| R19 | CAC5 | 500 | 0.7 | 1.3 |
| R20 | CAC5 | 500 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R21 | CAC5 | 500 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R22 | CAC5 | 500 | 0.7 | 1.0 |
| R23 | CAC5 | 500 | 0.7 | 1.0 |

667 ^a R5, R20, and R21 were conducted under the same condition three times. R22 and R23 were
 668 tested for the reused catalyst for two times from R21.

669 **Table 2** Synergistic effects between LDPE and DF during the catalytic co-pyrolysis
 670 process under various LDPE/DF ratios over CAC5.

| | | LDPE/DF ratios | | | | | LDPE |
|------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|
| | | DF | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.7 | 1.0 | |
| Yield of Bio-oil (wt.%) | Y _c | - | 48.9 | 53.2 | 56.6 | 60.4 | - |
| | Y _e | 39.0 | 46.2 | 48.9 | 50.6 | 59.5 | 81.7 |
| | SE | - | -0.06 | -0.08 | -0.11 | -0.01 | - |
| Selectivity of aromatics (area.%) | Y _c | - | 6.1 | 8.8 | 10.9 | 13.2 | - |
| | Y _e | 0.0 | 62.2 | 54.9 | 52.1 | 47.9 | 26.4 |
| | SE | - | 9.20 | 5.24 | 3.78 | 2.63 | - |
| Selectivity of aliphatics (area.%) | Y _c | - | 14.6 | 21.1 | 26.1 | 31.7 | - |
| | Y _e | 0.0 | 36.0 | 43.5 | 47.5 | 51.7 | 63.4 |
| | SE | - | 1.47 | 1.06 | 0.82 | 0.63 | - |
| Selectivity of phenolics (area.%) | Y _c | - | 69.6 | 60.3 | 53.2 | 45.3 | - |
| | Y _e | 90.5 | 92.5 | 88.7 | 92.9 | 84.8 | 0.0 |
| | SE | - | 0.33 | 0.47 | 0.75 | 0.87 | - |

671

672 **References**

- 673 1. Kunkes, E. L.; Simonetti, D. A.; West, R. M.; Serrano-Ruiz, J. C.; Gärtner, C. A.; Dumesic,
674 J. A., Catalytic conversion of biomass to monofunctional hydrocarbons and targeted liquid-fuel
675 classes. *Science* **2008**, *322* (5900), 417-421.
- 676 2. Morgan Jr, H. M.; Bu, Q.; Liang, J.; Liu, Y.; Mao, H.; Shi, A.; Lei, H.; Ruan, R., A review of
677 catalytic microwave pyrolysis of lignocellulosic biomass for value-added fuel and chemicals.
678 *Bioresource technology* **2017**, *230*, 112-121.
- 679 3. Duan, D.; Wang, Y.; Dai, L.; Ruan, R.; Zhao, Y.; Fan, L.; Tayier, M.; Liu, Y., Ex-situ
680 catalytic co-pyrolysis of lignin and polypropylene to upgrade bio-oil quality by microwave
681 heating. *Bioresource technology* **2017**, *241*, 207-213.
- 682 4. Alonso, D. M.; Wettstein, S. G.; Dumesic, J. A., Bimetallic catalysts for upgrading of
683 biomass to fuels and chemicals. *Chemical Society Reviews* **2012**, *41* (24), 8075-8098.
- 684 5. Perlack, R. D., *Biomass as feedstock for a bioenergy and bioproducts industry: the technical*
685 *feasibility of a billion-ton annual supply*. Oak Ridge National Laboratory: 2005.
- 686 6. Isikgor, F. H.; Becer, C. R., Lignocellulosic biomass: a sustainable platform for the
687 production of bio-based chemicals and polymers. *Polymer Chemistry* **2015**, *6* (25), 4497-4559.
- 688 7. Kim, J.-S., Production, separation and applications of phenolic-rich bio-oil—a review.
689 *Bioresource technology* **2015**, *178*, 90-98.
- 690 8. Wang, H.; Male, J.; Wang, Y., Recent advances in hydrotreating of pyrolysis bio-oil and its
691 oxygen-containing model compounds. *Acs Catalysis* **2013**, *3* (5), 1047-1070.
- 692 9. Zhang, X.; Lei, H.; Chen, S.; Wu, J., Catalytic co-pyrolysis of lignocellulosic biomass with
693 polymers: a critical review. *Green Chemistry* **2016**, *18* (15), 4145-4169.
- 694 10. Demirbaş, A., Biomass resource facilities and biomass conversion processing for fuels and
695 chemicals. *Energy conversion and Management* **2001**, *42* (11), 1357-1378.
- 696 11. Zhang, Q.; Chang, J.; Wang, T.; Xu, Y., Review of biomass pyrolysis oil properties and
697 upgrading research. *Energy conversion and management* **2007**, *48* (1), 87-92.
- 698 12. Zhang, Y.; Lei, H.; Yang, Z.; Qian, K.; Villota, E., Renewable High-Purity Mono-Phenol
699 Production from Catalytic Microwave-Induced Pyrolysis of Cellulose over Biomass-Derived
700 Activated Carbon Catalyst. *ACS Sustainable Chemistry & Engineering* **2018**, *6* (4), 5349-5357.
- 701 13. Schmidt, R. J., Industrial catalytic processes—phenol production. *Applied Catalysis A:*

- 702 *General* **2005**, *280* (1), 89-103.
- 703 14. Effendi, A.; Gerhauser, H.; Bridgwater, A. V., Production of renewable phenolic resins by
704 thermochemical conversion of biomass: a review. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*
705 **2008**, *12* (8), 2092-2116.
- 706 15. Zhang, Y.; Lei, H.; Yang, Z.; Duan, D.; Villota, E.; Ruan, R., From glucose-based
707 carbohydrates to phenol-rich bio-oils integrated with syngas production via catalytic pyrolysis
708 over an activated carbon catalyst. *Green Chemistry* **2018**, *20* (14), 3346-3358.
- 709 16. Omoriyekomwan, J. E.; Tahmasebi, A.; Yu, J., Production of phenol-rich bio-oil during
710 catalytic fixed-bed and microwave pyrolysis of palm kernel shell. *Bioresource technology* **2016**,
711 *207*, 188-196.
- 712 17. Yang, Z.; Lei, H.; Zhang, Y.; Qian, K.; Villota, E.; Qian, M.; Yadavalli, G.; Sun, H.,
713 Production of renewable alkyl-phenols from catalytic pyrolysis of Douglas fir sawdust over
714 biomass-derived activated carbons. *Applied Energy* **2018**, *220*, 426-436.
- 715 18. Bu, Q.; Lei, H.; Ren, S.; Wang, L.; Holladay, J.; Zhang, Q.; Tang, J.; Ruan, R., Phenol and
716 phenolics from lignocellulosic biomass by catalytic microwave pyrolysis. *Bioresource technology*
717 **2011**, *102* (13), 7004-7007.
- 718 19. Bu, Q.; Lei, H.; Wang, L.; Wei, Y.; Zhu, L.; Liu, Y.; Liang, J.; Tang, J., Renewable phenols
719 production by catalytic microwave pyrolysis of Douglas fir sawdust pellets with activated carbon
720 catalysts. *Bioresource technology* **2013**, *142*, 546-552.
- 721 20. Wang, J.; Bi, P.; Zhang, Y.; Xue, H.; Jiang, P.; Wu, X.; Liu, J.; Wang, T.; Li, Q., Preparation
722 of jet fuel range hydrocarbons by catalytic transformation of bio-oil derived from fast pyrolysis of
723 straw stalk. *Energy* **2015**, *86*, 488-499.
- 724 21. Carlson, T. R.; Vispute, T. P.; Huber, G. W., Green gasoline by catalytic fast pyrolysis of
725 solid biomass derived compounds. *ChemSusChem: Chemistry & Sustainability Energy &*
726 *Materials* **2008**, *1* (5), 397-400.
- 727 22. Czernik, S.; Bridgwater, A., Overview of applications of biomass fast pyrolysis oil. *Energy &*
728 *fuels* **2004**, *18* (2), 590-598.
- 729 23. Wang, L.; Lei, H.; Bu, Q.; Ren, S.; Wei, Y.; Zhu, L.; Zhang, X.; Liu, Y.; Yadavalli, G.; Lee,
730 J., Aromatic hydrocarbons production from ex situ catalysis of pyrolysis vapor over Zinc modified
731 ZSM-5 in a packed-bed catalysis coupled with microwave pyrolysis reactor. *Fuel* **2014**, *129*,

- 732 78-85.
- 733 24. Zhang, H.; Xiao, R.; Nie, J.; Jin, B.; Shao, S.; Xiao, G., Catalytic pyrolysis of black-liquor
734 lignin by co-feeding with different plastics in a fluidized bed reactor. *Bioresource technology*
735 **2015**, *192*, 68-74.
- 736 25. Liu, S.; Xie, Q.; Zhang, B.; Cheng, Y.; Liu, Y.; Chen, P.; Ruan, R., Fast microwave-assisted
737 catalytic co-pyrolysis of corn stover and scum for bio-oil production with CaO and HZSM-5 as
738 the catalyst. *Bioresource technology* **2016**, *204*, 164-170.
- 739 26. Li, J.; Yu, Y.; Li, X.; Wang, W.; Yu, G.; Deng, S.; Huang, J.; Wang, B.; Wang, Y.,
740 Maximizing carbon efficiency of petrochemical production from catalytic co-pyrolysis of biomass
741 and plastics using gallium-containing MFI zeolites. *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental* **2015**,
742 *172*, 154-164.
- 743 27. Dorado, C.; Mullen, C. A.; Boateng, A. A., Origin of carbon in aromatic and olefin products
744 derived from HZSM-5 catalyzed co-pyrolysis of cellulose and plastics via isotopic labeling.
745 *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental* **2015**, *162*, 338-345.
- 746 28. Lopez, G.; Artetxe, M.; Amutio, M.; Bilbao, J.; Olazar, M., Thermochemical routes for the
747 valorization of waste polyolefinic plastics to produce fuels and chemicals. A review. *Renewable*
748 *and Sustainable Energy Reviews* **2017**, *73*, 346-368.
- 749 29. Cheng, S.; Wei, L.; Zhao, X.; Julson, J., Application, deactivation, and regeneration of
750 heterogeneous catalysts in bio-oil upgrading. *Catalysts* **2016**, *6* (12), 195.
- 751 30. Zhang, X.; Wang, T.; Ma, L.; Zhang, Q.; Huang, X.; Yu, Y., Production of cyclohexane from
752 lignin degradation compounds over Ni/ZrO₂-SiO₂ catalysts. *Applied energy* **2013**, *112*, 533-538.
- 753 31. Xue, Y.; Kelkar, A.; Bai, X., Catalytic co-pyrolysis of biomass and polyethylene in a tandem
754 micropyrolyzer. *Fuel* **2016**, *166*, 227-236.
- 755 32. Budinova, T.; Ekinici, E.; Yardim, F.; Grimm, A.; Björnbohm, E.; Minkova, V.; Goranova, M.,
756 Characterization and application of activated carbon produced by H₃PO₄ and water vapor
757 activation. *Fuel processing technology* **2006**, *87* (10), 899-905.
- 758 33. Pütün, A. E.; Özbay, N.; Önal, E. P.; Pütün, E., Fixed-bed pyrolysis of cotton stalk for liquid
759 and solid products. *Fuel Processing Technology* **2005**, *86* (11), 1207-1219.
- 760 34. Xie, Q.; Peng, P.; Liu, S.; Min, M.; Cheng, Y.; Wan, Y.; Li, Y.; Lin, X.; Liu, Y.; Chen, P.,
761 Fast microwave-assisted catalytic pyrolysis of sewage sludge for bio-oil production. *Bioresource*

- 762 *technology* **2014**, *172*, 162-168.
- 763 35. Wei, Y.; Lei, H.; Zhu, L.; Zhang, X.; Liu, Y.; Yadavalli, G.; Zhu, X.; Qian, M.; Yan, D.,
764 Hydrocarbon produced from upgrading rich phenolic compound bio-oil with low catalyst coking.
765 *Fuel* **2016**, *178*, 77-84.
- 766 36. Cheng, Y.-T.; Huber, G. W., Production of targeted aromatics by using Diels–Alder classes
767 of reactions with furans and olefins over ZSM-5. *Green Chemistry* **2012**, *14* (11), 3114-3125.
- 768 37. Matsuzawa, Y.; Ayabe, M.; Nishino, J., Acceleration of cellulose co-pyrolysis with polymer.
769 *Polymer degradation and stability* **2001**, *71* (3), 435-444.
- 770 38. Sharypov, V.; Beregovtsova, N.; Kuznetsov, B.; Membrado, L.; Cebolla, V.; Marin, N.;
771 Weber, J., Co-pyrolysis of wood biomass and synthetic polymers mixtures. Part III:
772 Characterisation of heavy products. *Journal of Analytical and Applied pyrolysis* **2003**, *67* (2),
773 325-340.
- 774 39. Pandey, M. P.; Kim, C. S., Lignin depolymerization and conversion: a review of
775 thermochemical methods. *Chemical Engineering & Technology* **2011**, *34* (1), 29-41.
- 776 40. Saidi, M.; Samimi, F.; Karimipourfard, D.; Nimmanwudipong, T.; Gates, B. C.; Rahimpour,
777 M. R., Upgrading of lignin-derived bio-oils by catalytic hydrodeoxygenation. *Energy &*
778 *Environmental Science* **2014**, *7* (1), 103-129.
- 779 41. Xie, Q.; Borges, F. C.; Cheng, Y.; Wan, Y.; Li, Y.; Lin, X.; Liu, Y.; Hussain, F.; Chen, P.;
780 Ruan, R., Fast microwave-assisted catalytic gasification of biomass for syngas production and tar
781 removal. *Bioresource technology* **2014**, *156*, 291-296.
- 782 42. Yang, L.; Liu, F.; Liu, Yang.; Quan, W.; He, J.; Deep regeneration of activated carbon catalyst
783 and autothermal analysis for chemical looping methane thermo-catalytic decomposition process.
784 *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, **2018**, *43*, 17633-17642.
- 785 43. Jong, Jeon.; Hyeonjoo, K.; Young-Kwon, Park.; Charles, P.; Do, H. K.; Regeneration of
786 field-spent activated carbon catalysts for low-temperature selective catalytic reduction of NO_x
787 with NH₃. *Chemical Engineering Journal*, **2011**, *174*, 242-248.
- 788 44. Ng, C.; Marshall, W. E.; Rao, R. M.; Bansode, R. R.; Losso, J. N., Activated carbon from
789 pecan shell: process description and economic analysis. *Industrial crops and products* **2003**, *17*
790 (3), 209-217.
- 791 45. Bu, Q.; Lei, H.; Ren, S.; Wang, L.; Zhang, Q.; Tang, J.; Ruan, R., Production of phenols and

- 792 biofuels by catalytic microwave pyrolysis of lignocellulosic biomass. *Bioresource technology*
793 **2012**, *108*, 274-279.
- 794 46. Zhang, X.; Lei, H.; Wang, L.; Zhu, L.; Wei, Y.; Liu, Y.; Yadavalli, G.; Yan, D., Renewable
795 gasoline-range aromatics and hydrogen-enriched fuel gas from biomass via catalytic
796 microwave-induced pyrolysis. *Green Chemistry* **2015**, *17* (7), 4029-4036.
- 797 47. Zhang, Y.; Duan, D.; Lei, H.; Elmar V.; Ruan, R.; Jet fuel production from waste plastics via
798 catalytic pyrolysis with activated carbons. *Applied Energy* **2019**, *251*, 113337.
- 799 48. Norbert, M.; Wu, C.; Paul T. W.; Fuels by Waste plastics using activated carbon, MCM-41,
800 HZSM-5 and their mixture. *MATEC Web of Conferences* **2016**, *49*, 05001.
- 801 49. Xu, C.; Arancon, R. A. D.; Labidi, J.; Luque, R., Lignin depolymerisation strategies: towards
802 valuable chemicals and fuels. *Chemical Society Reviews* **2014**, *43* (22), 7485-7500.
- 803 50. Bu, Q.; Lei, H.; Qian, M.; Yadavalli, G., A thermal behavior and kinetics study of the
804 catalytic pyrolysis of lignin. *RSC Advances* **2016**, *6* (103), 100700-100707.
- 805 51. Wang, K.; Kim, K. H.; Brown, R. C., Catalytic pyrolysis of individual components of
806 lignocellulosic biomass. *Green Chemistry* **2014**, *16* (2), 727-735.
- 807 52. Ren, S.; Lei, H.; Wang, L.; Bu, Q.; Chen, S.; Wu, J.; Julson, J.; Ruan, R., Biofuel production
808 and kinetics analysis for microwave pyrolysis of Douglas fir sawdust pellet. *Journal of Analytical*
809 *and Applied Pyrolysis* **2012**, *94*, 163-169.
- 810 53. Artetxe, M.; Lopez, G.; Amutio, M.; Elordi, G.; Bilbao, J.; Olazar, M., Light olefins from
811 HDPE cracking in a two-step thermal and catalytic process. *Chemical Engineering Journal* **2012**,
812 *207*, 27-34.
- 813 54. Zhang, X.; Lei, H.; Yadavalli, G.; Zhu, L.; Wei, Y.; Liu, Y., Gasoline-range hydrocarbons
814 produced from microwave-induced pyrolysis of low-density polyethylene over ZSM-5. *Fuel* **2015**,
815 *144*, 33-42.
- 816 55. Lu, Q.; Zhang, Z.-b.; Yang, X.-c.; Dong, C.-q.; Zhu, X.-f., Catalytic fast pyrolysis of biomass
817 impregnated with K₃PO₄ to produce phenolic compounds: analytical Py-GC/MS study. *Journal of*
818 *analytical and applied pyrolysis* **2013**, *104*, 139-145.
- 819 56. Mamaeva, A.; Tahmasebi, A.; Tian, L.; Yu, J., Microwave-assisted catalytic pyrolysis of
820 lignocellulosic biomass for production of phenolic-rich bio-oil. *Bioresource technology* **2016**, *211*,
821 382-389.

Graphical Abstract:

