# BIOFUELS AND BIOENERGY A Techno-Economic Approach



Edited by Baskar Gurunathan Renganathan Sahadevan

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# A Techno-Economic Approach

Edited by

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# Contents

List of co Preface	ntributors	xxv xxxiii
	on I Biorefinery approaches in biofuels and ergy production	
pro M.	undaries and openings of biorefineries towards sustainable biofuel oduction Rajamehala, Renugaa Su, B. Gopalakrishnan, A. Muthu Kumara Pandian,	3
<i>I</i> VI.	Vijay Pradhap Singh and S. Chozhavendhan	
1.		3
	1.1.1 Biorefinery	4
1.	2 Sources of biorefinery	4
	1.2.1 Phase I biorefinery	6
	1.2.2 Phase II biorefinery	6
	1.2.3 Phase III biorefinery	6
1.:		6
	1.3.1 First-generation fuels	7 7
	<ul><li>1.3.2 Second-generation fuels</li><li>1.3.3 Third-generation fuels</li></ul>	7
	1.3.4 Fourth-generation fuels	7
1.	Production methods of biofuel	8
1.4		o 8
1	1.5.1 Mechanical methods	9
	1.5.2 Thermochemical methods	9
	1.5.2 Chemical pretreatment	10
	1.5.4 Biological pretreatment	10
1.0	6 Production of different biofuels	10
	<b>1.6.1</b> Bioelectricity generation	11
1.	7 Production of ethanol and electricity	11
	B Production of ethanol, lactic acid, and electricity	12
	9 Furfural, ethanol and electricity production	12
	Coproduction of butanol and electricity	12
	1 Production of methanol and electricity	13
1.12	2 Purification process	13
1.13	3 Biogas—biomethane production	14

	1.14	Applications	15
	1.15	Limitations of biorefineries	16
	1.16	Future perspectives of biorefineries	16
	1.17	Conclusion	16
	Refe	rences	17
2.	-	erspective on the biorefinery approaches for bioenergy production	
	in a	a circular bioeconomy process	23
	Jen	ram Karanam Rathankumar, Kongkona Saikia, Senthil Kumar Ponnusamy, et George, Priyanka Saravanan, Anna Shaji, Upasana Mohanty and oth Kumar Vaidyanathan	
	2.1	Introduction	23
	2.2	Bioenergy	24
		2.2.1 Biorefinery	25
		2.2.2 Valorization of biomass	28
	2.3	Bioeconomy, circular economy, and green economy	31
		2.3.1 Circular bioeconomy	32
		2.3.2 Biorefinery and circular bioeconomics	33
		Limitations and future perspective of circular bioeconomy	38
		Conclusion	39
		nowledgment	40
	Refe	erences	40
3.		omprehensive integration of biorefinery concepts for the production piofuels from lignocellulosic biomass	45
	Kon Jen	gkona Saikia, Abiram Karanam Rathankumar, Senthil Kumar Ponnusamy, et George, Anna Shaji, Priyanka Saravanan, Upasana Mohanty and oth Kumar Vaidyanathan	
	3.1	Introduction	45
	3.2	Biomass for biorefinery	46
		3.2.1 Algal biorefinery	46
		3.2.2 Lignocellulosic biorefinery	48
	3.3	Biofuels from lignocellulosic biomass	51
	3.4	Strategies for the treatment of lignocellulosic biomass	55
		3.4.1 Pretreatment	55
		3.4.2 Separate hydrolysis and fermentation	58
		3.4.3 Simultaneous saccharification and fermentation	59
	3.5	Metabolic engineering approaches for biofuel production	60
	3.6	Integrated biorefinery	61
	3.7	Constrains and challenges	63
	3.8	Economic aspects and future of lignocellulosic biorefinery	63
	3.9	Conclusion	64

		nowledgments erences	65 65
4.	pro	luation of activated sludge derived from wastewater treatment cess as a potential biorefinery platform tika Thakur and Shyam Kumar Masakapalli	71
	-		71
		Introduction	71 72
	4.2	<ul><li>Activated sludge as a potential resource for fermentative products</li><li>4.2.1 Analytical techniques to characterize organic valuables in sludge fermentation</li></ul>	72
		<b>4.2.1</b> Analytical techniques to characterize organic valuables in sludge leftheritation <b>4.2.2</b> Organic molecules characterized in sludge fermentation	75
	43	Activated sludge as refinery for biogases (methane and hydrogen)	76
	ч.5	4.3.1 Physicochemical parameters for activated sludge as biorefinery	76
		4.3.2 Biogas yields obtained using sludge fermentation	77
		4.3.3 Limitations of sludge bioprocessing and refinements	78
	4.4	Activated sludge as a source of other organic by-products	,0
		(fertilizer, refuse-derived fuel)	79
		4.4.1 Reduced sludge for agricultural use	79
		4.4.2 Other biorefinery perspectives for reduced sludge	80
	4.5	Conclusion	80
	Ack	nowledgments	80
	Refe	erences	81
5.	tec	ights into the impact of biorefineries and sustainable green hnologies on circular bioeconomy heerthivasan, Nadeem Siddiqui, E. Nakkeeran and K. Divakar	85
	5.1		85
		Bioeconomy and circular economy collide in the circular bioeconomy	86
	5.3		88
		Product usage strategies for circular bioeconomy	90
	5.1	5.4.1 Biomimicry and waste biorefinery	91
		5.4.2 Metabolic approach	91
		5.4.3 Lignocellulosic biorefinery	91
		5.4.4 Municipal waste biorefinery	92
	5.5	Reusing bio-based high-value products	93
		Effect of biomass utilization on circular bioeconomy	94
		5.6.1 Cascading the use of biomass	94
		5.6.2 Waste-to-energy technologies	96
	5.7	Agriculture management for sustainable circular bioeconomy	97
	5.8	Industrial and environmental policy for promoting circular bioeconomy	97
	5.9	Conclusion	99
	Refe	erences	99

# Section II Biofuels and bioenergy production - I

6.		mentation technology for ethanol production: current trends and llenges	105
		ni Jayakumar, Selvakumar Kuppusamy Vaithilingam, Natchimuthu Karmegam, eab Bizuneh Gebeyehu, Maria Susai Boobalan and Baskar Gurunathan	
	6.1	Introduction	105
	6.2	Lignocellulosic biomass	105
	6.3	The electronic structure chemistry of cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin	108
	6.4	Pretreatment of lignocellulosic biomass	110
	6.5	Fermentation technology	111
		6.5.1 Separate hydrolysis and fermentation	111
		6.5.2 Simultaneous saccharification and fermentation	117
	6.6	Ethanol production using native microbes	117
		6.6.1 C5 sugar fermentative microbes	118
		6.6.2 C6 sugar fermentative microbes	119
	6.7	Fermentation technology for ethanol production using recombinant	
		engineered microbes	119
		6.7.1 Yeast (Saccharomyces cerevisiae)	120
		<b>6.7.2</b> Zymomonas mobilis	120
		6.7.3 Escherichia coli	121
	6.8	Trends, challenges, and future prospects in the bioethanol production	121
		<b>6.8.1</b> Trends	121
		6.8.2 Challenges and prospects	122
	6.9	Conclusion	123
	Refe	erences	123
7.	Imr	proved enzymatic hydrolysis of lignocellulosic waste biomass:	
	•	st essential stage to develop cost-effective second-generation	
		fuel production	133
	Pina	iki Dey, Geetika Gupta, Jayato Nayak and Kevin Joseph Dilip	
	7.1	Introduction	133
	7.2	Enzymatic saccharification of lignocellulosic feedstocks	135
		7.2.1 Different modes of enzymatic saccharification and their technical aspects	139
	7.3	Factors influences in efficient enzymatic saccharification of lignocellulosic biomass	141
		7.3.1 Ideal pretreatment of biomass	141
		7.3.2 Utilization of potent enzymes, produced from waste biomasses and	
		high-yield microbes	144
		7.3.3 Reaction conditions influencing enzymatic hydrolysis process	148
	7.4	Reusability of cellulase enzyme to develop cost-effective enzymatic saccharification	
		process	152

	Economic aspects and future prospective of enzymatic saccharification-based lignocellulosic biofuel production	1
	Conclusion	1
Refer	ences	1
	ances and sustainable conversion of waste lignocellulosic biomass	
	biofuels	1
	appan, Baskar Gurunathan, M. Gopinath, A. Vaishnavi, S. Prathiba, nishka, K. Gomathi and V. Dhithya	
8.1	Introduction	1
8.2	Biofuel: a sustainable fuel for future	
8.3	Lignocellulose: a potential substrate for the biofuel product	
8.4	Pretreatment methods for lignocellulose biomass	
	8.4.1 Physical methods	
	8.4.2 Mechanical pretreatment methods	
	8.4.3 Irradiation pretreatment method	
	8.4.4 Pyrolysis	
	8.4.5 Chemical methods	
	8.4.6 Biological pretreatment methods	
	8.4.7 Microbial pretreatment method	
8.5	Sources of lignocellulose biomass	
	8.5.1 Agricultural biomass	
	8.5.2 Forestry biomass	
	8.5.3 Industrial and municipal biomass	
	8.5.4 Wasteland biomass	
8.6	Analysis	
	8.6.1 Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy/X-ray	
8.7	Potential microbial strains involved in biofuel productions	
8.8	Fermentation methods for biofuel production	
	8.8.1 Separated hydrolysis and fermentation	
	8.8.2 Simultaneous saccharification and fermentation	
8.9	Reactor configuration	
8.10	Future perspectives	
8.11	Challenges	
8.12	Conclusion	
Refer	ences	
Lign	ocellulosic biomass as an alternate source for next-generation biofuel	2
-	ijamehala, A. Kaviprabha, A. Muthu Kumara Pandian, M. Vijay Pradhap Singh,	-

9.1 Introduction

	9.2	Raw ma <sup>-</sup>	terials	209
		9.2.1 W	Vheat	209
		9.2.2 C	Torn	209
		<b>9.2.3</b> S	ugarcane	210
		9.2.4 V	Vood/straw dust	211
	9.3	Lignocel	llulosic material	211
		<b>9.3.1</b> C	Composition of lignocellulosic feedstocks	211
	9.4	Process	for converting the lignocellulose to biofuels	212
		<b>9.4.1</b> B	liological process	213
		<b>9.4.2</b> ⊤	hermochemical process	217
	9.5	Conclusi	ion	218
	Refe	rences		218
10.	Pro	cess int	ensification in biobutanol production	223
	Kaila	as L. Was	sewar	
	10.1	Introdu	uction	223
	10.2	Biobuta	anol	225
		10.2.1	Need of biobutanol	225
		10.2.2	Characteristics of biobutanol	226
		10.2.3	Applications of butanol	227
	10.3	Produc	ction of biobutanol	228
		10.3.1	Preface for biobutanol production	228
		10.3.2	History of biobutanol production	229
		10.3.3	Categories of biobutanol	231
		10.3.4	Microorganism for biobutanol production	231
		10.3.5	Challenges in biobutanol production	232
	10.4	Process	s intensification	232
	10.5	Process	s intensification in production of biobutanol	233
		10.5.1	Bioreactors	234
		10.5.2	Continuous biofilm fixed bed reactor	235
			Membrane methods	236
		10.5.4	Distillation methods	242
		10.5.5	Fermentation with gas stripping	242
		10.5.6	Liquid—liquid extraction methods	245
		10.5.7	Adsorption methods	246
		10.5.8	Hybrid methods	248
		10.5.9	Other methods	250
	10.6	Conclu	ision	253
	Refe	rences		253

	luction of cellulosic butanol by clostridial fermentation: perior alternative renewable liquid fuel	263
Gobi	nath Rajagopalan and Chandraraj Krishnan	
11.1	Introduction	263
11.2	Production of butanol by Clostridium sp	264
	11.2.1 ABE fermentation	264
	11.2.2 IBE fermentation	266
11.3	Factors affecting butanol production	268
11.4	Enhancement of ABE fermentation	269
	11.4.1 Coculture of <i>Clostridium</i> sp	269
	11.4.2 Metabolic engineering	272
11.5	Butanol production from LCB	273
	11.5.1 Separate hydrolysis and fermentation	273
	11.5.2 Consolidated bioprocessing of LCB	277
11.6	Technoeconomic analysis	279
11.7	Conclusion	280
Refer	ences	280
12. Biob	outanol separation using ionic liquids as a green solvent	291
Kailas	s L. Wasewar	
12.1	Introduction	291
12.2	Butanol	292
	12.2.1 Background	292
	12.2.2 Characteristics	292
	12.2.3 Applications	293
	12.2.4 Production	293
	12.2.5 Separation	296
12.3	Liquid—liquid extraction and ionic liquids	297
	12.3.1 Separation	297
	12.3.2 Liquid—liquid extraction	297
	12.3.3 Ionic liquids	298
12.4	Butanol separation by ionic liquids	300
	12.4.1 Imidazolium-based ionic liquids	302
	12.4.2 Phosphonium-based ionic liquids	305
	12.4.3 Piperidinium-based ionic liquids	306
	12.4.4 Pyrrolidinium-based ionic liquids	306
		306 306
	12.4.4 Pyrrolidinium-based ionic liquids	
	<ul><li>12.4.4 Pyrrolidinium-based ionic liquids</li><li>12.4.5 Morpholinium-based ionic liquids</li></ul>	306

	12.5	Toxicity	y and biocompatibility of ionic liquids	310
		12.5.1	Biocompatibility	310
		12.5.2	Toxicity	311
	12.6	Recove	ery and reuse of ionic liquids	312
	12.7	Future	perspectives	313
	12.8	Conclu	sion	317
	Refer	ences		318
13.		-	prospects of microalgae after wastewater treatment to be ofuel production	323
			lirmal, Sholinghur Asuri Bhakthochidan, Ravichandran Vishal, an Babulu Roshini and Samuel Jacob	
	13.1	Introdu	uction	323
	13.2	Approp	priate selection methods for effective biofuel production	324
		13.2.1	Potential microalgae for biofuel production through wastewater	
			treatment	324
		13.2.2	Selection of appropriate media for enhanced microalgal biomass and lipid yield	325
		13.2.3	Selection of wastewater for microalgal growth	326
		13.2.4	Selection of wastewater pretreatment	327
		13.2.5	Free cell versus immobilized cell	327
	13.3	Types (	of microalgae cultivation	328
		13.3.1	High rate algal ponds	328
		13.3.2	Photobioreactor	329
		13.3.3	Hybrid system	330
		13.3.4	Microalgae turf scrubber	331
	13.4	Harves	ting microalgal biomass	331
		13.4.1	Chemical extraction	331
		13.4.2	Mechanical extraction	332
			Electrical extraction	332
			Biological method of extraction	332
	13.5		production from wastewater using microalgae	333
			Biodiesel	333
			Bioethanol and biohydrogen	335
			Syngas	336
			Biomethane	337
			Jet fuel	337
	13.6		nouse gas mitigation	338
			perspectives	339
		Conclu	SIOT	341 341
	References			

14.	Concurrent reduction of $CO_2$ and generation of biofuels by electrified microbial systems—concepts and perspectives				
	Bhargavi Gunturu, Adam Shahul Hameed and Renganathan Sahadevan				
	14.1	Introdu	iction	347	
		14.1.1	Electrode and possible effects on microbial electrosynthesis	354	
		14.1.2	Membrane configurations	360	
	14.2	Bacteria	al electrotrophs	360	
	14.3	Mechai	nism of electron uptake	363	
		14.3.1	Indirect extracellular electron transfer or mediator-dependent transfer	364	
		14.3.2	Direct extracellular electron transfer or mediator-free transfer	365	
	14.4	Carbon	dioxide reduction and biofuels generation	365	
	14.5	Challer	nges and future prospects	371	
	14.6	Conclu	sion	372	
	Refere	ences		372	

## Section III Biofuels and bioenergy production—II

15.	Chal	lenges	and opportunities in large-scale production of biodiesel	385	
	Umaiyambika Neduvel Annal, Arunodhaya Natarajan, Baskar Gurunathan, Vijay Mani and Renganathan Sahadevan				
	15.1	Introdu	ction	385	
	15.2	Assessr	nent from small-scale to large-scale production	387	
		15.2.1	Supply chain and logistics	387	
		15.2.2	Storage of oil seed	388	
	15.3	Comme	ercial-scale production of triglycerides	389	
		15.3.1	Source of triglycerides	389	
		15.3.2	Large scale oil production	389	
		15.3.3	Vegetable oil refining process	390	
		15.3.4	Degumming	391	
		15.3.5	Deacidification process	391	
		15.3.6	Bleaching	392	
		15.3.7	Deodorization process	392	
	15.4	Large-s	cale production structure of biodiesel plant	393	
		15.4.1	Refining process for biodiesel production	394	
		15.4.2	Esterification process	394	
		15.4.3	Transesterification process	394	
		15.4.4	Pumps and pipelines used	395	
		15.4.5	Reactors used	396	
		15.4.6	Product separation	397	

15.4.7 Neutralization	398
15.4.8 Methanol recovery	398
15.4.9 Biodiesel purification	398
15.4.10 Biodiesel drying	399
15.4.11 Recovery of methanol	399
15.5 Glycerol purification	400
15.5.1 Free fatty acid treatment	400
15.6 Wastewater treatment	401
15.6.1 Generation of wastewater	401
15.6.2 Significance of wastewater treatment method	401
15.6.3 Physical methods	403
15.6.4 Electrochemical method	403
15.6.5 Biological methods	404
<b>15.7</b> Cost analysis of wastewater treatment	404
<b>15.7.1</b> Economic analysis of biodiesel production	404
15.8 Conclusion	405
References	406
16. Lipid-derived biofuel: production methodologies	409
Umaiyambika Neduvel Annal, Arunodhaya Natarajan, Baskar Gurunathan and Renganathan Sahadevan	
16.1 Introduction	409
16.2 Properties of biodiesel	410
16.3 Biodiesel production methodologies	410
16.3.1 Direct use and blending	410
16.3.2 Microemulsion	411
16.3.3 Pyrolysis	413
16.4 Transesterification process	416
16.4.1 Parameters affecting transesterification process	417
16.4.2 Types of transesterification process	419
16.5 Overview of production methods	430
16.6 Conclusion	431
References	431
17. Interesterification reaction of vegetable oil and alkyl acetate as	

	sterification reaction of vegetable oil and alkyl acetate as ative route for glycerol-free biodiesel synthesis	435
Ratna Dewi Kusumaningtyas, Indah Purnamasari, Ririn Mahmudati and Haniif Prasetiawan		
	ntroduction	435
17.2	Biodiesel	436
17.3	nteresterification reaction	439

Kinetic	model of interesterification reaction	440
(Jatropi	ha curcas L.) with methyl acetate in the presence of sodium methoxide	
catalys		442
17.5.1	Methods	442
17.5.2	Kinetic model	443
17.5.3	Characterization of Jatropha oil	443
17.5.4	Effect of catalyst concentration	444
17.5.5	Effect of Jatropha oil to methyl acetate molar ratio	445
17.5.6	Effect of reaction time and temperature	447
17.5.7	Kinetic study	448
Conclu	sion	450
owledgr	nent	450
ences		450
	Case st ( <i>Jatropi</i> catalyst 17.5.1 17.5.2 17.5.3 17.5.4 17.5.5 17.5.6 17.5.7 Conclu	Case study: kinetic study on the biodiesel synthesis from Jatropha ( <i>Jatropha curcas</i> L) with methyl acetate in the presence of sodium methoxide catalyst 17.5.1 Methods 17.5.2 Kinetic model 17.5.3 Characterization of Jatropha oil 17.5.4 Effect of catalyst concentration 17.5.5 Effect of Jatropha oil to methyl acetate molar ratio 17.5.6 Effect of reaction time and temperature 17.5.7 Kinetic study Conclusion owledgment

#### 18. Recent advances of lipase-catalyzed greener production of biodiesel in organic reaction media: economic and sustainable viewpoint

Kirtikumar C. Badgujar, '	Vivek C. Badgujar	and Bhalchandra	M. Bhanage
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18.1	.1 Introduction			
18.2	Recent literature survey of lipase-catalyzed synthesis of biodiesel			
18.3	Reactio	n parameters	461	
	18.3.1	Biocatalyst screening	461	
	18.3.2	Effect of oil-to-alcohol mole ratio	463	
	18.3.3	Effect of stepwise addition of alcohol	463	
	18.3.4	Effect of solvent and cosolvent	466	
	18.3.5	Effect of temperature	467	
	18.3.6	Effect of water content	469	
	18.3.7	Effect of biocatalyst amount	471	
	18.3.8	Effect of mass transfer	473	
	18.3.9	Effect of adsorbent	473	
	18.3.10	Effect alcohol chain length	473	
	18.3.11	Effect of feedstock (waste or fresh oils) from various sources	474	
	18.3.12	Effect of recycle	474	
18.4	Econon	nic and sustainable viewpoint	475	
	18.4.1	Catalyst lipase and immobilization	475	
	18.4.2	Use of waste feedstock	475	
	18.4.3	Processing parameters and optimization	476	
	18.4.4	Scale-up synthesis	476	
	18.4.5	Greenness of the process	477	
18.5	Conclu	sion	477	
Refer	eferences 4			

19.		ent utilization of seed biomass and its by-product for the biodiesel uction	483
		ena Nagarajan, Baskar Gurunathan, Sivakumar Pandian, Ilango Karuppasamy, nalakshmi Ramakrishnan and Renganathan Sahadevan	
	19.1	Introduction	483
	19.2	Second-generation feedstock for biodiesel production	484
		19.2.1 Advantages of nonedible oils	484
	19.3	Problems in the exploitation of nonedible oils	485
	19.4	Deoiled seed meal after oil extraction	485
		19.4.1 Sulfonation	486
		19.4.2 Carbonization followed by sulfonation	486
		19.4.3 Hydrothermal carbonization	486
		19.4.4 Pyrolyzation followed by sulfonation	486
	19.5	Seed cake as a catalyst for esterification process	486
	19.6	Factors influencing seed cake catalyst preparation	487
		19.6.1 Reusability of catalyst	490
	19.7	Characterization of catalyst	491
	19.8	Conclusion	491
	Refer	ences	492
20.	Cata	lytic pyrolysis for upgrading of biooil obtained from biomass	495
	Nidhi	Agnihotri and Monoj Kumar Mondal	
	20.1	Introduction	495
	20.2	Catalytic fast pyrolysis of biomass	496
		20.2.1 Advantages of catalytic pyrolysis	498
	20.3	Commercial-scale pyrolysis plant	498
	20.4	Types of catalysts used in pyrolysis	499
		20.4.1 Zeolites	499
		20.4.2 Mesoporous catalyst	500
	20.5	Chemical reactions in catalytic fast pyrolysis	501
		20.5.1 Deoxygenation	501
		2052 Cracking	501

20.5.2 Cracking 501 20.5.3 Dehydration 501 20.5.4 Decarboxylation 502 20.6 Reactors for catalytic pyrolysis 502 20.7 Process parameters 504 20.7.1 Temperature 505 20.7.2 Ratio of biomass to catalyst 505 20.7.3 Catalyst contact time 505 20.7.4 Vapor residence time 506

Contents	xvii

	20.8	Challenges and recommendations	506
	20.9	Future perspectives	507
	20.10	Conclusion	507
	Ackno	owledgments	508
	Refer	ences	508
21.	Rece	nt trends in the pyrolysis and gasification of lignocellulosic biomass	511
	Vinoj	Kurian, Manjot Gill, Bijay Dhakal and Amit Kumar	
	21.1	Introduction	511
		21.1.1 Background	511
		21.1.2 Potential feedstocks for pyrolysis and gasification	513
		21.1.3 Pretreatment of lignocellulosic biomass	517
	21.2	Pyrolysis	518
		21.2.1 Types of pyrolysis	519
		21.2.2 Reactor configuration	521
		21.2.3 Factors affecting pyrolysis products	527
		21.2.4 Recent developments in pyrolysis	530
		21.2.5 Current status and challenges of pyrolysis	532
	21.3	Gasification	533
		21.3.1 Gasification theory	533
		21.3.2 Gasifier types	536
		21.3.3 Current status and challenges of gasification	541
	21.4	Future of pyrolysis and gasification	542
		21.4.1 Biomass-based hydrogen	542
		21.4.2 Bioethanol	545
	21.5	Conclusion	546
	Refer	ences	547
22	Evne	rimental investigation of performance of bio diesel with different	
22.		ds in diesel engine	553
		ranya, R. Anantharaj, D. Gnana Prakash and M. Vichitra	
	22.1	Introduction	553
		22.1.1 Need for alternative green fuel	553
		22.1.2 Cashew nut shell liquid	553
		22.1.3 Cardanol	554
	22.2	Experimental section	555
		22.2.1 Materials	555
		22.2.2 Measurements	555
		22.2.3 Blending of auxiliaries with cardanol	556

22.2.4 Engine performance analysis

Results	and discussion	560
22.3.1	Density of pure components	560
22.3.2	Performance and emission characteristics of alternative green fuel	560
Conclu	sion	566
ences		567
	22.3.1 22.3.2	<ul> <li>Results and discussion</li> <li>22.3.1 Density of pure components</li> <li>22.3.2 Performance and emission characteristics of alternative green fuel Conclusion</li> <li>rences</li> </ul>

# Section IV Technoeconomic and environmental impact analysis of biofuels and bioenergy

23.	8. Technoeconomic evaluation of 2G ethanol production with coproducts		
	from	n rice straw	571
	Panneerselvam Ranganathan		
	23.1	Introduction	571
	23.2	Process description of rice straw to ethanol and coproducts	576
		23.2.1 Pretreatment of rice straw	577
		23.2.2 Enzymatic hydrolysis	577
		23.2.3 Glucose (C6) fermentation	577
		23.2.4 Xylose (C5) fermentation	578
		23.2.5 Coproducts from rice straw	578
	23.3	Process design	578
		23.3.1 Various cases	578
		23.3.2 Simulation methodology	582
	23.4	Results and discussion	583
		23.4.1 Material flow	583
		23.4.2 Economic analysis	585
		23.4.3 Sensitivity analysis	586
	23.5	Future perspective	587
	23.6	Conclusion	587
	Refer	ences	588
24.		noeconomic analysis of biodiesel production using noncatalytic	
	tran	sesterification	591
	E. Yu	vanashree, Renganathan Sahadevan and Baskar Gurunathan	
	24.1	Introduction	591
	24.2	Characteristics of supercritical methanol	593
	24.3	Reaction kinetics of transesterification	594
	24.4	Upshots of operating parameters on biodiesel using SCM	595
		24.4.1 Temperature	595
		24.4.2 Pressure	596
		24.4.3 Alcohol/oil ratio	597

Contents	xix

		24.4.4 Feedstock handling	597
	24.5	Technoeconomic analysis of SCM method	597
		24.5.1 Case study	598
		24.5.2 Process results	598
		24.5.3 Economic review	598
	24.6	Conclusion	599
	Refer	ences	599
25.	Tech	no-economic analysis of biodiesel production from nonedible	
	bioo	il using catalytic transesterification	601
		enkumar Rajendran, Ashok Pandey, Edgard Gnansounou, Baskar Gurunathan Ieehoon Han	
	25.1	Introduction	601
	25.2	Nonedible source for biodiesel production	602
		25.2.1 Gossypium	602
		25.2.2 Jatropha curcas	602
		25.2.3 Simmondsia chinensis	603
		25.2.4 Millettia pinnata	603
		25.2.5 Linum usitatissimum	603
		25.2.6 Madhuca longifolia	603
		25.2.7 Azadirachta indica	604
		25.2.8 Hevea brasiliensis	604
		25.2.9 Nicotiana tabacum	604
		25.2.10 Callophyllum inophyllum	604
	25.3	Catalyst for biodiesel production	605
		25.3.1 Homogeneous Catalyst	605
		25.3.2 Heterogeneous Catalyst	606
	25.4	Techno-economic analysis	611
		25.4.1 Steps involved in techno-economic analysis	613
		25.4.2 Economic factors	613
	25.5	Techno-economic analysis of biodiesel production	615
	25.6	Conclusion	618
	Refer	ence	619
26.	Tech	noeconomic analysis of biofuel production from marine algae	627
	G. Ka	lavathy, Ashok Pandey, Edgard Gnansounou and Baskar Gurunathan	
	26.1	Introduction	627
	26.2	Macroalgae production	629
		26.2.1 Cultivation	630
		26.2.2 Harvesting	631

26.2.3 Postharvesting 632

	26.3	Extract	on of oil from macroalgae for biodiesel production	633
		26.3.1	Pretreatment of algal biomass	633
		26.3.2	Soxhlet extraction	633
		26.3.3	Factors affecting extraction of algal oil	634
	26.4	Produc	tion of biodiesel	636
		26.4.1	Transesterification of algal oil	636
	26.5	Produc	tion of biogas from macroalgae	639
		26.5.1	Anaerobic digestion	640
	26.6	Produc	tion of bioethanol from marine macroalgae	640
	26.7	Techno	peconomic analysis	642
		26.7.1	Hatchery and grow-out systems	642
		26.7.2	Drying systems	643
		26.7.3	Transportation systems	643
		26.7.4	Algal oil extraction systems	643
		26.7.5	Transesterification of algal oil	644
			Fermentation	644
		26.7.7	Technoeconomic analysis of biofuel from macroalgae	644
	26.8	Conclu	sion	646
	Refere	ences		646
~-	Techno-economic assessment of biofuel production using			
27.	recn	no-ecc	phomic assessment of biofuel production using	
27.			momic assessment of biofuel production using mical pathways	653
27.	ther	moche	· •	653
27.	<b>therı</b> Prasa	moche	mical pathways lade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo	<b>653</b>
27.	theri Prasa 27.1	<b>moche</b> d Mand Introdu	mical pathways lade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo	
27.	theri Prasa 27.1	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo	mical pathways lade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo	653
27.	theri Prasa 27.1	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo 27.2.1	mical pathways lade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo action bochemical pathways of biofuel production	653 656
27.	theri Prasa 27.1	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo 27.2.1 27.2.2	mical pathways lade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo action bochemical pathways of biofuel production Torrefaction	653 656 657
27.	theri Prasa 27.1	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo 27.2.1 27.2.2 27.2.3	mical pathways lade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo liction bochemical pathways of biofuel production Torrefaction Hydrothermal liquefaction	653 656 657 658
27.	<b>ther</b> Prasa 27.1 27.2	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo 27.2.1 27.2.2 27.2.3 27.2.4	mical pathways lade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo liction bechemical pathways of biofuel production Torrefaction Hydrothermal liquefaction Pyrolysis	653 656 657 658 659
27.	<b>ther</b> Prasa 27.1 27.2	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo 27.2.1 27.2.2 27.2.3 27.2.4	mical pathways lade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo liction bechemical pathways of biofuel production Torrefaction Hydrothermal liquefaction Pyrolysis Gasification Deeconomic assessment of biofuels using thermochemical methods	653 656 657 658 659 660
27.	<b>ther</b> Prasa 27.1 27.2	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo 27.2.1 27.2.2 27.2.3 27.2.4 Techno 27.3.1	mical pathways ade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo action bechemical pathways of biofuel production Torrefaction Hydrothermal liquefaction Pyrolysis Gasification economic assessment of biofuels using thermochemical methods Methodological framework of techno-economic assessment Overview of the techno-economic assessment studies of biofuel	653 656 657 658 659 660 660
27.	therr Prasa 27.1 27.2 27.3	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo 27.2.1 27.2.2 27.2.3 27.2.4 Techno 27.3.1 27.3.2	mical pathways ade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo action bechemical pathways of biofuel production Torrefaction Hydrothermal liquefaction Pyrolysis Gasification e-economic assessment of biofuels using thermochemical methods Methodological framework of techno-economic assessment Overview of the techno-economic assessment studies of biofuel production using thermo-chemical pathways	653 656 657 658 659 660 660
27.	therr Prasa 27.1 27.2 27.3	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo 27.2.1 27.2.2 27.2.3 27.2.4 Techno 27.3.1 27.3.2	mical pathways ade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo action bechemical pathways of biofuel production Torrefaction Hydrothermal liquefaction Pyrolysis Gasification economic assessment of biofuels using thermochemical methods Methodological framework of techno-economic assessment Overview of the techno-economic assessment studies of biofuel	653 656 657 658 659 660 660 660 660 663 663
27.	therr Prasa 27.1 27.2 27.3	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo 27.2.1 27.2.2 27.2.3 27.2.4 Techno 27.3.1 27.3.2	mical pathways hade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo action bechemical pathways of biofuel production Torrefaction Hydrothermal liquefaction Pyrolysis Gasification -economic assessment of biofuels using thermochemical methods Methodological framework of techno-economic assessment Overview of the techno-economic assessment studies of biofuel production using thermo-chemical pathways ages, progress, opportunities, and future perspectives	653 656 657 658 659 660 660 660 660
27.	therr Prasa 27.1 27.2 27.3	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo 27.2.1 27.2.2 27.2.3 27.2.4 Techno 27.3.1 27.3.2 Challer Conclu	mical pathways hade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo action bechemical pathways of biofuel production Torrefaction Hydrothermal liquefaction Pyrolysis Gasification -economic assessment of biofuels using thermochemical methods Methodological framework of techno-economic assessment Overview of the techno-economic assessment studies of biofuel production using thermo-chemical pathways ages, progress, opportunities, and future perspectives	653 656 657 658 659 660 660 660 660 663 663
	therr Prasa 27.1 27.2 27.3 27.4 27.5 Refere	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo 27.2.1 27.2.2 27.2.3 27.2.4 Techno 27.3.1 27.3.2 Challer Conclue	mical pathways ade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo action bechemical pathways of biofuel production Torrefaction Hydrothermal liquefaction Pyrolysis Gasification e-economic assessment of biofuels using thermochemical methods Methodological framework of techno-economic assessment Overview of the techno-economic assessment studies of biofuel production using thermo-chemical pathways ages, progress, opportunities, and future perspectives sion	653 656 657 658 659 660 660 660 660 663 666 668
	therr Prasa 27.1 27.2 27.3 27.4 27.5 Refere Mod	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo 27.2.1 27.2.2 27.2.3 27.2.4 Techno 27.3.1 27.3.2 Challer Conclue	mical pathways hade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo action bechemical pathways of biofuel production Torrefaction Hydrothermal liquefaction Pyrolysis Gasification e-economic assessment of biofuels using thermochemical methods Methodological framework of techno-economic assessment Overview of the techno-economic assessment studies of biofuel production using thermo-chemical pathways ages, progress, opportunities, and future perspectives sion	653 656 657 658 659 660 660 660 660 663 666 668
	thern Prasa 27.1 27.2 27.3 27.4 27.5 Refere Mod wast	moche d Mand Introdu Thermo 27.2.1 27.2.2 27.2.3 27.2.4 Techno 27.3.1 27.3.2 Challer Concluences eling a te food	mical pathways hade and Yogesh M. Nimdeo action bechemical pathways of biofuel production Torrefaction Hydrothermal liquefaction Pyrolysis Gasification e-economic assessment of biofuels using thermochemical methods Methodological framework of techno-economic assessment Overview of the techno-economic assessment studies of biofuel production using thermo-chemical pathways ages, progress, opportunities, and future perspectives sion	653 656 657 658 659 660 660 660 660 663 663 666 668 668

	28.4 28.5	Techno Results Econor Conclu	Is and methods reconomic analysis and discussion nic analysis results sion	675 676 683 683 684
29.	<b>prod</b> C. Na	l <b>uced f</b> gendrar	nomic and environmental impact analysis of biofuels rom microalgal biomass natha Reddy, Y. Vineetha, A. Priyanka, A. Shalini, Bishwambhar Mishra, I V. Swapna	687
	29.1	Introdu	ction	687
	29.2	Techno	logical assessment	690
		29.2.1	Influential factors for biodiesel production	691
		29.2.2	Algae cultivation	691
		29.2.3	Biomass pretreatment and extraction	693
		29.2.4	Harvesting of algal culture	693
		29.2.5	Extraction	693
		29.2.6	Transesterification	695
		29.2.7	Scale-up	695
	29.3	Econor	nic assessment	696
		29.3.1	Cost analysis	697
		29.3.2	Techno-economic analysis	697
	29.4	Enviror	mental impact assessment	700
		29.4.1	Microalgal biomass	701
	29.5	Major o	hallenges associated with biofuels production from microalgal biomass	706
	29.6	Conclu	sions	707
	Refere	ences		708

#### 30. Computer-aided environmental and technoeconomic analyses as tools for designing biorefineries under the circular bioeconomy approach 713 Samir Meramo 30.1 Introduction 713 30.2 Circular bioeconomy framework towards biorefinery design 715 30.3 Computer-aided environmental analysis of biorefineries 717 30.4 Computer-aided technoeconomic analysis of biorefineries 720 30.5 Case study for the production of ethanol and succinic acid under 723 circular economy 30.6 Environmental assessment of ethanol and succinic acid production under circular bioeconomy 728

Contents xxi

	30.7	Technoeconomic assessment of ethanol and succinic acid production under circular bioeconomy	731
	30.8	Conclusions	734
	Refere	ences	735
31.		onmental impact analysis of biofuels and bioenergy: balperspective	739
	J. lyya	appan, Baskar Gurunathan, M. Gopinath, A. Vaishnavi, S. Prathiba, V. Kanishka, mathi and V. Dhithya	, 55
	31.1	Introduction	739
	31.2	Biofuel: a sustainable fuel for future	740
	31.3	Bioenergy: a sustainable fuel for future	740
	31.4	Resource availability for biofuel production	741
	31.5	Impact of biomass on environment	744
	31.6	Impact of combustion efficiency in environment	745
	31.7	Impact of biofuel production on biodiversity	746
	31.8	Environmental impacts on biomass pretreatment	747
	31.9	Managing ecosystems and its services	749
	31.10	Regulations related to environmental sustainability	749
	31.11	Impact of biofuel production on water quality	751
	31.12	Conclusion	752
	Refere	ences	752

32.	Environmental impacts of biofuels and their blends: a case study on waste vegetable oil-derived biofuel blends Pritam Dey and Srimanta Ray			755
	32.1	Introdu	iction	755
	32.2	Enviror	nmental impacts of biofuels	756
		32.2.1	Life cycle assessment methodology	757
		32.2.2	Environmental impact categories	757
	32.3	Enviror	nmental impacts of waste vegetable oil-based biofuels: a case study	759
		32.3.1	Methods	759
		32.3.2	Physical properties of various test fuels	760
		32.3.3	Engine performance and emission analysis	761
		32.3.4	Environmental impacts of various waste vegetable oil-based biofuels	762
	32.4	Conclu	sion	768
	Ackno	owledgr	nents	769
	Refere	ences		769

33.	Solid biofuel production, environmental impact, and technoeconomic analysis		
	Elsa (	Cherian, Lakshmi Mohan and K.A. Anju	
	33.1	Introduction	771
	33.2	Importance of solid fuel	772
	33.3	Types of solid biofuels	772
		33.3.1 Wood-based fuel	773
		33.3.2 Coal and coke	774
		<b>33.3.3</b> Peat	775
	33.4	Processes for the usage of solid biofuel	775
		33.4.1 Anaerobic digestion	776
		33.4.2 Saccharification and fermentation	776
		33.4.3 Torrefaction	776
		33.4.4 Liquefaction	777
		33.4.5 Gasification	777
		33.4.6 Combustion	778
	33.5	Environmental impact of solid biofuels	778
	33.6	Technoeconomic analysis of solid biofuel	781
	33.7	Conclusions	784
	Refere	ences	784

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### Preface

Biorefineries utilize renewable sources for the production of various biofuels using integrated approaches. Currently, biorefinery approaches are facing many technical challenges. It is important to refine biorefinery concepts to overcome these challenges and make commercially viable biorefineries. This book *Biofuels and Bioenergy: A Techno-Economic Approach* covers the latest developments in biorefinery approaches for the production of various biofuels and bioenergy by the utilization of various solid and liquid renewable feedstocks. This book also covers biorefinery approaches for circular bioeconomy, techno-economic analysis of biofuels production, environmental impact analysis of biofuels, microbial electrosynthesis of biofuels, and performance of biodiesel in a diesel engine. This book provides comprehensive information on biorefinery approaches for biofuels and bioenergy under four sections comprising 33 chapters as detailed here.

Section I focused on biorefinery approaches in biofuels and bioenergy production. This section covers various chapters such as boundaries and openings of biorefineries toward sustainable biofuel production, a perspective on the biorefinery approaches for bioenergy production in a circular bioeconomy process, a comprehensive integration of biorefinery concepts for the production of biofuels from lignocellulosic biomass, evaluation of activated sludge derived from wastewater treatment process as a potential biorefinery platform, and insights into the impact of biorefineries and sustainable green technologies on circular bioeconomy.

Section II comprising nine chapters focused on fermentation technology for ethanol production: current trends and challenges, improved enzymatic hydrolysis of lignocellulosic waste biomass: most essential stage to develop cost-effective bio-fuel production, advances and sustainable conversion of waste lignocellulosic biomass into biofuels, lignocellulosic biomass as an alternate source for next-generation biofuel, process intensification of biobutanol production, production of n-butanol by clostridial fermentation: a superior alternative renewable liquid fuel, biobutanol separation using ionic liquids as a green solvent, synergistic prospects of microalgae in wastewater treatment and third-generation biofuel production and concurrent reduction of carbon dioxide and generation of biofuels by electrified microbial systems—concepts and perspectives.

Section III comprising eight chapters focused on biofuels and bioenergy production such as challenges and opportunities in large-scale production of biodiesel, lipidderived biofuel: production methodologies, interesterification reaction of vegetable oil and alkyl acetate as alternative route for glycerol-free biodiesel synthesis, recent advances of lipase catalyzed greener production of biodiesel in organic reaction media: economic and sustainable viewpoint, efficient utilization of biomass-derived heterogeneous catalyst for biodiesel production, catalytic pyrolysis for upgrading of bio-oil obtained from biomass, recent trends in pyrolysis and gasification of lignocellulosic biomass and experimental investigation of performance of biodiesel with different blends in a diesel engine.

Section IV is mainly about the techno-economic and environmental impact analysis of biofuels and bioenergy. This section includes the chapters such as technoeconomic evaluation of 2G ethanol production with co-products from rice straw, techno-economic analysis for production of biodiesel using noncatalytic transesterfication, techno-economic analysis of biodiesel production from nonedible biooil using catalytic transesterfication, techno-economic analysis of biofuels production from marine algae, techno-economic assessment of biofuel production using thermochemical pathways, modeling and techno-economic analysis of biogas production from waste food, biofuels production from algal biomass: environmental impact and techno-economic analysis, computer-aided environmental and techno-economic analyses as tools for development of biorefineries under the circular bioeconomy approach, environmental impact analysis of biofuels and bioenergy-a global perspective, environimpacts of biofuels and their blends: a case study on waste mental vegetable oil-derived biofuel blends and solid biofuels production, environmental impact and techno-economic analysis.

Biofuels and Bioenergy: A Techno-Economic Approach is a hands-on reference for faculty members, researchers, scientists, and practicing engineers working on various fields of bioenergy, biorefinery, and biofuels' production. This book is a good source of information addressing industrial problems relevant to undergraduate, postgraduate, and research students under different academic departments such as biotechnology, chemical, energy, and environmental engineering in various universities and academic institutions.

> Baskar Gurunathan Renganathan Sahadevan

### CHAPTER 17

# Interesterification reaction of vegetable oil and alkyl acetate as alternative route for glycerol-free biodiesel synthesis

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#### 17.1 Introduction

The world population growth and industrial development has led to the increasing of the global energy needs. To date, fossil energy, which includes petroleum, coal, and natural gas, has fulfilled around 80% of the world energy demand. In particular, petro-leum shares approximately 90% of the fuel consumption in the transportation sector. Fossil energy dominates the total energy supply (TES) source as reported by the International Energy Agency (IEA) (IEA, 2020). Utilization of fossil fuel as major energy resources has embarked on several dares related to the oil reserves decimation and environmental issues. The data provided by the U.S. Energy Information Administration indicates that the petroleum and other liquid fuel consumption throughout 2019–22 tends to be higher than its production (EIA, 2020a). This unbalanced condition is predicted to be severer in the future due to the growth of population, transportation, and industrial sectors. In fact, the worse condition happens in some countries with significant declining in oil reserves.

At the same time, fossil fuel is under pressure to respond to the climate change issue. Concerning the environmental aspects, combustion of fossil fuel is stated as the major contributor of the greenhouse gases' (such as  $CO_2$ ,  $NO_x$ ) emission to the atmosphere, causing the increasing temperature of the planet and an extreme climate change during the last few years. Therefore the energy transition from fossil-based fuel to carbon-neutral or zero carbon energy resources is important for carbon reduction in energy sector. This is also in line with the policy of the United Nation which has set up the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 7 in terms of affordable and clean energy by 2030 (Asadikia et al., 2021). According to the Paris Climate Agreement 2015, it is also expected to confine the global temperature increase to  $1.5^{\circ}$ C, to lessen the negative effect of climate change, and to achieve net-zero emission of energy utilization by 2050 (Kato and Kurosawa, 2019; Lopez et al., 2021). Furthermore, the new paradigm of the energy sustainability established by the World Energy Council comprises the three main attributes, which is called Trilemma: energy security, energy equity, and environmental sustainability of energy system (World Energy Council, 2020). In this context, energy also has enduring mission to reach a better lives for people (Gadonneix et al., 2020).

Based on the SDG 7 and Trilemma concept, enhancement in energy security and sustainability should proceed concurrently. One of the key to provide affordable energy with low environmental negative impact is deploying renewable energy as substitute to the fossil-based energy (Bertheau, 2020; Gielen et al., 2019). Renewable energy, especially with zero carbon or neutral carbon characteristic, has great potential to contribute in lowering the greenhouse gases' emission. Innovation in its process technology likewise could decrease the production cost. Yet, it expected that renewable energy can afford 8% of the global energy consumption. Enhancing the portion of renewable energy in the world's energy consumption is one among the three main targets of SDG 7 for 2030 (Santika et al., 2020). Therefore it is essential to work on the renewable energy development, particularly which is applied for transportation as the biggest  $CO_2$  emitter. Based on IEA projection for change in the global energy mix 2019–40, it is indicated that bioenergy is among the important renewable energy (CAPP, 2020).

Biodiesel is one of bioenergy. It is derived from vegetable oil which can be utilized as substitute for petroleum diesel. It is regarded as carbon neutral since the vegetable oils as common feedstock of biodiesel are obtained from plants, in which plants take up carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ) from the air for photosynthesis. The absorption of  $CO_2$  by these plants thus counterbalances the  $CO_2$  released during the production and combustion of biodiesel as presented in Fig. 17.1 (EIA, 2020b). Therefore substituting fossil fuel with biodiesel is beneficial for decarbonizing the energy system.

#### 17.2 Biodiesel

Biodiesel is classified as biomass-based diesel fuels, which can be used as substitute of petroleum diesel. Utilization of biodiesel as alternative diesel fuel is strategic since diesel engine is extensively used in many sectors, for instance agriculture, transportation, and industry (Ma et al., 2021; Ogunkunle and Ahmed, 2019). Compared to fossil diesel, biodiesel shows many advantages, namely, nontoxic, biodegradable, safer due to its higher flash point (less inflammable), and more environmentally friendly. Biodiesel also holds higher cetane number better fuel lubricity, superior ignition performance, and higher combustion efficiency. Additionally, combustion of biodiesel releases lower

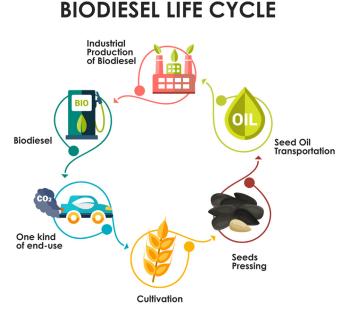


Figure 17.1 Biodiesel as carbon-neutral renewable energy source.

emission in the form of particulates, CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, hydrocarbon, as well as other air toxics and pollutants (Kusumaningtyas et al., 2014; Ma et al., 2021; Traviss and Treadwell, 2018). And again, owing to its carbon-neutral characteristic, utilization of biodiesel as fossil diesel substitute will contribute to reduced climate change and global warming.

Biodiesel is usually applied as diesel engine fuel in form of biodiesel-petroleum diesel blending in various ratios, such as 2%, 5%, 7%, 10%, 20%, or 30%. The higher ratio or even pure biodiesel can be utilized, as well (Ogunkunle and Ahmed, 2019; Widjanarko et al., 2020). Biodiesel has been used extensively in many countries as part of the government policy on renewable energy, such as B20 in the United States under the Energy Policy Act of 1992 (AFDC, 2008), B30 in Indonesia under MEMR Regulation Number 12/2015 (Santika et al., 2020), B15 in Malaysia, and B10 in Thailand (Zulqarnain et al., 2020).

Biodiesel, which is also currently known as fatty acid methyl ester (FAME), is commonly produced using vegetable oils as raw material. In fact, vegetable-based biofuel application has long been known since Rudolf Diesel employed peanut oil as the fuel for the diesel engine and demonstrated it at the world fair in Paris in 1990 (Ma and Hanna, 1999; Ogunkunle and Ahmed, 2019). But, then, the popularity of this biofuel was decreasing because of the fossil-fuel booming in the early 20th century. When the issue on the oil reserve exhaustion and energy crisis emerged in 1980s, biodiesel was gaining attention for the second time as alternative energy to the fossil diesel fuel. However, vegetable oil cannot be directly applied for today's diesel engine due to its exceptionally high viscosity. To fulfill the specification which suits the current diesel engine, vegetable oil should be processed to reduce its viscosity. The product is nowadays named biodiesel. There are several methods to convert vegetable oils into biodiesel, among others:

- 1. Pyrolysis
- 2. Microemulsification
- 3. Dilution
- 4. Two-step preparation: hydrolysis and methyl esterification
- 5. Transesterification
- 6. Interesterification

Pyrolysis is thermal breakdown of organic materials in the absence of oxygen. It can be direct or catalytic thermal cracking. Triglyceride pyrolysis results in hydrocarbons and oxygenated organic compounds, such as alkanes, alkenes, alkadienes, aromatic, and carboxylic acid. The liquid fraction of the pyrolysis product is alike diesel fuel. The heating value is comparable, but the values of the cetane number, flash point, viscosity, and pour point are lower than petroleum diesel (Maher and Bressler, 2007; Ogunkunle and Ahmed, 2019). Microemulsification is preparing a microemulsion of two immiscible liquids by adding surfactant to attain a thermodynamically stable dispersion. It is also termed as cosolvent blending. This method can decrease the viscosity of the oil (Ma and Hanna, 1999; Ogunkunle and Ahmed, 2019; Pereira et al., 2016). Dilution is blending vegetable oil with diesel fuel at a certain ratio to reduce its viscosity (Nguyen et al., 2010; Ogunkunle and Ahmed, 2019). On the other hand, Kusdiana and Saka (2004) have reported a method named two-step preparation of biodiesel at supercritical condition. The process involves hydrolysis of triglycerides to produce fatty acid and glycerol, followed by esterification of fatty acid with supercritical methanol to yield in FAME.

The most common method for biodiesel synthesis at the present time is through the alkaline-catalyzed transesterification of triglycerides of vegetable oils with methanol. The mechanism of transesterification comprises three steps: (1) conversion of triglyceride to 1 mole of FAME and diglyceride, (2) conversion of diglyceride to 1 mole of FAME and monoglyceride, and (3) conversion of monoglyceride to 1 mole of FAME and glycerol (Schuchardt et al., 1998).

The shortage of transesterification reaction is that this reaction produces glycerol as by-product and needs to be separated from the main product (biodiesel). Low purity of glycerol is less valuable, hence it is considered as a waste. To avoid the formation of glycerol side product, methanol can be replaced by methyl acetate or ethyl acetate (Kashyap et al., 2019). The reaction between vegetable oils with alkyl acetate, known as interesterification, will produce biodiesel and triacetin instead of glycerol. It is not necessary to separate triacetin from biodiesel product since triacetin has characteristic as fuel additive, which can improve biodiesel combustion performance form (Dhawan et al., 2020).

## 17.3 Interesterification reaction

The classical transesterification reaction to produce biodiesel generates glycerol as a by-product. This fact is unfavorable since it needs a set of separation process to purify biodiesel from glycerol, which consequently increases the production cost. On the other hand, the abundant product of crude glycerol causes the declining price of glycerol in the market (Kusumaningtyas et al., 2016; Lazdovica and Kampars, 2020). Therefore development of the glycerol-free process for biodiesel synthesis has grabbed a significant attention.

One attracting way to eliminate the formation of biodiesel is by using alkyl acetate as reactant instead of methanol. By substituting methanol with methyl or ethyl acetate, glycerol will not be yielded as by-product. As a substitute, the reaction between triglyceride and alkyl acetate will result in biodiesel and triacetin. The alternative route of biodiesel production using alkyl acetate as the acyl acceptor is called interesterification. This reaction can be catalyzed using enzyme, classical homogeneous catalyst such as sodium or potassium methoxide, heterogeneous catalyst, and in the absence of catalyst using supercritical condition. Metal alkoxide catalyst is among the most effective catalyst for interesterification reaction since it can result in high yield in a short time and mild condition (Lazdovica and Kampars, 2020).

In the interesterification reaction, it is unnecessary to separate triacetin, which is formed during the reaction since triacetin can blended with biodiesel as fuel additive (Casas et al., 2011; Maddikeri et al., 2014). As fuel additive, triacetin acts to improve the cetane number of the biodiesel. As the impact, it reduces the smoke emission and knocking of engine. Besides, the addition of triacetin will promote the cold properties of biodiesel. Biodiesel can be formulated with triacetin up to 10% or 20% (Lazdovica and Kampars, 2020; Maddikeri et al., 2014; Mufrodi et al., 2014).

The reaction equation of interesterification of 1 molecule of triglyceride with 3 molecules of methyl acetate results in 3 molecules of FAMEs (biodiesel) and 1 molecule of triacetine. The reaction mechanism shows that interesterification reaction is complex reaction consisting of three consecutive steps. Based on its reaction mechanism, interesterification reaction is identical to a combination of two transesterification reactions (Casas et al., 2013). In this work, interesterification between triglycerides of Jatropha oil and methyl acetate was conducted to produce biodiesel. Catalyst used in this process was sodium methoxide (NaOCH<sub>3</sub>). Kinetic study was also performed in this investigation.

There are many different seed oils that can be utilized as raw material for biodiesel production. The selection of the vegetable oil depends on several factors, for instance: the locally available feedstocks, price, oil composition, technical aspect, etc. In the European Union, biodiesel is mostly prepared from rapeseed oil (Dutta, 2019; Van Duren et al., 2015). Meanwhile, soybean oil is the most dominant biodiesel feedstock

in the United States (Chen et al., 2018). Waste cooking oil is also a potential feedstock in various countries (Fangfang et al., 2021). In tropical and coastal countries such as Indonesia and Malaysia, palm and coconut oil are widely applied as raw materials for biodiesel production. *Jatropha curcas* oil is also popular in Asian countries, such as India, Malaysia, and Indonesia (Anwar, 2021; Hamzah et al., 2020; Siregar et al., 2015).

Utilization of *Jatropha curcas* Linn. oil is promising since it is an nonedible oil. Hence, its utilization as bioenergy crop will not compete with the food demand (Kusumaningtyas et al., 2014). Jatropha seed has high oil content between 63.16% and 66.4%, which is higher than the oil content of palm kernel and soybean (Hamzah et al., 2020). In addition, the cetane number of Jatropha biodiesel is reported to be 57, which is comparable to diesel fuel and higher than palm biodiesel. The Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) has revealed that Jatropha biodiesel demonstrated the higher reduction value of CO<sub>2</sub> release from combustion than palm biodiesel (Siregar et al., 2015).

#### 17.4 Kinetic model of interesterification reaction

Kinetic study is urgent for obtaining the kinetic parameters, which is required for the process equipment design and scaling up. However, study on the kinetics of triglyceride interesterification for biodiesel production is not widely found in literature (Brondani et al., 2020). Most findings focus on the kinetics of enzymatic interesterification, and some other discuss about the kinetics of the interesterification at supercritical condition. Kinetic analysis of the interesterification reaction using classical metal alkoxides catalyst in mild condition has not been extensively investigated. In spite of this, some research reported the compatibility of the homogeneous irreversible second-order model for this reaction (Casas et al., 2011; Teixeira et al., 2016).

Basically, interesterification consist of three sequential reversible reactions that can be described through Eqs. (17.1)-(17.3). Furthermore, the overall reaction is written in Eq. (17.4) (Casas et al., 2011):

$$TG + MA \underset{k_2}{\overset{k_1}{\longleftrightarrow}} MADG + E \tag{17.1}$$

$$MAGD + MA \underset{k_4}{\overset{k_3}{\longleftrightarrow}} DADG + E$$
(17.2)

$$DAGD + MA \rightleftharpoons_{k_6}^{k_5} TA + E$$
 (17.3)

Overall reaction:

$$TG + 3MA \rightleftharpoons_{k_8}^{k_7} TA + 3E$$
 (17.4)

Reaction rate of each compound can be written as follow [Eqs. (17.5)-(17.10)]:

$$d\frac{[TG]}{dt} = -k_1[TG][MA] + k_2[MADG][E] - k_7[TG][MA]^3 + k_8[TA][E]^3$$
(17.5)

$$d\frac{[MADG]}{dt} = k_1[TG][MA] - k_2[MADG][E] - k_3[MADG][MA] + k_4[DAMG][E]$$
(17.6)

$$d\frac{[DAMG]}{dt} = k_3[MADG][MA] - k_4[DAMG][E] - k_5[DAMG][MA] + k_6[TA][E] \quad (17.7)$$

$$d\frac{[E]}{dt} = k_1[TG][MA] - k_2[MADG][E] + k_3[MADG][MA] - k_4[DAMG][E] + k_5[DAMG][MA] - k_6[TA][E] + k_7[TG][MA]^3 - k_8[TA][E]^3$$
(17.8)

$$d\frac{[MA]}{dt} = -d\frac{[E]}{dt}$$
(17.9)

$$d\frac{[TA]}{dt} = k_5[DAMG][MA] - k_6[TA][E] + k_7[TG][MA]^3 - k_8[TA][E]^3$$
(17.10)

where TG = triglycerides, MADG = monoacetin diglyceride, DAMG = diacetin monoglyceride, and E = FAME (biodiesel).

Generally, the value of the reaction rate constant on the secondary group is slightly greater than that of the primary group. Since the difference constant values are not exceedingly significant, it can be assumed that the reaction, which comprises three steps occurs simultaneously. Subsequently, the overall reaction in Eq. (17.4) can be rewritten as Eq. (17.11):

$$TG + 3MA \rightleftharpoons_{k_2''}^{k_1'} TA + 3E$$
 (17.11)

The reaction rate equation can be formulated as follows [Eq. (17.12)]:

$$d\frac{[TG]}{dt} = -k_1'[TG][MA]^3 + k_2'[TA][E]^3$$
(17.12)

where  $k'_1$  = reaction rate constant for the forward reaction and  $k'_2$  = reaction rate constant for the reverse reaction.

Reaction rate constant in general is defined using Arrhenius function [Eq. (17.13)]:

$$k(T) = Ae^{-E/RT}$$
(17.13)

where k(T) = reaction rate constant, A = frequency/preexponential factor, E = activation energy (mol/J), R = ideal gas constant (8314 J/K.mol), and T = reaction temperature (K).

The units for k(T) and A depend on the reaction order, namely L/mol.min and min<sup>-1</sup> for the first-and second-order reactions, respectively.

Casas et al. (2011) suggested a kinetic model of irreversible interesterification of triglycerides with methyl acetate so as to Eq. (17.12) can be simplified. Once the excessive methyl acetate is employed in the reaction system, it can be assumed that forward reaction in Eq. (17.12) obeys a pseudo-first-order reaction, and the reverse reaction follows the second-order reaction law. However, when far excess methyl acetate is used in the reaction, the *k* value of the reverse reaction can be disregarded and supposed to be zero. For this reason, the interesterification reaction can be considered an irreversible reaction. Thus Eq. (17.12) can be simplified into a second-order irreversible reaction kinetic model as indicated in Eq. (17.14):

$$-\frac{dC_{TG}}{dt} = r_{TG} = k'.C_{TG}^2$$
(17.14)

The kinetic model obtained is then presented in Eq. (17.15):

$$\frac{1}{C_{TG}} = k'.t + \frac{1}{C_{TG_o}}$$
(17.15)

The value of k' is affected by the catalyst concentration.

Plotting of  $\frac{1}{C_{TG}}$  against *t* will form a linear line, denoting that the model fits the experimental data.where  $C_{TG}$  = molar concentration of triglycerides (mol/L),  $C_{TG_o}$  = initial concentration of triglycerides (mol/L), *t* = reaction time (min),  $r_{TG}$  = reaction rate of triglycerides (mol/L.min), and k' = reaction rate constant (L/mol.min).

# 17.5 Case study: kinetic study on the biodiesel synthesis from Jatropha (*Jatropha curcas* L.) with methyl acetate in the presence of sodium methoxide catalyst

In this case, Jatropha oil was obtained from PT. Jatropha Green Energi, Kudus, Jawa Tengah, Indonesia. Experimental study and kinetic reaction rate were inspected in this study. The experiment was conducted through interesterification reaction of *J. curcas* L. with methyl acetate in the presence of NaOCH<sub>3</sub> catalyst. Consecutively, kinetic factor and activation energy of interesterification reaction were obtained from the proposed kinetic model.

## 17.5.1 Methods

There are two main stages in this case, which are neutralization of crude Jatropha oil and interesterification of neutralized Jatropha oil. The physical and chemical properties of Jatropha oil such as density, viscosity, acid value, and acidity were analyzed before and after neutralization process.

Purification or neutralization of Jatropha oil was intended to remove the free fatty acid and avoid the gumming process in the interesterification reaction. Two hundred milliliters of crude Jatropha oil was prepared in a three-necked flask. Sodium carbonate (Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>) was dissolved in a water with combined a mixing and heating process. Saturated Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> was then filtered to remove the unwanted solid and undissolved Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> powder. The oil was heated to 90°C, and once it reached the neutralization temperature (90°C), saturated Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> was injected into the oil at a low flow rate. Continuous mixing was conducted for 1 h and the solution was then separated to remove the produced soap from the oil.

NaOCH<sub>3</sub> was mixed with methyl acetate in a three-necked flask accompanied with magnetic stirrer, and the mixture was then heated to operating temperature. Purified Jatropha oil was prepared in a different apparatus and also heated to the same temperature with catalyst mixture. Once it reached the required temperature, the Jatropha oil was then poured into the previous three-necked flask, which contains catalyst and methyl acetate.

In this interesterification reaction, the catalyst concentration was varied to 0.25%, 0.5%, 0.75%, and 1%, oil to molar ratio was varied to 1:6, 1:9, 1:12, and 1:15, while the reaction time was varied to  $40^{\circ}$ C,  $50^{\circ}$ C, and  $60^{\circ}$ C. Interesterification was conducted for 8 h and the samples were taken periodically. The samples were then analyzed its composition by using gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC-MS).

#### 17.5.2 Kinetic model

Triglycerides concentration from GC-MS analysis was converted into the reaction conversion. The kinetic model was then solved by using Eqs. (17.14) and (17.15), which are the proposed by Casas et al. (2011). The differential equation was solved by using Runge–Kutta method. Experimental data and the calculated triglyceride concentration were compared and calculated its sum square of error (SSE). Kinetic rate constant was determined once it reached the minimum SSE.

Kinetic factor and the energy activation were obtained by using Arrhenius equation as shown in Eq. (17.16).

$$k(T) = Ae^{-E/RT}$$
(17.16)

where k(T) is the reaction rate constant (L/mol.min), A is the frequency/preexponential factor (L/mol.min), E is the energy activation (mol/J), R is the ideal gas constant (8314 J/K.mol), and T is the reaction temperature (K).

#### 17.5.3 Characterization of Jatropha oil

Characteristics of Jatropha oil before and after neutralization process are demonstrated in Table 17.1. The characterization consists of oil density, viscosity, molecular weight,

Variable	Standard	Before	After
Density (g/mL)	0.85-0.89	0.965	0.956 40.39
Viscosity (mm <sup>2</sup> /s)	2.3-6.0	37.83	
Acid value (mg KOH/g oil)	Max 0.80	16.157	0.926
Acidity (%)	Max 0.5	8.12	0.465

Table 17.1 Physical and chemical properties of Jatropha oil.

acid value, and acidity. According to Table 17.1, it can be seen that neutralization process has successfully decreased all the parameters compared to the crude Jatropha oil. However, most of the parameter values are still above the required standard for diesel engine. It can be concluded that this crude oil cannot be directly used as diesel engine. Several problems that might appear when crude oil with the current physical and chemical properties is used as diesel engine are engine failure, increasing the engine weariness (Pristiyani, 2015), power loss engine (Mittlebach and Remschmidt, 2004), corrosion, and create deposit on the engine (Ferrari et al., 2011). Since the acidity value is already dropped to 0.465%, this purified Jatropha oil can be used for the next process to produce the methyl ester.

# 17.5.4 Effect of catalyst concentration

In this case, the concentration of NaOCH<sub>3</sub> catalyst was varied into 0.25%, 0.5%, 0.75%, and 0.1% w/w, while the other variables were remaining constant. The oil to methyl acetate molar ratio was 1:6, reaction temperature was set at 50°C, and the reaction time was 4 h. NaOCH<sub>3</sub> catalyst was chosen since it contains less water compared to sodium hydroxide (KOH) (Ma and Hanna, 1999). Based on this operating condition, the effect of catalyst concentration on the triglyceride conversion is shown in Fig. 17.2.

The result shows that higher catalyst concentration also increases the number of converted triglyceride into methyl ester. This was caused by the increasing number of available active sites to promote the reaction (Masduki et al., 2013). With the increasing number of active sites, it also reduces the energy activation and increases the reaction rate of triglyceride into methyl ester (Rasyid, 2010). Reduction on the energy activation creates more collision between the reactant particles, which can increase the reaction rate. In this case, the highest conversion was 88.1% obtained by using catalyst concentration of 1%. Maddikeri et al. (2014) in their study also reported that the optimum catalyst concentration for the interesterification of cooking oil was 1%. Higher catalyst recovery cost. On the previous study, Pristiyani (2015) used KOH for interesterification of used cooking oil. The results showed that the highest conversion obtained was 13.79. It can be concluded that NaOCH<sub>3</sub> is more effective as an interesterification catalyst compared to KOH.

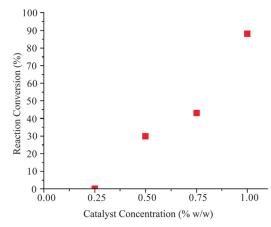


Figure 17.2 Effect of catalyst concentration on the triglyceride conversion.

No.	Retention time, min	Area %	Chemical compound
1	43.056	0.79	Oleic acid
2	43.795	0.36	Linoleic acid
3	45.770	4.54	Methyl ester
4	49.907	10.74	Palmitic acid
5	54.825	3.14	Methyl ester
6	55.249	3.40	Mono-oleic acid
7	59.475	0.22	Methyl ester

Table 17.2 Methyl ester chemical compounds at the catalyst concentration of 1% w/w.

Table 17.2 shows the chemical compounds of methyl ester by using 1% w/w of NaOCH<sub>3</sub> catalyst. It can be seen that at the current catalyst concentration and operating condition, triacetin was not found on the compounds of methyl ester although it has a quite high triglyceride conversion. Sustere and Kampars (2015) on the previous studies found that the optimum results were obtained by using catalyst to oil ratio of 0.15 with methyl acetate to oil molar ratio of 36. The catalyst used was tert-butoxide, and the product composition was 73.2% of methyl ester and 16.6% of triacetin. Since in this case the methyl ester to oil molar ratio was only 6:1, it might be the main reason triacetin was not found in the product.

## 17.5.5 Effect of Jatropha oil to methyl acetate molar ratio

According to the stoichiometry of interesterification reaction, 3 moles of methyl acetate is reacted with 1 mole of triglyceride. Since it is a reversible reaction, excess methyl acetate is needed to shift the reaction towards the product side (Maddikeri et al., 2014). Effect of the oil to methyl acetate molar ratio to triglyceride conversion was studied at 1:6, 1:9, 1:12, and 1:15. The reaction was conducted at reaction temperature of  $50^{\circ}$ C, catalyst concentration of 0.5% w/w, and reaction time of 4 h. Fig. 17.3 shows the effect of oil to methyl acetate molar ratio to the triglyceride conversion.

It can be seen that the conversion of triglyceride into methyl ester is decreasing along with the increasing of oil to methyl acetate molar ratio. Huang and Akoh (1996) also reported the same trend line on their study, and yield of transesterification product between triolein and caprylic acid ethyl ester was not increasing with the increasing reactant molar ratio. Moreover, excess amount of methyl ester might produce biodiesel with high viscosity and became another issue on the product separation. Reduction on the reaction conversion was caused by the low amount of triglyceride concentration, furthermore this excessive dissolution inflicted a slower reaction process. In reversible reactions such as interesterification, excess ethyl acetate might slide the equilibrium to the backward reaction, which can reduce the yield of biodiesel and triacetin (Komintarachat et al., 2015). In this case, the highest conversion was obtained at oil to methyl acetate molar ratio of 1:6 with a conversion of 29.76%. Freedman et al. (1984) previously studied the effect of molar ratio on the sunflower oil methanolysis, and the results showed that the highest ester conversion was 98% and obtained by using molar ratio of 1:6. However, ester conversion was decreased to 82% at molar ratio of 1:3.

Table 17.3 shows the chemical compounds of methyl ester obtained at oil to methyl acetate molar ratio of 1:6. Based on the GC-MS results' analysis in Table 17.3, it can be seen that with high amount of methyl ester on the product, triacetin had not been found on the product analysis. It shows that the optimization is necessary to obtain the best operating condition of the process for the future work.

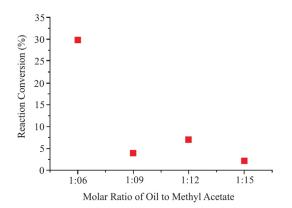


Figure 17.3 Effect of oil to methyl acetate molar ratio to the triglyceride conversion.

No.	Retention time, min	Area %	Chemical compound
1	39.239	0.60	Palmitic acid
2	42.257	6.90	Methyl ester
3	43.108	1.10	Methyl ester
4	43.784	0.09	Stearic acid
5	45.626	6.35	Palmitic acid
6	47.695	0.05	Palmitic acid
7	47.984	0.19	Mono-oleic acid
8	48.166	0.14	Methyl ester
9	49.607	0.20	Palmitic acid
10	49.736	7.73	Methyl ester
11	51.048	0.59	Oleic acid
12	51.225	0.16	Methyl ester
13	52.843	0.46	Methyl ester
14	53.012	0.93	Methyl ester
15	53.727	0.09	Stearic acid
16	54.033	0.34	Lauric acid

Table 17.3 Chemical compounds of methyl ester at molar ratio of 1:6.

#### 17.5.6 Effect of reaction time and temperature

In this case, the reaction temperatures were varied to  $40^{\circ}$ C,  $50^{\circ}$ C, and  $60^{\circ}$ C, while the interesterification process was carried out for 8 h and samples were taken at 0, 30, 60, 120, 240, and 480 min. The remaining parameters were constant, where the catalyst concentration was 0.5% w/w and oil to methyl acetate molar ratio was 1:6. This temperature range was chosen based on the catalyst activity, which is ranged between  $20^{\circ}$ C and  $100^{\circ}$ C (Mittlebach and Remschmidt, 2004). Freedman et al. (1984) also stated that transesterification process for peanut oil, cotton seeds oil, sunflower seeds oil, and soybean seeds oil should be carried out with oil to alcohol molar ratio of 1:6, catalyst concentration of 0.5%, and reaction temperature of  $60^{\circ}$ C. Fig. 17.4 shows the effect of reaction time and temperature to the triglyceride conversion.

Triglyceride conversion is decreasing with the increasing reaction temperature. Decreasing conversion from reaction temperature of  $40^{\circ}C-50^{\circ}C$  was caused by the shifted reaction equilibrium to the reactant. Interesterification reaction is an exothermic reaction, which releases energy, furthermore increasing temperature will supply more heat. According to Le Chatelier's principle, the equilibrium will shifted to the reactant side (Kusumaningtyas et al., 2014). Rachimoellah et al. (2009) reported that since transesterification is an exotherm reaction, excess methyl acetate is needed to decrease the reaction temperature and shift the equilibrium reaction to the product side. Triglyceride conversion is also decreasing on the temperature increment from  $50^{\circ}C$  to  $60^{\circ}C$ , which was due to the reaction temperature used that was higher than the boiling point of methyl acetate, which is  $56.1^{\circ}C$  (Said et al., 2010). Hence,

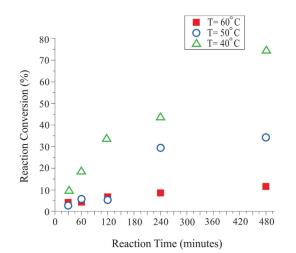


Figure 17.4 Effect of reaction time and temperature to the triglyceride converison.

reaction between oil and methyl acetate at this reaction temperature is not effective and decreases the yield of methyl ester. However, longer reaction times give more chance for the oil to react with methyl acetate and resulted in more biodiesel product. In this case, the optimum operating condition was obtained at the reaction temperature and time of  $40^{\circ}$ C and 8 h, respectively, with triglyceride conversion of 73.96%.

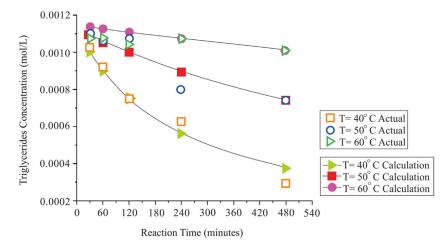
Chemical compounds of the product at the optimum condition are presented in Table 17.4. Based on Table 17.4, it was cleared that triacetin has not been found on the product analysis. It also can be concluded that the current operating condition was not the optimum condition for the interesterification reaction. However, glycerol was also found as the product. During the interesterification reaction between Jatropha oil and methyl acetate with KOH catalyst, the formation of triacetin di-(9-octadecenoyl)-glycerol inhibits the production of triacetin (Pristiyani, 2015). Brondani et al. (2020) suggested the higher reaction temperature and molar ratio of methyl acetate to oil in order to obtain higher yield of products.

## 17.5.7 Kinetic study

Fig. 17.5 shows the comparison between experimental data and the calculated triglyceride concentration as a function of reaction time and temperature. Based on the SSE between experimental data and the calculated triglyceride concentration, it can be concluded that the kinetic reaction of oil and methyl acetate interesterification process with the presence of NaOCH<sub>3</sub> catalyst can be approached by using second-order reversible kinetic model. Furthermore, based on the kinetic data for each temperature, kinetic factor (A) and energy activation (E) can be calculated by using Arrhenius equation. Table 17.5 shows the calculated kinetic rate of interesterification reaction as a function of reaction temperature.

No.	Retention time, min	Area %	Chemical compound
1	45.050	0.20	Di-9-octadecenoyl glycerol
2	45.582	4.71	Palmitic acid
3	47.952	0.13	Mono-oleic acid
4	48.129	0.11	Oleic acid
5	49.692	5.31	Methyl ester
6	53.996	4.88	Lauric acid
7	55.365	4.04	Oleic acid
8	58.987	3.40	Lauric acid
9	59.984	0.42	Lauric acid

Table 17.4 Chemical compounds of methyl ester at reaction temperature of  $40^{\circ}$ C and reaction time of 8 h.



**Figure 17.5** Relation between  $C_{TG}$  experimental data and  $C_{TG}$  calculated as a function of reaction time and temperature.

Temperature (°C)	Reaction rate constant (L/mol.min)
40	1.5728
50	0.6753
60	0.2151

Regression analysis of reaction rate constant in Table 17.5 results in a preexponential factor (A) of  $7.23 \times 10^{-15}$  L/mol.min and energy activation in terms of -E/R with 10,358 K/min. With a gas constant (R) of 8.314 J/mol/K, the obtained energy activation is 86,116.41 J/mol. Energy activation in this case was in line with the study reported by Casas et al. (2011), where the energy activation for conventional interesterification process was between 24,318 and 88,551 J/mol. The results are in accordance with Le Chatelier's principle, where reaction equilibrium will shift to the reactants for an exothermic reaction. As it can be seen in Table 17.5, the reaction rate is decreasing along with the increasing reaction temperature.

## 17.6 Conclusion

The data presented in this work demonstrate the feasibility of producing biodiesel fuels through interesterification reaction of Jatropha oil with methyl acetate in the presence of NaOCH<sub>3</sub> catalyst. Various parameters were studied, and it shows that the highest yield obtained in this study was 88.1% in oil to methyl acetate molar ratio of 1:6, reaction temperature of 50°C, and catalyst concentration of 1% w/w with 4 h of reaction time. Hence, highest catalyst concentration still can be used to achieve higher triglyceride conversion. Moreover, the resultant analysis of biodiesel product from various operating conditions shows the absence of triacetin. The kinetic model was fitted with the second-order reaction kinetic model. The energy activation was in line with the previous studies, which was 86,116.41 J/mol, while the preexponential factor (*A*) was  $7.23 \times 10^{-15}$  L/mol.min.

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