ทรานซ์เอสเทอริฟิเคชันที่ใช้เบสเป็นตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยาของน้ำมันพืชใช้แล้วโดยใช้ตัวทำละลายร่วม

นา<mark>งสาวเทพญ</mark>าณี หล<mark>อ</mark>ดคำ

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาวิศวกรรมศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต

สาขาวิชาวิศวกรรมเคมี ภาควิชาวิศวกรรมเคมี คณะวิศวกรรมศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย ปีการศึกษา 2552 ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

ALKALI-CATALYZED TRANSESTERIFICATION OF WASTE COOKING OIL

WITH COSOLVENT

Miss Thepyanee Lodcam

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Engineering Program in Chemical Engineering Department of Chemical Engineering Faculty of Engineering

Chulalongkorn University

Academic Year 2009

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Thesis Title

By Field of Study Thesis Advisor ALKALI-CATALYZED TRANSESTERIFICATION OF WASTE COOKING OIL WITH COSOLVENT Miss Thepyanee Lodcam Chemical Engineering Assistant Professor Montree Wongsri

Accepted by the Faculty of Engineering, Chulalongkorn University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Master's Degree

(Associate Professor Boonsom Lerdhirunwong, Dr.Ing.)

THESIS COMMITTEE

Chairman

(Professor Piyasan Praserthdam, Dr.Ing.)

Thesis Advisor

(Assistant Professor Montree Wongsri, D.Sc.)

Boristhep Khezhon

Examiner

(Soorathep Kheawhom, Ph.D.)

8. NN

(Prakorn Ramakul, Ph.D.)

External Examiner

เทพญาณี หลอดคำ : ทรานซ์เอสเทอริฟิเคขันที่ใช้เบสเป็นตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยาของน้ำมันพืชใช้ แล้วโดยใช้ตัวทำละลายร่วม. (ALKALI-CATALYZED TRANSESTERIFICATION OF WASTE COOKING OIL WITH COSOLVENT) อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก : ผศ.ดร. มนตรี วงศ์ศรี, 88 หน้า.

งานวิจัยนี้ศึกษาปัจจัยที่มีผลต่อกระบวนการสังเคราะห์ไบโอดีเขลจากน้ำมันพืชใช้แล้ว จากการทอดอาหารโดยใช้ปฏิกิริยาทรานส์เอสเทอริพีเคชัน ทำการทดลองที่สภาวะของ โพแทลเขียมไฮดรอกไซด์ร้อยละ 2.6, 2.9 และ 3.1 โดยน้ำหนักน้ำมันพืชใช้แล้ว ใช้เวลาในการทำ ปฏิกิริยา 10, 15 และ 30 นาที อัตราส่วนโดยโมลของน้ำมันพืชใช้แล้วต่อเมทานอลคือ 1:9 รวมถึง การศึกษากา<mark>รใช้</mark>ตัวทำละลายร่วมในการลังเคราะห์เพื่อเร่งอัตราการเกิดปฏิกริยาโดยการปรับปรุง ความสามารถในการละลายเข้าด้วยกันของเมทานอลและน้ำมันพืชโดยใช้ตัวทำละลายร่วม เต ตระไฮโดรฟูแรน MTBE และไดเอททิลอีเทอร์ ถูกใช้เป็นตัวทำละลายร่วมเนื่องจากสามารถละลาย ได้ทั้งในเมทานอลและน้ำมันพืช มีราคาถูก ไม่เป็นพิษ ไม่มีผลต่อปฏิกิริยาและสามารถแยกออก จากผลิตภัณฑ์ได้ง่ายเนื่องจากมีจุดเดือดที่ใกล้เคียงกับเมทานอล การทดลองทำโดยใช้อัตร่าส่วน โดยโมลของเมทานอลต่อตัวทำละลายร่วม ที่ 1:0.2 จากการทดลองพบว่าร้อยละของ โพแทสเขียมไฮดรอกไขด์ที่เหมาะในการทำปฏิกิริยาคือ ร้อยละ 2.6 ต่อน้ำหนักน้ำมัน และเมื่อทำ การทดลองที่รอบกวน 400 รอบต่อนาที พบว่า ปริมาณเมทิลเอสเทอร์สูงสุดที่อุณหภูมิ 60 องศา เซลเซียส 30 นาที สำหรับการทดลองที่ไม่ใช้ตัวทำละลายร่วมจะได้ร้อยละเมทิลเอสเทอร์ 92.8 ในขณะที่การใช้ THF, MTBE และ DEE เป็นตัวทำละลายร่วม จะทำให้ได้ร้อยละเมทิลเอสเทอร์สูง ถึง 95.8, 93.8 และ 94.0 ตามลำดับ

ศูนย์วิทยุทรัพยากร

ภาควิชา วิศวกรรมเคมี สาขาวิชา วิศวกรรมเคมี ปีการศึกษา 2552

ลายมือชื่อนิสิต ลายมือชื่ออ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลั

4971495621 : MAJOR CHEMICAL ENGINEERING KEYWORDS : METHYL ESTER / BIODIESEL / WASTE COOKING OIL / COSOLVENT THEPYANEE LODCAM: PRODUCTION OF BIODIESEL FROM WASTE COOKING OIL. THESIS ADVISOR: ASST. PROF. MONTREE WONGSRI, D.Sc., 88 pp.

The objective of this research was to study the effect factors of biodiesel synthesis from waste cooking oil (WCO) used in food frying using transesterification reaction. The series of experiment were carried out by using potassium hydroxide with 2.6, 2.9 and 3.1 wt% potassium hydroxide to WCO between 10, 15 and 30 minutes and WCO to methanol molar ratio 1:9. In addition, the thesis also investigated cosolvent of biodiesel synthesis in order to accelerate the reaction rate by improving the miscibility of methanol and WCO by the cosolvent. Tetrahydrofuran (THF), Methyl Tertiary Butyl Ether (MTBE) and diethyl ether (DEE) was used as a cosolvent due to they are miscible in both methanol and WCO, cheap price, nontoxic, inert to the reaction and easy to remove from the product due to their boiling point are close to methanol. The experiments were carried out by using methanol to cosolvent 1:0.2 by mole. The experiment result showed that potassium hydroxide 2.6 wt% is suitable for the reaction. From the experiments at 400 rpm found that the maximum methyl ester contents obtained from the reaction at 60 degree Celsius, 30 minutes were 92.8% for the reaction without cosolvent. While methyl ester contents from the reaction with THF, MTBE and DEE cosolvent at the same condition are 95.8%, 93.8% and 94.0% respectively.

 Department : Chemical Engineering
 Student's Signature

 Field of Study : Chemical Engineering
 Advisor's Signature

 Academic Year : 2009
 Student's Signature

Student's Signature

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge Ass. Prof. Dr. Montri Wongsri for his guidance and support throughout the course of my graduate studies and research.

Many thanks are also extended to KFC (Siam Paragon Brach) provide assistance on the provision of feedstock. Also, I am thankful to Scientific and Technology Research Center of Chulalongkorn University for assistance in the provision of experimental instrument.

Also, I am thankful to the advisory committee members, Prof. Dr. Piyasarn Praserthdam, Dr. Surathep Kheowhom and Dr. Prakorn Ramakul to their time spending for many useful advices and suggestions.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

With the depletion of oil resources as well as the negative environmental impact associated with the use of fossil fuels, there is a renewed interest in alternate energy sources. As world reserves of fossil fuels and raw materials are limited, it has stimulated active research interest in nonpetroleum, renewable, and nonpolluting fuels. Biofuels are the only viable source of energy for the foreseeable future and can still form the base for sustainable development in terms of socioeconomic and environmental concerns. Biodiesel appears to be promising future energy sources. It can be produced from renewable sources such as vegetable oils or animal fats. Although this fuel has gained worldwide recognition for many years, it is not being widely commercialized mainly because it is more expensive than petroleum diesel. A cheaper feedstock, such as waste cooking oil, may be used to improve the economics of biodiesel (Issariyakul, 2007). However, due to the presence of a number of impurities, a better technology is needed if a low quality feedstock is to be used to produce biodiesel.

Alkaline catalysts such as NaOH and KOH are the most commonly used in transesterification since their reaction is much faster than an acid-catalyzed reaction. However, if high free fatty acid (FFA) feedstock such as fryer grease is used, the reaction is then partially driven to saponification which partially consumes catalysts and creates soap. Soap resulting from saponification creates difficulty in separating the by-product glycerol from biodiesel, which ultimately reduces the ester yield. Although acidcatalyzed transesterification does not encounter this problem, it requires a longer reaction time, higher reaction temperature, and a corrosion-tolerant reactor. The use of a two-step acid/alkaline catalyzed transesterification could be more suitable to produce biodiesel from high FFA feedstock such as waste cooking oil.

Alcohols used in transesterification are those of short chain carbon. The most popular one is methanol mainly because it is an economical source of alcohol. Also, the reaction can proceed faster if methanol is used due to its superior reactivity. However, solubility of oils in methanol is low, therefore transesterification is limited by mass transfer. Ethanol, on the other hand, possesses higher solubility and reduces the effect of the mass transfer limitation. In addition, ethanol can be produced from renewable resources such as sugar crane, corn, and cassava thereby reducing dependency from petroleum sources. The disadvantage of using ethanol involves the strong emulsion formed during transesterification which causes difficulty in the glycerol separation process. However, ethanol can be used by mixing directly with gasoline for petrol fuel.

1.2 Objective of the Research

The current research work deals with the production of biodiesel from waste cooking oil using an alkaline transesterification process with a mixture of methanol and cosolvent. The objectives of this research work are

- 1.2.1 To produce biodiesel esters from waste cooking oil and methanol in a laboratory scale batch reactor system.
- 1.2.2 To study the factors affect to the transesterification reaction consisting of catalyst concentration, type of cosolvent, mixing speed, reaction time and temperature.

1.3 Scope of the Research

The research had been carried out to study the factors affect to transesterification reaction as follow:

- Catalyst concentration varying from 2.6 to 3.1 weight percent of Potassium Hydroxide to Waste Cooking Oil (WCO).
- 1.3.2 Type of cosolvent consisting of tetrahydrofuran (THF), methyl tertiary butyl ether (MTBE) and diethyl ether (DEE).
- 1.3.3 Reaction temperature varying from 35 to 60 degree Celsius.
- 1.3.4 Stirring speed varying from 200 to 550 rpm.
- 1.3.5 Reaction time varying from 10 to 30 minutes.

1.4 Benefit of the Reseach

Process of biodiesel production from waste cooking oil with gives the highest yield of methyl ester in the short reaction time, less energy consumption and low capital cost.

- 1.5 Research Metodology
 - 1.5.1 Study the previous researches and theory relevant to biodiesel production via transesterification.
 - 1.5.2 Set up laboratory equipment and chemicals for the experiment.
 - 1.5.3 Analyze chemical properties of raw material.
 - 1.5.4 Carry out the experiments.
 - 1.5.5 Analyze percentage of produced methyl ester using gas chromatograph.
 - 1.5.6 Conclude the experimental result.

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CHAPTER II

THEORY AND LITERETURE REVIEW

2.1 Biodiesel Production (Moser, 2009)

Biodiesel is defined by ASTM International as a fuel composed of monoalkyl esters of long-chain fatty acids derived from renewable vegetable oils or animal fats. Vegetable oils and animal fats are principally composed of triacylglycerols (TAG) consisting of long chain fatty acids chemically bound to a glycerol (1,2,3-propanetriol) backbone. The chemical process by which biodiesel is prepared is known as the transesterification reaction, which involves a TAG reaction with a short-chain monohydric alcohol normally in the presence of a catalyst at elevated temperature to form fatty acid alkyl esters (FAAE) and glycerol (Figure 2.1). The conversion of TAG to biodiesel is a stepwise process whereby the alcohol initially reacts with TAG as the alkoxide anion to produce FAAE and diacylglycerols (DAG, reaction, Figure 2.1), which react further with alcohol (alkoxide) to liberate another molecule of FAAE and generate monoacylglyerols (MAG, reaction, Figure 2.1). Lastly, MAG undergo alcoholysis to yield glycerol and FAAE (reaction, Figure 2.1), with the combined FAAE collectively known as biodiesel. Three moles of biodiesel and one mole of glycerol are produced for every mole of TAG that undergoes complete conversion. The transesterification reaction is reversible, although the reverse reaction (production of MAG from FAAE and glycerol, for instance) is negligible largely because glycerol is not miscible with FAAE, especially fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) when using methanol as the alcohol component. The reaction system is biphasic at the beginning and the end of biodiesel production, as methanol and vegetable oil and glycerol and FAME are not miscible. Methanol is most commonly used in the commercial production of biodiesel, since it is generally less expensive than other alcohols, but ethanol prevails in regions such as Brazil where it is less expensive than methanol.

Other alcohols aside from methanol and ethanol are also of interest for biodiesel production because FAAE produced from higher alcohols may have different fuel properties in comparison to methyl or ethyl esters (Knothe, 2005).



Figure 2.1 Transesterification of triacylglycerols to yield fatty acid alkyl esters (biodiesel).

Inexpensive homogenous base catalysts such as sodium or potassium hydroxide or methoxide are typically used in the commercial preparation of biodiesel from refined or treated oils. The classic alcoholysis conditions described by Freedman et al. (1984) include a TAG reaction with an excess of six molar equivalents of methanol (with respect to TAG) and 0.5 weight percent (wt.%) alkali catalyst (with respect to TAG) at 60°C for 1 h to produce fatty acid methyl esters (FAME, biodiesel) and glycerol. The chemical composition of biodiesel is dependent upon the feedstock from which it is produced, as vegetable oils and animal fats of differing origin have dissimilar fatty acid compositions (Table 2.1). The fatty ester

composition of biodiesel is identical to that of the parent oil or fat from which it was produced.

A recent report from International Grains Council in 2008 indicated that rapeseed oil was the predominant feedstock for worldwide biodiesel production in 2007 (48%, 4.6 million metric tons, MMT). The remaining oils included soybean (22%, 2.1 MMT) and palm (11%, 1.0 MMT), with the rest (19%, 1.8 MMT) distributed among other unspecified vegetable oils and animal fats. The leading vegetable oils produced worldwide during the 2008 fiscal year (October 1, 2008 to September 30, 2009) are palm (43.20 MMT), soybean (37.81 MMT), rapeseed (19.38 MMT), and sunflower (11.68 MMT) oils. Not surprisingly, vegetable oil production and biodiesel feedstock usage are intimately related. Feedstocks for biodiesel production vary with location according to climate and availability. Generally, the most abundant commodity oils or fats in a particular region are the most common feedstocks. Thus, rapeseed and sunflower oils are principally used in Europe for biodiesel production, palm oil predominates in tropical countries, and soybean oil and animal fats are most common in the USA (Demirbas 2006). However, even combining these feedstocks do not suffice to fully replace the volume of conventional petroleum diesel fuel (petrodiesel). Therefore, exploration of additional feedstocks for biodiesel production has been continuously gaining significance.

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Table 2.1. Typical fatty acid composition (wt.%)^a of a number of common feedstockoils^b and fats that may be used for biodiesel production (Moser et al.,2009)

Fatty acide	со	PO	SBO	SFO	C00	CSO	cco	CF	BT
C6:0					10	-	1		
C8:0							7		
C10:0							7		
C12:0							47		1
C14:0		1				1	18	1	4
C16:0	4	45	11	6	11	23	9	25	26
C18:0	2	4	4	5	2	2	3	6	20
C20:0									
C22:0				1					
C16:1						1		8	4
C18:1	61	39	23	29	28	17	6	41	28
C18:2	22	11	54	58	58	56	2	18	3
C18:3	10		8	1	1			1	
C20:1	1								
Other									14

^a From Gunstone and Harwood (2007); trace amounts (<1%) of other constituents may also be present

^b CO canola (low erucic acid rapeseed oil) oil, PO palm oil, SBO soybean oil, SFO sunflower oil, COO corn oil (maize), CSO cottonseed oil, CCO coconut oil, CF chicken fat, BT beef tallow ^c C6:0 methyl caproate, C8:0 methyl caprylate, C10:0 methyl caprate, C12:0 methyl laurate, C14:0 methyl myristrate, C16:0 meythyl palmitate, C18:0 methyl stearate, C20:0 methyl arachidate, C22:0 methyl behenate, C16:1 methyl palmitoleate, C18:1 methyl oleate, C18:2 methyl linoleate, C18:3 methyl linolenate, C20:1 methyl Eicosenoate

2.2 Advantages and Disadvantages of Biodiesel (Moser, 2009)

Biodiesel has attracted considerable interest as an alternative fuel or extender for petrodiesel for combustion in compression–ignition (diesel) engines. Biodiesel is miscible with petrodiesel in any proportion and possesses several technical advantages over ultra-low sulfur diesel fuel (ULSD, <15 ppm S), such as inherent lubricity, low toxicity, derivation from a renewable and domestic feedstock, superior flash point and biodegradability, negligible sulfur content, and lower overall exhaust emissions. Important disadvantages of biodiesel include high feedstock cost, inferior storage and oxidative stability, lower volumetric energy content, inferior low-temperature operability versus petrodiesel, and in some cases, higher NO_x exhaust emissions (Knothe et al., 2008). However, feedstock acquisition currently accounts for over 80% of biodiesel production expenses, which is a serious threat to the economic viability of the biodiesel industry. One potential solution to this problem is employment of alternative feedstocks of varying type, quality, and cost. These feedstocks may include soapstocks, acid oils, tall oils, waste cooking oils, and waste restaurant greases, various animal fats, non-food vegetable oils, and oils obtained from trees and microorganisms such as algae. However, many of these alternative feedstocks may contain high levels of free fatty acids (FFA), water, or insoluble matter, which affect biodiesel production.

2.3 Influence of Free Fatty Acids on Biodiesel Production (Moser, 2009)

Feedstock quality in large part dictates what type of catalyst or process is needed to produce FAAE that satisfies relevant biodiesel fuel standards. If the feedstock contains a significant percentage of FFA (>3 wt.%), typical homogenous base catalysts such as sodium or potassium hydroxide or methoxide will not be effective as a result of an unwanted side reaction (reaction [1], Fig. 2.2) in which the catalyst will react with FFA to form soap (sodium salt of fatty acid) and water (or methanol in the case of sodium methoxide), thus irreversibly quenching the catalyst and resulting in an undesirable mixture of FFA, unreacted TAG, soap, DAG, MAG, biodiesel, glycerol, water, and/or methanol (Lotero et al. 2005). In fact, the basecatalyzed transesterification reaction will not occur or will be significantly retarded if the FFA content of the feedstock is 3 wt.% or greater (Canakci and Van Gerpen, 1999, 2001). For instance, nearly quantitative yields of biodiesel are achieved with homogenous base catalysts in cases where the FFA content of the feedstock is 0.5 wt.% or less (Naik et al., 2008). However, the yield of biodiesel plummets to 6% with an increase in FFA content to 5.3 wt.% (Naik et al., 2008). A further complicating factor of high FFA content is the production of water upon reaction with homogenous base catalysts (reaction [1], Fig. 2.2). Water is particularly problematic because, in the presence of any remaining catalyst, it can participate in hydrolysis with biodiesel to produce additional FFA and methanol (reaction, Fig. 2.2).

A common approach in cases where the FFA content of a feedstock is in excess of 1.0 wt.% (Freedman et al., 1984; Zhang et al., 2003) is a two-step process in which acid pretreatment of the feedstock to lower its FFA content is followed by transesterification with homogenous base catalysts to produce biodiesel. In a typical acid pretreatment procedure, FFA are esterified to the corresponding FAME in the presence of heat, excess methanol, and acid catalyst, normally sulfuric acid (Issariyakul et al., 2007; Kumartiwari et al., 2007; Meng et al. 2008; Naik et al., 2008; Rashid et al. 2008). The two-step procedure readily accommodates high FFA-containing low-cost feedstocks for the preparation of biodiesel (Canakci and Van Gerpen 1999, 2001, 2003).



Figure 2.2 Formation of soap from reaction of free fatty acids (FFA) with catalyst and hydrolysis of biodiesel to yield FFA and methanol.

Despite the added capital costs associated with production, the integrated two-step process is being increasingly applied to prepare biodiesel from low-cost feedstock containing high numbers of FFA with good results (Lotero et al. 2005). Table 2.2 lists a number of recent examples of biodiesel prepared from feedstocks with high FFA content. Other potential strategies for the production of biodiesel from feedstocks with high FFA content include feedstock purification such as refining, bleaching, and deodorization to remove FFA content and other undesirable materials, if present. However, feedstock refining further increases production costs as a result of the additional equipment, time, and manpower that are required. Lastly, the employment of catalysts that are not destroyed by FAA in the production of biodiesel is another alternative to the methods listed above.

 Table 2.2
 Examples of biodiesel production from feedstocks high in free fatty

Feedstock	FFA (wt %)	Pretreatment method	Catalyst for transesterification	R ^a	Yield (wt %)	Ref
Pongamia pinnata	Up to 20	H ₂ SO ₄	КОН	Me	97	Naik et al. 2008
Moringa oleifera	2.9/0.953 ^b	H ₂ SO ₄	NaOCH ₃	Me	n.r.°	Rashid et al. 2008a
Jatropha curcas	14/<1	H ₂ SO ₄	КОН	Me	99+	Kumartiwari et al. 2007
Madhuca indica	20	None	Pseudomonas cepacia	Et	96+ ^d	Kumari et al. 2007
Nicotiana tabacum	35/<2	H ₂ SO ₄	КОН	Me	91	Veljkovic et al. 2006
Calophyllum inophyllum	22/<2	H ₂ SO ₄	КОН	Me	85	Sahoo et al. 2007
Zanthoxylum bungeanum	45.5/1.16 ^b	None	H ₂ SO ₄	Me	98	Zhang and Jiang 2008
Hevea brasiliensis	17/<2	H ₂ SO ₄	NaOH	Me	n.r.	Ramadhas et al. 2005
Heterotrophic microalgal	8.97 ^b	None	H ₂ SO ₄	Me	n.r.	Miao and Wu 2006
Acid oil	59.3	None	H ₂ SO ₄	Me	95	Haas et al. 2003
Fat from meat and bone meal	11	H ₂ SO ₄	КОН	Me	45.7	Nebel and Mittelbach 2006
Brown grease	40/<1	Diarylammonium catalysts	NaOCH ₃	Me	98+ ^d	Ngo et al. 2008
Waste cooking oil	7.25/<1 ^b	H ₂ SO ₄	NaOH	Me	90 ^d	Meng et al. 2008
Waste fryer grease	5.6	H ₂ SO ₄	КОН	Me/Et	90+	Issariyakul et al. 2007
Tung oil	9.55/0.72 ^b	Amberlyst-15	KOH	Me	90.2	Park et al. 2008a, b
Tall oil	100%	None	HCI	Me	n.r.	Demirbas 2008
Sorghum bug oil	10.5	None	H_2SO_4	Me/Et	77.4/97.6	Mariod et al. 2006

acids (FFA) (Moser, 2009)

"R refers to ester head group. Me methyl, Et ethyl

^b Acid value (mg KOH/g) was given instead of FFA. In cases where two values are given, the first value is prior to pretreatment and the second is after.

^c Not reported

^dConversion to esters (wt %) is provided instead of yield

2.4 Catalysts for Biodiesel Production (Moser, 2009)

Biodiesel is produced commercially using homogenous basic catalysts such as sodium (or potassium) hydroxide or methoxide because the transesterification reaction is generally faster, less expensive, and more complete with these materials than with acid catalysts (Boocock et al., 1996). The biodiesel industry currently uses sodium methoxide, since methoxide cannot form water upon reaction with alcohol such as with hydroxides (see Fig. 2.2; Zhou and Boocock, 2006a). Other alkoxides, such as calcium ethoxide, have also effectively catalyzed biodiesel production, albeit with higher methanol and catalyst requirements (Liu et al., 2008). The homogenous base-catalyzed transesterification reaction is about 4,000 times faster than the corresponding acid-catalyzed process (Srivastava and Prasad, 2000). Furthermore, base-catalyzed reactions are performed at generally lower temperatures, pressures, and reaction times and are less corrosive to industrial equipment than acid-catalyzed methods. Therefore, fewer capital and operating costs are incurred by biodiesel production facilities in the case of the base-catalyzed transesterification method (Freedman et al., 1986; Demirbas, 2008). However, the homogenous acid-catalyzed reaction holds an important advantage over the base-catalyzed method in that the performance of acid catalysts is not adversely influenced by the presence of FFA. In fact, acids can simultaneously catalyze both esterification and transesterification. For instance, FAME were prepared from acid oil, which consisted of 59.3 wt.% FFA, by acid-catalyzed transesterification at 65°C for 26 h with H2SO4 (1.5:1 molar ratio of catalyst to oil) and methanol (15:1 molar ratio of methanol to oil) in 95 wt.% purity. The remaining products consisted of FFA (3.2 wt.%), TAG (1.3 wt.%), and DAG (0.2 wt.%) (Haas et al., 2003).

A wide range of catalysts may be used for biodiesel production, such as homogenous and heterogeneous acids and bases, sugars, lipases, ion exchange resins, zeolites, and other heterogeneous materials. In general, acids are more appropriate for feedstocks high in FFA content. Homogenously catalyzed reactions generally require less alcohol, shorter reaction times, and more complicated purification procedures than heterogeneously catalyzed transesterification reactions. Heterogeneous lipases are generally not tolerant of methanol, so production of ethyl or higher esters is more common with enzymatic methods.

Noncatalytic transesterification of biodiesel may be accomplished in supercritical fluids such as methanol, but a very high pressure (45–65 bar), temperature (350°C), and amount of alcohol (42:1 molar ratio) are required (Saka and Kusdiana, 2001; Demirbas, 2003, 2005, 2006; Kusdiana and Saka, 2004). Advantages of supercritical transesterification versus various catalytic methods are that only very short reaction times (4 min, for instance) are needed, and product purification is simplified because there is no need to remove a catalyst. Disadvantages of this approach include limitation to a batch-wise process, elevated energy and alcohol requirements during production, and increased capital expenses and maintenance associated with pressurized reaction versels (Saka and Kusdiana, 2001; Demirbas, 2003, 2005, 2006; Kusdiana and Saka, 2004).

2.5 Alcohols Used in the Production of Biodiesel (Moser, 2009)

As previously mentioned, methanol is the most common alcohol used in the production of biodiesel. Other alcohols may also be used in the preparation of biodiesel, such as ethanol, propanol, iso-propanol, and butanol (Freedman et al., 1984, 1986; Zhou et al., 2003; Issariyakul et al., 2007; Stavarache et al., 2008). Ethanol is of particular interest primarily because it is less expensive than methanol in some regions of the world, and biodiesel prepared from bio-ethanol is completely bio-based. Butanol may also be obtained from biological materials, thus yielding completely bio-based biodiesel as well. Methanol, propanol, and iso-propanol are normally produced from petrochemical materials such as methane obtained from natural gas in the case of methanol.

Methanolysis. The classic reaction conditions for the methanolysis of vegetable oils or animal fats are 6:1 molar ratio of methanol to oil, 0.5 wt.% alkali catalyst (with respect to TAG), 600+ rpm, 60°C reaction temperature, and 1 h reaction time to produce FAME and glycerol (Freedman et al. 1984). A number of recent studies have described optimal reaction conditions for biodiesel production from various feedstocks using response surface methodology (RSM). Parameters that are normally optimized to produce the most biodiesel include catalyst type and amount, reaction time and temperature, amount of alcohol, and/or agitation intensity. Please refer to Table 2.3 for a summary of recent examples of biodiesel process optimization employing RSM. In addition to the studies listed in Table 2.3 are the following: Park et al. (2008), Rashid and Anwar (2008), Wang et al. (2008), Cetinkaya and Karaosmanoglu (2004). A representa- tive example of reaction conditions optimized by RSM is the work of Kumartiwari et al. (2007) in which Jatropha curcas oil methyl esters were produced (after acid pretreatment) using 0.55 wt.% KOH, 60°C reaction temperature, 5:1 molar ratio of methanol to oil, and 24 min reaction time to provide biodiesel in 99% yield. The reaction parameters do not vary by a significant amount, as seen by comparison of the classic reaction conditions to that of Kumartiwari et al. (2007) and others listed in Table 2.3, as discussed by Freedman et al. 1984.

Table 2.3	Recent examples of optimization of reaction conditions for production of
	biodiesel from various feedstocks using response surface methodology

Feedstock oil or fat	Catalyst (wt %)	Temp (°C)	MeOH	rpm	Time (min)	Yield (wt.%)	Ref
Pork lard	1.26 KOH	65	7.5:1	n.r.b	20	97.8°	Jeong et al. 2009
Rapeseed	1.0 KOH	65	6:1	600	120	95-96	Rashid and Anwar 2008a
Sunflower	1.0 NaOH	60	6:1	600	120	97.1	Rashid et al. 2008b
Safflower	1.0 NaOCH ₃	60	6:1	600	120	98	Rashid and Anwar 2008b
Jojoba	1.35 KOH	25	6:1	600	60	83.5	Bouaid et al. 2007
Rice bran	0.75 NaOH	55	9:1	n.r.	60	90.2	Sinha et al. 2008
Waste cooking oil	1.0 NaOH	50	9:1	n.r.	90	89.9°	Meng et al. 2008
Jatropha curcas	0.55 KOH	60	5:1	n.r.	24	99	Kumartiwari et al. 2007
Madhuca indica	0.70 KOH	60	6:1	n.r.	30	98	Ghadge and Raheman 2006
Pongamia pinnata	1.0 KOH	65	6:1	360	180	97-98	Meher et al. 2006b
Brassica carinata	1.2 KOH	25	6:1	600	60	97	Vicente et al. 2005
Used frying oil	1.1 NaOH	60	7:1	600	20	88.8	Leung and Guo 2006
canola	1.0 NaOH	40	6:1	600	60	93.5	Leung and Guo 2006
Cottonseed	1.07 KOH	25	20:1 ^d	600	30	98	Joshi et al. 2008a, b
Raphanus sativus	0.6 NaOH	38	11.7:1 ^d	n.r.	60	99.1	Domingos et al. 2008

" temp temperature of the reaction, MeOH mole ratio of methanol to oil, rpm (rotations per min) agitation intensity, time how long the reaction was conducted

b Not reported

^eConversion to esters (wt %) is provided instead of yield

^d Ethanol was used to produce the corresponding ethyl esters

The transesterification reaction employing methanol commences as two immiscible phases as a result of the very low solubility of TAG in methanol. Illustrative of this point is the fact that only 7.5 g of soybean oil is soluble in 1 L of methanol at 30°C (Boocock et al., 1996). The polar homogenous alkali catalyst is essentially exclusively dissolved in the polar methanol phase at the beginning of the reaction and does not come into contact with the TAG phase unless sufficient agitation is introduced. Stirring of sufficient magnitude causes TAG transport into the methanol phase where it is rapidly converted into FAME and glycerol, as depicted in Fig. 2.1. The rate at which FAME are produced during the transesterification reaction is thus controlled by mass-transfer limitations, which results in a lag time before conversion to FAME begins.

Once DAG and MAG intermediates are formed in sufficient quantity during the transesterification reaction, they serve as surfactants that improve mass transfer of TAG into the methanol phase. The reaction eventually transforms into another biphasic system that consists of ester-rich (FAME) and glycerol-rich phases. The alkali catalyst is preferentially soluble in the more polar glycerol-rich phase, which may result in a retardation of the rate of reaction (Mao et al., 2004). The glycerol-rich phase settles to the bottom of the reaction vessel when agitation is ceased, which facilitates purification of FAME.

As a result of the biphasic nature of the reaction mixture, there is a lag time at the beginning of the methanolysis reaction before FAME begins to form, after which the reaction speeds up, but then quickly decelerates (Freedman et al., 1984; Darnoko and Cheryan, 2000). The addition of co-solvents such as tetrahydrofuran (THF) to the methanolysis reaction significantly accelerates the production of FAME as a result of the formation of a monophasic as opposed to a biphasic reaction mixture (Mahajan et al., 2006). However, the molar ratio of methanol to oil must be increased to at least 25:1, which results in additional solvent that must be removed and recovered during purification. Other possibilities for accelerating the methanolysis reaction are micro- wave or ultrasonic (Stavarache et al., 2008) irradiation.

Ethanolysis. The classic conditions for ethanolysis of vegetable oils or animal fats are 6:1 molar ratio of ethanol to oil, 0.5 wt.% catalyst (with respect to TAG), 600+ rpm, 75°C reaction temperature, and 1 h reaction time to produce fatty acid ethyl esters (FAEE) and glycerol (Freedman et al. 1984). Ethyl esters have been prepared from a number of feedstocks for use or evaluation as potential biodiesel fuels (Issariyakul et al., 2007; Stavarache et al., 2008). In addition, mixtures of methyl and ethyl ester shave been reported whereby the transesterification reaction was conducted with both methanol and ethanol (Issariyakul et al., 2007). As in the case of methanolysis, the ethanolysis reaction has been optimized using RSM (Kucek et al., 2007)). Please refer to Table 6 for two recent examples from the literature. A representative example is that of the ethanolysis of crude Raphanus sativus oil (Domingos et al., 2008) in which 0.60 wt.% NaOH, 11.7:1 molar ratio of ethanol to oil, 38°C reaction temperature, and a 1-h reaction time afforded the corresponding ethyl esters in 99.1% yield. The reaction temperature and amount of ethanol in this case varied considerably from the conditions initially reported by Freedman et al. (1984).

Ethanolysis proceeds at a slower rate than methanolysis because of the higher reactivity of the methoxide anion in comparison to ethoxide. As the length of the carbon chain of the alkoxide anion increases, a corresponding decrease in nucleophilicity occurs, resulting in a reduction in the reactivity of ethoxide in comparison to methoxide. An example of this phenomenon is the transesterification (at 25°C) of canola oil with a 1:1 mixture of ethanol and methanol (to provide an overall molar ratio of alcohol to oil of 6:1) that results in 50% more methyl than ethyl esters (Kulkarni et al., 2007).

Another example is the transesterification of canola oil at 25°C with a 1:1 mixture of ethanol and methanol that results in methyl to ethyl ester ratios of 2.7:1 and at 75°C with a 1:1 mixture of ethanol and methanol that results in methyl to ethyl ester ratios of 1.3:1. These results indicate that methyl esters are preferentially formed at both ambient and elevated reaction temperatures but at elevated temperatures, the preference is diminished. Even though the formation of ethyl esters is comparatively slow, the overall rate of formation of esters is faster than with methanol alone due to the better solubility of TAG in a mixture of methanol and ethanol, which results in a reduction of mass transfer limitations (Kulkarni et al., 2007). For example, ultrasonically assisted transesterification of Melia azedarach (syringa) oil with methanol is complete after 40 min and with ethanol is complete after 20 min, respectively (Stavarache et al., 2008).

The base-catalyzed formation of fatty acid ethyl esters (FAEE) is more complicated than the production of FAME. Specifically, the formation of stable emulsions during ethanolysis is problematic during subsequent purification (Zhou et al., 2003; Zhou and Boocock, 2006a). In the case of methanolysis, these emulsions quickly and easily separate to form a lower glycerol-rich and an upper FAME-rich phase after agitation of the reaction has ceased. In ethanolysis, these emulsions are much more stable and severely complicate separation and purification of biodiesel (Zhou et al., 2003; Zhou and Boocock, 2006a). Ethanol is less polar than methanol, so it is slightlymoremiscible with TAG at ambient temperature than methanol, but mechanical agitation during the transesterification reaction is once again required to facilitate sufficient mass transfer between phases (Kulkarni et al., 2007).

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Butanolysis. The classic conditions for butanolysis of vegetable oils or animal fats are 6:1 molar ratio of butanol to oil, 0.5 wt.% catalyst (with respect to TAG), 600+ rpm, 114°C reaction temperature, and 1 h reaction time to produce fatty acid butyl esters and glycerol (Freedman et al., 1984). Butyl esters have been prepared from a variety of feedstocks for use or evaluation as potential biodiesel fuels (Freedman et al., 1986; Schwab et al., 1987; Zhou and Boocock, 2006a, b). To date, the butanolysis reaction has not yet been optimized by RSM.

Butanol is completely miscible with vegetable oils and animal fats because it is significantly less polar than methanol and ethanol (Boocock et al., 1996). Consequently, transesterification reactions employing butanol are monophasic throughout (Zhou and Boocock, 2006a, b). The monophasic nature of butanolysis reactions influences the rate and extent of the reaction. There are no mass transfer limitations in the case of butanolysis, since all reactants and catalysts are contained in a single phase. As a result, the initial rate of butanolysis is considerably faster than that of methanolysis. For example, the yield of esters after 1 min is 88 wt.% in the case of butanolysis (114°C reaction temperature) but only 78 wt.% for methanolysis (60°C; Schwab et al., 1987). Another study found that butanolysis (30°C) was 50% complete after only 15 s of reaction time, and 60% and 63.5% complete after 90 and 150 s, respectively. However, methanolysis (40°C) was only 55% complete after 10 min (Freedman et al., 1986). In a more recent example, 15.4 wt.% of TAG remained after 3 min of butanolysis as opposed to 84.4 wt.% in the case of methanolysis (Zhou and Boocock, 2006a). At up to 40% conversion to alkyl esters, methanolysis is 12-16 times slower than butanolysis if lag time in the case of methanolysis is ignored and even slower if it is not ignored (Boocock et al., 1996; Freedman et al., 1986). The difference in reactivity would be even more striking had the reactions in the above example been performed at similar temperatures (methanolysis was conducted at 40°C as opposed to 30°C for butanolysis). Because the reactions depicted in Fig. 1 for the conversion of TAG into alkyl esters are reversible, the monophasic nature of butanolysis affects the extent of reaction. In the case of methanolysis, glycerol separation from FAME severely curtails the unwanted reverse reactions.

In the case of butanolysis, the reverse reactions are more likely to occur because all materials are in contact throughout the reaction. The monophasic nature of butanolysis reactions also complicates purification of the resultant butyl esters, as gravity separation of glycerol at the conclusion of the reaction is not possible. The weaker nucleophilicity of butoxide versus methoxide is another factor that affects the extent of reaction. Although butanolysis proceeds at a faster initial rate than methanolysis, the final conversion to products after 1 h reaction (114°C and 60°C reaction temperatures, respectively) is 96 wt.% versus 98 wt.% for methanolysis (Schwab et al., 1987). In addition, after 1 h (at 23°C), 14.4 wt.% of bound glycerol (TAG + DAG + MAG) remained, whereas only 11.7 and 7.2 wt.% remained in the cases of methanolysis and ethanolysis, respectively (Zhou and Boocock, 2006b). In summary, the butanolysis reaction is monophasic throughout, which results in a faster initial rate of reaction but may yield lower overall conversion to butyl esters in comparison to methyl or ethyl esters.

2.6 Biodiesel Production from Waste Cooking Oil (Meng et al., 2008)

Currently, compared to petroleum-based diesel, the high cost of biodiesel is a major barrier to its commercialization. It is reported that approximately 70%– 85% of the total biodiesel production cost arises from the cost of raw material. Use of low-cost feedstock such as WCO should help make biodiesel competitive in price with petroleum diesel. Numerous studies have been conducted on biodiesel production and emission testing in the past two decades. Most of the current challenges are targeted to reduce its production cost, as the cost of biodiesel is still higher than its petro-diesel counterpart. This opens a golden opportunity for the use of WCO as its production feedstock. Everywhere in the world, there is an enormous amount of waste lipids generated from restaurants, food processing industries and fast food shops everyday.

Reusing of these waste greases cannot only reduce the burden of the government in disposing the waste, maintaining public sewers and treating the oily wastewater, but also lower the production cost of biodiesel significantly. Furthermore, biodiesel fuel has been demonstrated to be successfully produced from waste edible oils by an alkali-catalyzed transesterification process, and can be considered as alternative fuels in diesel engines and other utilities. Our purpose is to find the most appropriate parameters for WCO transesterification reaction process.



CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHOLOGY

3.1 General

The research had been carried out in a laboratory scale to study suitable reaction conditions for methyl ester production from waste cooking oil via batch transesterification using homogeneous base catalyst (Potassium hydroxide)

3.2 Experimental Equipment

- 1 Beaker 600 ml.
- 2 Stick glass
- 3 Spatula
- 4 Water bath
- 5 Tree blade paddle
- 6 Variable speed motor
- 7 Funnel
- 8 Thermometer
- 9 Hotplate
- 10 Weight scale
- 11 Gas chromatograph

3.3 Experimental Chemical

- 1. Methanol, Analytical grade : Merk.
- 2. Potassium hydroxide, Analytical grade : Carlo Erba
- 3. Tetrahydrofuran, Analytical grade : QReC
- 4. Methyl tertiary butyl ether (MTBE), Analytical grade: Carlo Erba
- 5. Diethyl ether (DEE), Analytical grade: J.T.Baker

6. Sulfuric acid, Analytical grade : J.T.Baker

3.4 Raw Material

Waste cooking oil using in the experiments was complimentary obtained from KFC.

3.5 Research Procedure

- 3.5.1 Analyze chemical properties of raw material for
 - 1 Free fatty acid content
 - 2 Free fatty acid composition in accordance with AOAC969.33, AOAC991.39 (2005)
- 3.5.2 Experimentation steps
 - 1 Filter and heat the waste cooking oil to a temperature of approximately 120 degree Celsius for 60 minute in order to remove the impured water (100 g).
 - 2 Mix methanol with potassium hydroxide at 60 degree Celsius to become Methoxide (34.04 g methanol with 2.6, 2.9 and 3.1 weight percent of Potassium hydroxide to methanol).

Mix cosolvent with the waste cooking oil at the required reaction temperature (0.2 mol ratio of cosolvent to waste cooking oil, 35 and 60 degree Celsius)

Heat or cool the methoxide obtained from step 3 to the required reaction temperature.

Pour the methoxide obtained from step 4 into the mixed oil and cosolvent in step 3. and stir at 200,250,400 and 550 rpm. Start counting the reaction time.

- 6 Terminate the reaction using sulfuric acid to neutralize the unreacted base catalyst and to reduce soap produced from sponification of free fatty acids and base catalyst [1]
- 7 Pour the product into a funnel and leave it until methyl ester and glycerol is completely separated (3 hours).
- 8 Check the upper layer, methyl ester, of the separated product to remove the un-reacted excess methanol and cosolvent by distillation at a temperature approximately 100 degree Celsius.
- 9 Wash methyl ester with distillated water to remove the excess base catalyst, methanol, cosolvent and glycerol.
- 10 Pour methyl ester and water into a funnel and leave it until methyl ester and washing water is completely separated.
- 11 Wash methyl ester until the washing water is neutralize (pH7).
- 12 Remove washing water by heating the methyl ester at a temperature of approximately 120 degree Celsius for 1 hour duration.
- 13 Filter the methyl ester using filter paper no.1 and keep the sample for the analysis of ester composition by gas chromatograph.
- 3.5.3 Analyze percentage of produced methyl ester using gas chromatograph.

The content of fatty acid methyl ester (FAME) in product was analyzed by a GC-2010 gas chromatography (Shimadzu). Its column is SGE, BP20 GC capillary column ($30m \times 0.32mmi.d. \times 0.25\mu m$ film thickness) capable to maintain temperature in the range of 20 - 250 degree Celsius. The temperature of the injector and the flame ionization detector (FID) was 210 and 250 °C, respectively. The chromatographic conditions are summarized in Table 3.1 below:-

Table 3.1 Chromatograp	ohic	conditions
------------------------	------	------------

Condition	Value
Carrier gas (He) flow rate	30 mL/min
Detector temperature (FID)	250 °C
Split ratio	1 : 25
Injection part temperature	220 °C
Inject volume	1 μL
Column temperature	210 °C
Holding time	30 min

The ester content of fatty acid methyl ester is determined in accordance with EN14103:2003 (Fat and Oil Derivatives – Fatty Acid Methyl Ester (FAME) – Determination of ester and linolenic acid methyl ester contents) using methyl heptadecanoate ($C_{18}H_{36}O_2$) as an internal standard and use normal heptane as a solvent. Appendix B shows how to determine FAME content from gas chromatograph in accordance with EN 14103. Appendix E contains GC result for the products. Gas chromatography of the products was carried out by Scientific and Technological Research Equipment Center Chulalongkorn University.

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

CHAPTER IV RESULTS AND DISSCUSION

4.1 Raw material properties

The chemical properties of the waste cooking oil feedstock, used for chicken frying provided by KFC (Siam Paragon Brach), from batch to batch used in the experiments were analyzed by Thailand Institute of Scientific and Technological Research using AOAC 969.33, AOAC 991.39 (2005) analytical standard with Gas Chromatography are shown in Table 4.1

	Molecular weight		% by weight
Free Fatty acid,			2.09
Fatty acid composition;			
Lauric acid	C12:0	200	0.41
Myristic acid	C14:0	228	0.96
Plamitic acid	C16:0	256	36.64
Palmitoleic acid	C16:1 n-7	254	0.54
Heptadecanoic acid	C17:0	270	0.10
Stearic acid	C18:0	284	3.60
Cis-9-Octadecenoic acid	C18:1 n-9	282	45.02
Cis-9,12-Octadecadienoic acid	C18:2 n-6	280	10.34
Cis-9,12,15-Octadecatrienoic acid	C18:3 n-3	280	0.86
Arachidic acid	C20:0	312	0.31
Cis-11-Eicosenoic acid	C20:1 n-9	310	0.25
Behenic acid	C22:0	340	0.10
Lignoceric acid	C24:0	368	0.06
Unidentified peak			0.81
Total fatty acid composition			100
Molecular weight			847.21

 Table 4.1: Fatty acid composition of waste cooking oil

4.2 Effect of catalyst concentration

The concentration of the catalyst was the first parameter studied. The effect of KOH concentration on the transesterification of the WCO was investigated with its concentration varying from 2.6 to 3.1 wt% (based on the weight of raw oil). The operating conditions during the whole reaction process were fixed at: reaction temperature of 60°C, reaction time of 30 minutes, speed of 250 rpm and molar ratio of methanol to oil at 9:1.





From figure 4.1 shows that increasing of potassium hydroxide results in increasing of methyl ester due to increasing of catalyst is the increasing of chemical catalytic activity which help to break free fatty acid from triglyceride to have more reaction with alcohol. From the experiments found that increasing of potassium hydroxide to a certain point (more than 2.9 wt%) will create soap which is hard for product separation. At 2.6 wt% of potassium hydroxide to WCO, the product purification is quite easy.

4.3 Effect of speed

Mixing is an important factor for the transesterification reaction because methanol and oil is immiscible.

Ma et al. (1998b, 1999) studied the transesterification process of beef tallow with methanol. Because the solubility of methanol in beef tallow was 19% w/w at 100°C (Ma et al., 1998b), mixing was essential to disperse the methanol in beef tallow in order to start the reaction. They also pointed out that once the two phases were mixed and the reaction was started, stirring was no longer needed.





mins, 2.6%KOH

This research studied for the optimum speed using 9:1 constant molar ratio of methanol to oil, 2.6 wt% of potassium to oil, 60 °C and 15 minutes reaction time with varying stirring speed of 200, 250, 400 and 550 rpm. The paddle used in the experiments is three blade paddle, 5 cm diameter and 2.2 cm blade diameter. The beager is 9 cm diameter, 13 cm height with 3.2 cm chemical level in case of the reaction without cosolvent and 4.2 cm chemical level in case of using cosolvent. Distant between

blades to bottom of the beager is 1.5 cm. The experimental results are shown in figure 4.2.

From the above figure, methyl ester contents in the product from gas chromatography analysis are:-

- Reaction without cosolvent at 200, 250, 400 and 550 gave 84.6%, 87.5%, 90.8% and
 92.8% methyl ester content, respectively.
- 2) Reaction with THF cosolvent at 200, 250, 400 and 550 gave 89.0%, 91.1%, 93.6% and 94.4% methyl ester content, respectively.
- 3) Reaction with MTBE cosolvent at 200, 250, 400 and 550 gave 85.6%, 88.3%, 91.5% and 93.1% methyl ester content, respectively.
- 4) Reaction with DEE cosolvent at 200, 250, 400 and 550 gave 87.4%, 90.2%, 93.1% and 94.2% methyl ester content, respectively.

Figure 4.2 shows that increasing of stirring speed will increase methyl ester content in the product due to increasing stirring speed resulting in smaller droplet size diameter of methanol from blade shearing. This will increase reaction surface for methanol, catalyst and oil resulting in faster reaction rate. In case of the reaction with tetrahydrofuran cosolvent, the highest content of 94.4 wt% methyl ester occurs at 550 rpm stirring speed. However, increasing of stirring speed from 250 rpm to 550 rpm enhances only 5.4 wt% additional methyl ester content whereas the reaction without cosolvent enhances 8.2 wt% methyl ester content from the same speed increasing.

4.4 Effect of temperature and time

Figure 4.3 shows result of the experiments which were carried to study the effects of reaction time using 2.6 wt% potassium hydroxide to WCO, 1:9 molar ratio of WCO to methanol, 400 rpm stirring speed at 35 °C and 60 °C reaction temperatures for 10, 15 and 30 minutes without cosolvent




From the above figure, methyl ester contents in the product from gas chromatography analysis are

- At 35 °C reaction temperature and 10, 15, 30 min. reaction time gave 87.1%, 89.7%, 91.6% methyl ester content, respectively.
- 2) At 60 °C reaction temperature and 10, 15, 30 min. reaction time gave 89.0%, 90.8%,
 92.8% methyl ester content, respectively.

Figure 4.3 shows that reaction temperature has a great effect to the reaction. This is due to higher temperature will increase energy for the reaction which results in greater percent of methyl ester. It was also found that at the first 10 to 15 minutes the increasing rate of methyl ester yield is quite high and will be lower at 30 minutes which is in line with the research by Darnoko (2000). Danoko studied the effect of reaction time on biodiesel production from palm oil via esterification reaction using 1 wt% potassium hydroxide, 50 °C reaction temperature and 90 minutes reaction time. The reaction rate is high in the first 5 minutes. Triglyceride was decreasing very fast whereas diglyceride and monoglyceride were increasing then.decreasing very fast. Reaction rate was slower after 15 minutes as can be seen from the slower increasing rate of methyl ester and the reaction tends to be in equilibrium after 30 minutes.

The study was also carried out using tetahydrofuran, MTBE and diethyl ether as a cosolvent to assist the transesterification at the same conditions with the result shown in figure 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6 respectively.



Figure 4.4 Effects of reaction temperature and time to Methyl ester content (wt%) for the reaction with tetahydrofuran cosolvent

The experimental results show the same trend with the reaction without cosolvent. However, using tetrahydrofuran as a cosolvent will result in higher methyl ester content in the product at the same experiment conditions due to tetahydrofuran cosolvent will assist in faster mixing of oil and methanol into the same phase even at low temperature, hence increasing the reaction rate and methyl ester content in the product.

From the above figure, methyl ester contents in the product from gas chromatography analysis are

- At 35 °C reaction temperature and 10, 15, 30 min. reaction time gave 87.6%, 90.2%, 91.9% methyl ester content, respectively.
- 2) At 60 °C reaction temperature and 10, 15, 30 min. reaction time gave 90.6%, 93.6%, 95.8% methyl ester content, respectively.



Figure 4.5 Effects of reaction temperature and time to Methyl ester content (wt%) for the reaction with MTBE cosolvent

From the above figure, methyl ester contents in the product from gas chromatography analysis are:-

- At 35 °C reaction temperature and 10, 15, 30 min. reaction time gave 87.5%, 89.6%,
 91.5% methyl ester content, respectively.
- 2) At 60 °C reaction temperature and 10, 15, 30 min. reaction time gave 89.8%, 91.5%,
 93.8% methyl ester content, respectively.

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From the above figure, methyl ester contents in the product from gas chromatography analysis are:-

- At 35 °C reaction temperature and 10, 15, 30 min. reaction time gave 87.4%, 89.3%,
 91.4% methyl ester content, respectively.
- 2) At 60 °C reaction temperature and 10, 15, 30 min. reaction time gave 89.8%, 93.1%,
 94.0% methyl ester content, respectively.

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CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

- 1. In this study, the optimum concentration of catalyst, KOH, is 2.6 wt% which is lesser than the threshold concentration limit that cause difficulty for glycerol separation due to soap formation from excess amount of catalyst with free fatty acids.
- 2. Addition of cosolvent into the reaction mixture making oil miscible with methanol. Because mass transfer in the one-phase reaction is superior to that in the two-phase reaction, due to an increase in the contact surface, the production rate of methyl ester by the one-phase reaction increases. Therefore, the initial addition of a cosolvent enhances the miscibility of oil to methanol and reduces the time required to form the one-phase system.
- 3. Using tetrahydrofuran as a cosolvent resulted in higher methyl ester content than diethyl ether in which diethyl ether cosolvent gave higher methyl ester content than MTBE cosolvent. The maximum methyl ester content obtained from the alcali-catalyzed transesterification of waste cooking oil and methanol (1:9 molar ratio) without cosolvent using 2.6 wt% KOH and 400 rpm stirring speed was 92.8 wt% at 60 °C reaction temperature and 30 minutes reaction time while the reaction at the same condition with 0.2 mol% tetrahydrofuran, DEE and MTBE cosolvent gave methyl ester content 95.8, 94.0 and 93.8 wt% respectively.
- 4. In this study, the experiments to observe the effects of stirring speed also had been carried out by varying stirring speed from 250 to 550 rpm using 9:1 molar ratio of methanol to waste cooking oil, 2.6 wt% KOH, 60 °C and 15 minutes reaction time, found that the maximum methyl ester contents for the reaction with and without tetrahydrofuran cosolvent were 94.4 and 92.8 wt%, at the maximum stirring speed of 550 rpm, respectively. However, the increasing of

stirring speed from 200 rpm to 550 rpm enhances only 5.4 wt% additional methyl ester content for the reaction with tetrahydrofuran cosolvent whereas the reaction without cosolvent enhances 8.2 wt% methyl ester content from the same speed increasing. Hence, stirring speed has more effect on the reaction without cosolvent.

5. It also observed that increasing the reaction time (upto 30 minutes) and reaction temperature (upto 60 °C) also resulted in higher methyl ester content in the product.

5.2 Recommendations

- 1. The addition of diethyl ether to the reaction as a cosolvent can improve the reaction rate and methyl ester content but with less efficiency than tetrahydrofuran. However, due to the fact that diethyl ether is cheaper than tetahydrofuran, the comparative economics study between tetrahydrofuran and diethyl ether is recommended.
- 2. In order to obtain methyl ester content to meet with the biodiesel standard, i.e. 96.5 wt% minimum, it was found that even using tetrahydrofuran in the reaction temperature 60 °C at 30 minutes still could not achieve that value (the experiment result was 95.8 wt%), so further study by increasing stirring speed, methanol to oil molar ratio or catalyst concentration is recommended.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

REACTION CHEMISTRY CALCULATION

Waste Cooking Oil Molecular Weight Calculation



From Triglyceride formation reaction, the molecular weight of triglyceride can be obtained from the following equation:-

$$MW_{TG} = 3 R_{avg} + 38$$

$$R_{avg} = \sum_{n} \left[\sqrt[6]{F_{AN}} \times MW_n \right] + 38$$

Where

*MW*_{TG} is average molecular weight of triglyceride

- R_{avg} is average Molecular weight of fatty acid less COOH
- $\%F_{AN}$ is %wt of each fatty acid in waste cooking oil
- MW_n is Molecular weight of each fatty acid

 $R_{AVG} = (0.41 \times 200.32) + (0.96 \times 228.36) + (36.64 \times 256.43) + (0.54 \times 254.41) + (0.1 \times 270.45) + (3.6 \times 284.48) + (45.02 \times 282.46) + (10.34 \times 280.45) + (0.86 \times 280.45) + (0.31 \times 312.53) + (0.25 \times 310.51) + (0.1 \times 340.59) + (0.06 \times 368.64) = 269.74 \text{ g/mol}$

 $MW_{TG} = (3x265.1) + 38$

= 847.21 g/mol

Table A1 Chemical physical properties

Chemical	Density (g/ml)	Molecular Weight	
Waste cooking oil		847.21	
Methanol	0.79	32.04	
Tetrahydrofulan	0.88	72.11	
МТВЕ	0.74	88.15	
Diethyl Ether (DEE)	0.71	74.12	

Methanol Quantity Calculation

The experiment used waste cooking oil 100 g

Molar ratio of methanol to oil is 9

Waste cooking oil 100 g equals to 100/847.21 = 0.120 mol

Hence, methanol used is $9 \times 0.120 = 1.06$ mol or $1.06 \times 32.04 = 34.04$ g

or 32.04/ 0.79 = 43.09 ml

Catalyst Quantity Calculation

The experiment used 2.6 %wt catalyst to waste cooking oil

Hence, catalyst quantity used is (2.6/100) x 100 =2.6 g

Tetrahydrofuran Quantity Calculation

Methanol used in the experiment is 1.06 mol Used 0.2 molar ratio of tetrahydrfuran to methanol Hence, tatrahydrofuran used is $0.2 \times 1.06 = 0.21$ mol or $0.21 \times 72.11 = 15.14$ g or 10.38/0.88 = 17.21 ml

MTBE Quantity Calculation

Methanol used in the experiment is 1.06 mol Used 0.2 molar ratio of MTBE to methanol Hence, MTBE used is $0.2 \times 1.06 = 0.21$ mol or $0.21 \times 88.15 = 18.51$ g or 12.69/0.74 = 25.01 ml

DEE Quantity Calculation

Methanol used in the experiment is 1.06 mol Used 0.2 molar ratio of DEE to methanol Hence, DEE used is $0.2 \times 1.06 = 0.21$ mol or $0.21 \times 74.12 = 15.57$ g or 15.57/0.71 = 21.92 ml



APPENDIX B

DETERMINATION OF METHYL ESTER CONTENT

Analysis of Methyl Ester Content in the Product

Methyl ester content in the product is determined from gas chromatograph in accordance with EN 14103: 2003 using methyl hetadecanoate (C17:0) as an internal standard and uses normal heptane ($n-C_7H_{16}$) as a solvent. Methyl ester content is calculated using the following formula:

$$C = \frac{(\sum A) - A_{EI}}{A_{EI}} x \frac{C_{EIX}V_{EI}}{m} x100$$

Where

 $\sum A$ is the total peak area from methyl ester in C14 to that in C24:1

 A_{EI} is the peak area corresponding to methyl heptadecanoate

 C_{EI} is the concentration, in mg/ml, of methyl heptadecanoate solution being used

 V_{El} is the volume, in ml, of the methyl haptadecanoate solution being used

m is the mass, in mg, of the sample

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APPENDIX C COSOLVENT SELECTION

Solvent selection criteria are:-

- 1. The selected cosolvents shall be inert to the reaction
- 2. The selected cosolvent shall have a boiling point lower and near to the boiling point of methanol to simplify the solvent recycle by flashing them out of the product at the boiling point of methanol.
- 3. The selected cosolvents shall be soluble in both methanol and triglyceride. Due to methanol is a polar substance while triglyceride which contains a long chain alkyl (hydrocarbon) group is non-polar, hence they are immiscible. So, the selected cosolvents which can be solute in both methanol and triglyceride shall have both polar and non-polar parts in their molecules.

The following table summarized the properties of cosolvents selected for the study.

Chemical Solubility in Formula Molecular Density (g/ml) Boiling Wt Water (20 °C) Point (°C) Tetrahydro 0.88 Soluble C_4H_8O 72.11 67 Furan $C_{5}H_{12}O$ MTBE 85.15 0.74 55.2 26 g/l 74.12 Diethyl ether $C_4 H_{10} O$ 0.71 69 g/l 34.6

Table C.1 Properties of selected cosolvent

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Fig. C.1 Molecular Structure of Tetrahydrofuran, MTBE and Diethyl Ether

The above figures show molecular structure of THF, MTBE and DEE from the left to right respectively. It can be seen that all these cosolvents have both polar part (at hydrogen atom) and non-polar part (at oxygen atom). MTBE and diethyl ether have lower boiling point than the melting point of waste cooking oil which requires higher reaction temperature. However, these cosolvents were selected due to they have lower and near boiling point to that of methanol, soluble in both methanol and triglyceride and the reaction will be carried out in a closed reactor. The boiling point of the solution will also be raised by the high content of both methanol and the non volatile triglyceride.



APPENDIX D

ERROR ANALYSIS

In order to check the accuracy/ error of the experimental result, three samples were tested at the same reaction conditions, i.e. 9:1 mol MeOH/ Oil, 2.6 wt% KOH, 60 °C, 15 minutes, 550 rpm, with THF cosolvent. The results are shown in the figure below.



Fig. D.1 Methyl ester content from experiments at the same reaction conditions

Reaction condition: 9:1 mol MeOH/ Oil, 2.6 wt% KOH, 60 °C, 15 minutes, 550 rpm, with THF cosolvent

From the above results

- average methyl ester content is 94.37 wt%
- maximum methyl ester content (from experiment no. 3) is 94.53 wt% or +0.17% error from the average value
- minimum methyl ester content (from experiment no. 2) is 94.18 wt% or

-0.19 % error from the average value

It can be concluded that if the different of methyl ester content from the different experiment conditions is less than 0.35 wt% (94.18 – 94.53), the result can be considered that these conditions yield the same methyl ester content.

APPENDIX E

EXPERIMENTAL DATA

1. Experimental Data

Sample No.	Cosolvent	Reaction Condition				
		%KOH	Speed (rpm)	Teperature (°C)	Time (min)	
W01	-	2.6	250	60	15	
W02		2.9	250	60	15	
W03	-/	3.1	250	60	15	
W04	THF	2.6	250	60	15	
W05	THF	2.9	250	60	15	
W06	THF	3.1	250	60	15	
W07	- /	2.6	200	60	15	
W08	<u> </u>	2.6	400	60	15	
W09	-/	2.6	550	60	15	
W10	THF	2.6	200	60	15	
W11	THF	2.6	400	60	15	
W12	THF	2.6	550	60	15	
W13	MTBE	2.6	200	60	15	
W14	MTBE	2.6	250	60	15	
W15	MTBE	2.6	400	60	15	
W16	MTBE	2.6	550	60	15	
W17	DEE	2.6	200	60	15	
W18	DEE	2.6	250	60	15	
W19	DEE	2.6	400	60	15	
W20	DEE	2.6	550	60	15	
W21	-	2.6	400	35	10	
W22	-	2.6	400	35	15	
W23	-	2.6	400	35	30	

Sample No.	Cosolvent	Reaction Condition			
		%KOH	Speed (rpm)	Teperature (°C)	Time (min)
W24	-	2.6	400	60	10
W25	-	2.6	400	60	30
W26	THF	2.6	400	35	10
W27	THE	2.6	400	35	15
W28	THF	2.6	400	35	30
W29	THF	2.6	400	60	10
W30	THF	2.6	400	60	30
W31	MTBE	2.6	400	35	10
W32	MTBE	2.6	400	35	15
W33	MTBE	2.6	400	35	30
W34	MTBE	2.6	400	60	10
W35	MTBE	2.6	400	60	30
W36	DEE	2.6	400	35	10
W37	DEE	2.6	400	35	15
W38	DEE	2.6	400	35	30
W39	DEE	2.6	400	60	10
W40	DEE	2.6	400	60	30
W41	THF	2.6	550	60	15
W42	THFR	2.6	550	60	15

2. Gas Chromatography Analysis for Methyl Ester Content in Product



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จุฬาลงกรณ่มหาวิทยาลัย



ุ ศุนยวทยทรพยากร เหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย



ุ ศุนยวิทยทรัพยากร งุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย



จุฬาลงกรณ่มหาวิทยาลัย



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จุฬาลงกรณ่มหาวิทยาลัย





ุ ศูนยวทยทรพยากร เหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย



คุนยวทยทรพยากร



จุฬาลงกรณ่มหาวิทยาลัย



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ุ คุนยวทยทรพยากร เหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย







ุ คุนยวทยทรพยากร เหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Analysis Date & Time User Name Vial# Sample Name Sample ID Sample Type Injection Volume ISTD Amount	: 2/9/2552 11:01:18 : Admin : 11 : W26 : UNK-0001 : Unknown : 1.00 :	
Data Name Method Name	: D:\ACID\FA100.gcd : D:\ACID\FATTY ACID-2.gcm	
Intensity		
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3000000- 2000000- 1000000-	-2.574/ -2.574/ -2.575/ 5.575/ 5.548/ 5.648/ 6.045/ 9.208/ 9.725/	13.728 /
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คูนยวทยทรพยากร หาลงกรณ์แหาวิทยาล์







ศูนยวิทยทรัพยากร เหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Analysis Date & Time : 15/7/2552 10:39:47 User Name : Admin Vial# : 11 Sample Name Sample ID : W31 : UNK-0001 Sample Type : Unknown Injection Volume : 1.00 ISTD Amount Data Name : D:\ACID\FA26.gcd Method Name : D:\ACID\FATTY ACID-2.gcm Intensity 1.513/ 2500000-715 / 200000-1500000-1000000-5.758 500000-684/ 2.626 .083 / 902 / 35 963 0-Ó min Peak# Cmpd Name Ret.Time Area Height Conc. Unit Mark ID# 755464899 02189232 0.000 1.513 S 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 2.083 115376 40487 0.000 0.000 2.626 305717 83372 3.715 14300999 2332650 0.000 8800843 4.557 1213886 0.000 V 5.684 1073793 0.000 127262 6.123 17314310 0.000 1745825 V 8 9 6.758 4723399 506935 0.000 V 7.902 176568 27328 0.000 10 9.435 70531 0.000 7698 9.963 67289 6023 11 0.000 Total 802413724 08280698



ศูนยวิทยทรัพยากร เหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Analysis Date & Time : 2/9/2552 12:08:01 User Name : Admin Vial# :15 : W33 Sample Name Sample ID : UNK-0001 Sample Type Injection Volume : Unknown : 1.00 ISTD Amount : D:\ACID\FA104.gcd : D:\ACID\FATTY ACID-2.gcm Data Name Method Name Intensity 4000000-1.488/ 3.657 / 3000000 2000000 647 100000-5.568 / 3.812 2.572 2.043 / .724/ 13.757 / 203 / .722 / 0 ļ ⁻խարագրություրություն<mark>ներություններություններություրություններություններություններություններություններություններո 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 <mark>7 8</mark> 9 10 11 12 13 14</mark> Ó min Peak# Cmpd Name Ret.Time Area Height Conc. Unit Mark ID# 0.000 1.488 835401040 78951523 1 S 2.043 170743 75020 0.000 2 3 4 5 6 2.572 442405 S 141579 0.000 Š T 3.657 18798139 0.000 3652383 3.812 106039 41917 0.000 10901996 4.477 1860759 0.000 V 7 1604862 5.568 190830 0.000 8 6.036 23122332 0.000 2371073 V 9 867479 6.642 5382435 0.000 V 10 311013 7.724 0.000 57306 11 9.203 119211 15251 0.000 9.722 12 117084 11923 0.000 13.757 13 35480 1015 0.000 Total 896512779 88238058





ุ ศุนย์วิทยทรัพยากร เหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย













ศูนยวทยทรพยากร จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย



BIOGRAPHY

Miss Thepyanee Lodcam was born in Udorn Thani province on April 13, 1982, she graduated from Chulalongkorn University and received Bachelor degree in Chemical Science in 2004. In 2006 she entered the Graduate School of Chulalongkorn University to continue her study of Chemical Engineering.

