

1 **MESOPOROUS NiO/Al-SBA-15 CATALYSTS FOR SOLVENT-FREE**
2 **DEOXYGENATION OF PALM FATTY ACID DISTILLATE**

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19 **ABSTRACT**

20 A series of 5 wt% NiO/Al-SBA-15 catalysts were prepared by wet impregnation of ordered,
21 mesoporous Al-SBA-15 supports (Si/Al molar ratios spanning 5-75) synthesised by a true
22 liquid crystal templating (TLCT) method. The catalytic activity of the resulting catalysts was
23 studied in the solventless, hydrogen-free deoxygenation (DO) of palm fatty acid distillate
24 (PFAD), using a semi-batch reactor at 350 °C. ²⁷Al and ²⁹Si MAS-NMR was used to quantify
25 the speciation of framework and extra-framework Al as a function of Si:Al ratio, before and
26 after NiO functionalisation; TEM and XRD confirmed the formation of 9-10 nm NiO
27 nanoparticles in all cases. NiO/Al-SBA-15 catalysts exhibited excellent catalytic activity for
28 PFAD deoxygenation, with hydrocarbon yields reaching 86 % and a selectivity to the diesel
29 fraction (C₁₁-C₁₇) of 91 %.

30

31 **KEYWORDS:** Mesoporous, aluminosilicates, true liquid crystal templating, Ni/Al-SBA-15,
32 PFAD, cracking, deoxygenation, green diesel

33

34 **1. INTRODUCTION**

35 Research and development into the production of green diesel fuel from renewable
36 plant, algae or fatty acid containing oil feedstocks is an attractive advanced technology to
37 replace the use of fossil fuels as transportation fuels, and reduce the worldwide dependence
38 on crude oil as a main energy source. Green diesel can be classified as a second-generation
39 biofuel as it involves the use of non-food derived resources as the feedstock, such as
40 lignocellulosic waste biomass, waste cooking oil and non-edible components of plant
41 material [1-5].

42 Palm oil is among the most traded vegetable oil in the world, and approximately 90%
43 of the world's palm oil exports are produced in Asia, mostly in Malaysia and Indonesia.
44 Studies on converting biomass from the palm oil industry to green diesel are at an early stage,
45 however methods to reduce the cost of raw materials has emerged as a priority to improve
46 the economic viability of green diesel as a fuel [6,7]. Numerous types of low-grade oils and
47 waste biomass are produced by the palm oil industry that are suitable for conversion to green
48 diesel, the most notable of which is palm fatty acid distillate (PFAD). Use of low value
49 PFAD, which is a common by-product or waste from the palm oil refining process, as a
50 feedstock has potential to reduce the cost of green diesel production, while also eliminating
51 environmental pollution associated with current problems of improper disposal of PFAD into
52 water ways. PFAD typically comprises > 80% free fatty acid (FFA), mostly palmitic, stearic,
53 oleic, and linoleic acids, along with a small percentage of lauric, myristic and linolenic acids.
54 Glycerides, vitamin E, squalene, sterols and volatile substances are also present as minor
55 components of PFAD [8–10]. The high percentage of FFA makes PFAD a highly promising
56 potential feedstock for green diesel production.

57 Deoxygenation (DO) and hydrodeoxygenation (HDO) are well-known technologies
58 for green diesel production. Both processes produce green diesel which is less-oxygenated
59 with high oxidative stability and properties similar to those of conventional petroleum-
60 derived fuels [11–13]. HDO is an expensive route to product fuel, as the reaction requires
61 high pressures and high volumes of H₂ gas to remove oxygen from FFA [15] as H₂O. In
62 contrast DO is more economical, and involves hydrocarbon chain cracking and removal of
63 oxygen from the FFA structure as CO₂/CO via decarboxylation/decarbonylation
64 (DCX/DCN) reactions [14,15]. For both reactions, catalyst design is very important to

65 promote optimum yields of straight hydrocarbons from PFAD (the reaction feedstock), and
66 can be controlled by tuning the physicochemical properties of catalysts. Particle size, particle
67 distribution and surface morphology, as well as the purity, must be controlled to obtain
68 catalysts with tailor-made chemical and physical properties suitable for particular
69 applications and specific reaction systems that give the desired final product [16,17].
70 Choosing the right catalyst support is crucial because the support can enhance the catalytic
71 activity by promoting active metal dispersion, increasing the number of active sites by
72 forming new active phases, stabilizing active phases, minimizing the effect of coke-induced
73 deactivation and decreasing the cost of the catalyst [14,16,18–20].

74 SBA-15 has received considerable attention as a templated mesoporous catalyst
75 support for heterogeneous catalysis because of its 2D hexagonal pore structure, controllable
76 pore diameter, narrow pore size distribution and large pore volume [21,24,25]. SBA-15 is
77 also readily modified to incorporate an active metal or promoter and tune activity for a
78 specific application, [26,27] with the incorporation of aluminium into the SBA-15 framework
79 one approach to introduce acid sites on the support [27–31]. Transition metals catalyst have
80 been extensively applied in numerous catalyst reaction systems, such as DO, HDO, oxidation
81 and reduction [32,33], with nickel of particular interest as an active phase owing to its low
82 cost and high earth abundance compared with noble metals [34–36]. Supported nickel
83 catalysts are however prone to deactivation by coking and sintering during HDO and DO
84 processes, however, the use of acidic supports are known to increase the interaction of nickel
85 with the support and improve catalytic activity [18]. The use of highly ordered
86 mesostructured acidic Al-SBA-15 materials should be attractive supports for DO catalysts as
87 their large specific surface areas facilitate high dispersions of active metal or metal oxide

88 particles [21], while the presence of large pore diameters should improve the diffusion and
89 adsorption of large FFA molecules at the active site [22,23].

90 Here, we report the preparation of a 5wt% NiO/Al-SBA-15 catalysts using a wet
91 impregnation process in which the acidic properties of the Al-SBA-15 catalyst support was
92 systematically tuned by varying the Si/Al molar ratio from 5-75. The Al-SBA-15 catalyst
93 support was prepared using the true liquid crystal template (TLCT) so as to achieve high
94 structural order in the mesoporous support [ref]. Resulting 5wt% NiO/Al-SBA-15 catalysts
95 are utilised in the production of hydrocarbon-based green diesel via solventless, hydrogen
96 free deoxygenation of palm fatty acid distillate.

97

98 **2. EXPERIMENTAL**

99 **2.1 Material**

100 Analytical grade reagents were used to synthesize catalysts in this work without
101 further purification. Pluronic P123 ((triblock copolymer poly(ethylene glycol)-
102 poly(propylene glycol)-poly(ethylene glycol) with an average molecular weight of 5800 was
103 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, tetramethylorthosilicate (TMOS) ($C_4H_{12}O_4Si$) with purity \geq
104 98%, aluminium nitrate nonahydrate ($Al(NO_3)_3 \cdot 9H_2O$) with $> 99\%$ purity and 2 M
105 hydrochloric acid (HCl) were obtained from Merck. Nickel (II) nitrate hexahydrate
106 ($Ni(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$) with $> 99\%$ purity was purchased from the R&M Company. Absolute
107 ethanol (C_2H_6O) was purchased from Fisher Scientific.

108 The PFAD used as a feedstock in this work was generously provided by the Catalysis
109 Science and Technology Research Centre (PutraCat), and was used as a starting material for
110 DO reactions without any pretreatments. PFADs were composed of high fractions (81.7%)

111 of FFAs and glycerides (14.4%) with trace amounts of vitamin E, squalene, sterol and other
112 volatile substances. Typically, the FFAs fraction of Malaysian PFAD is composed of
113 saturated fatty acids such as lauric acid (0.2%), myristic acid (1.2%), palmitic acid (47.1%)
114 and stearic acid (4.5%) and unsaturated fatty acids such as oleic acid (36.6%), linoleic acid
115 (9.6%) and linolenic acid (0.47%) [8,37].

116

117 **2.2 Catalyst Synthesis**

118 **2.3 Synthesis of Al-SBA-15 support**

119 Al-SBA-15 supports with different Si/Al molar ratios (5, 25, 50 and 75) were
120 prepared using the TLCT method. Pluronic P-123 (2g) and appropriate amount of
121 $\text{Al}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ were dissolved in acidified water, (pH 2 (HCl)) contained within a
122 polypropylene bottle. The mixture was subsequently immersed in an ultrasonic water bath at
123 40 °C for 2 hours to produce a homogenous gel, after which 4.08 ml of TMOS was added to
124 the stirred solution until a smooth gel with a free-flowing liquid was observed. Methanol
125 evolved in the reaction was removed under light vacuum (100 mbar) at 40 °C for 18 hours in
126 a vacuum oven. The resulting dried samples were ground into a fine powder and calcined in
127 a muffle furnace at a ramp rate of 1.5 °C min⁻¹ to 550 °C, where it was maintained for 5 hours.

128

129 **2.4 Synthesis of Ni/Al-SBA-15**

130 The Ni/Al-SBA-15 catalyst was prepared using $(\text{Ni}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O})$ as the Ni precursor.
131 In this wet impregnation method, x g of $\text{Ni}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (estimated to give a 5 wt.% Ni
132 loading) was dissolved into x ml ethanol under stirring. 1g of finely ground Al-SBA-15
133 powder was the added to the solution and continuously stirred vigorously at ambient

134 temperature for a few hours. Next, the solution was heated slowly with stirring at ~ 80 °C and
135 maintained until the light green milky suspension was almost dry. The resulting material was
136 dried for 18 hours in an electrical oven at 80 °C. The resulting dried samples were ground
137 into a fine powder and then calcined in a muffle furnace at ramp rate of 5 °C min^{-1} to 550 °C,
138 where it was maintained for 5 hours. The resulting catalysts were labelled NiO/Al-SBA-
139 15(n), where n denotes the Si/Al molar ratio (5, 25, 50 and 75). NiO/SBA-15 was also
140 prepared for comparison using the same procedure. The SBA-15 catalyst support was
141 prepared using the same TLCT method described in the literature[24].
142

143 **2.5 Catalyst Characterization**

144 The resulting powder samples were characterized using a Bruker D8 Advance
145 diffractometer fitted with a LynxEye X'celerator detector at $\text{CuK}\alpha$ ($\lambda = 1.54$ Å) for phase
146 confirmation. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were collected by wide-angle scans between
147 10° to 80° , with a step size of 0.02° and a scan rate of 1 s. Low-angle XRD patterns were
148 scanned between 0.45 to 8° with a step size of 0.01° and scan rate of 0.6 s. The Scherrer
149 equation was used to calculate the volume-averaged crystallite diameters. An ASAP
150 Micromeritics 2020 instrument was used to analyse the catalysts by N_2 physisorption. All
151 catalysts were degassed at 150 °C for two hours to remove moisture and unknown gases
152 before the nitrogen gas adsorption-desorption measurements were conducted at -196 °C. The
153 specific surface area was calculated by the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method, and the
154 pore size distribution and pore volume of the catalyst were calculated by the Barrett-Joyner-
155 Halenda (BJH) method using the nitrogen desorption branches of the isotherm. An X-ray
156 fluorescence (XRF) (Bruker S8 Tiger) instrument equipped with a rhodium tube operating at

157 4 kW was used to determine the elemental composition and metal loading of the catalysts.
158 Samples were analysed without any special pre-treatment.

159 The acidity of the catalyst was investigated through temperature programmed
160 reaction of propylamine, using thermogravimetric analysis coupled with mass spectrometry
161 (TGA-MS). Prior to analysis, 30 mg of catalyst was wet-impregnated with a small amount
162 of propylamine (Sigma-Aldrich, $\geq 99\%$) and dried in a fume hood under lamellar flow before
163 drying in a vacuum oven overnight at 40°C. The impregnated catalyst was analysed by TGA
164 instrument (Mettler Toledo TGA/DSC2 STAR) between 40 and 800 °C under flowing
165 nitrogen (30 ml/min) at a ramp rate of 10 °C/min. The effluent gas from TGA was passed
166 and monitored through a Pfeiffer Vacuum ThermoStar MS at $m/Z = 41$ for propene
167 desorption. The acidity of the catalyst was measured by quantification of reactively formed
168 propene from the acid sites. The characteristic acid sites (Brønsted/Lewis) on the catalyst
169 were studied with a diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS)
170 using pyridine as a probe molecule. Prior to analysis, the catalysts were ground with KBr (50
171 wt.%) into a fine powder, wetted with neat pyridine and left to dry under a fume hood before
172 drying overnight in a vacuum oven at 40 °C. DRIFT spectra were collected at room
173 temperature in absorbance mode using a Thermo scientific Nicolet iS50 FTIR spectrometer
174 with an MCT detector and Smart Collector accessory. Solid-state ^{27}Al and ^{29}Si nuclear
175 magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra were recorded at 104.20 MHz and 79.49 MHz,
176 respectively, using a Bruker Avance III HD spectrometer attached to a 4 mm magic-angle
177 spinning (MAS) probe. ^{27}Al spectra were obtained using direct excitation with a pulse angle
178 of approximately 30 degrees, with a 0.2 s recycle delay and a sample spin-rate of
179 approximately 14 kHz. ^{29}Si spectra were obtained using direct excitation with background

180 suppression with a 60 s recycle delay and a sample spin-rate of 8 kHz. Spectral referencing
181 was made with respect to an external sample of aqueous 1 M aluminium nitrate for ^{27}Al and
182 neat tetramethyl silane for ^{29}Si . The morphology of the resulting catalyst was examined using
183 high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM, 200 kV FEI Tecnai F20 Super-
184 Twin) coupled to energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS, Oxford Instrument X-Max^N 80T) for
185 element mapping and further determination of the elemental composition of the synthesized
186 catalyst.

187

188 **2.6 Catalytic Deoxygenation of PFAD**

189 The DO of PFAD was performed in semi-batch mode with a 250 ml three-necked
190 flask reactor in a heating mantle equipped with a modified reflux distillation unit and nitrogen
191 gas flow in a combined system. Approximately 5 wt. % loading of supported NiO catalyst
192 was added to PFAD without liquid solvent in the reactor. Before the reaction started, nitrogen
193 was flowed through the reactor system to ensure the reaction occurred in the inert
194 atmosphere. Under constant stirring and with a nitrogen flow rate of approximately 20
195 cc/min, the temperature was increased to the desired temperature of 350 °C and maintained
196 for 2 hours. During the DO reaction, nitrogen gas carried all evolved gases/vapours to the
197 cooled condenser, in which condensable (deoxygenated) products can be collected at the
198 vessel collector, while nitrogen gas continues to flow to a trap containing 50 ml of 1 M
199 sodium hydroxide. The external circulating cooling water was used to ensure that the
200 condenser temperature was below 15 °C. After the reaction was completed, the reactor
201 temperature was decreased to room temperature, and the nitrogen flow was stopped.

202

203 2.7 Diesel Composition Analysis

204 The final liquid phase of the DO fraction products was analysed by gas
205 chromatography (GC, Agilent 7890A Series) equipped with an HP-5 capillary column
206 (length: 30 m × inner diameter: 0.32 mm × film thickness: 0.25 μm) and flame ionization
207 detector (FID). A series of alkane and alkene standards (C₈-C₂₀), and 1-bromohexane as an
208 internal standard was acquired from Sigma-Aldrich, and employed for identification and
209 quantitative analysis. GC-grade n-hexane was used to dilute the resulting liquid product prior
210 to yield analysis, with an aliquot of approximately 1 μl was injected into the GC column. The
211 column inlet temperature and FID detector were set to 250 °C and 300 °C, respectively. The
212 oven temperature was held for 6 min at 40 °C and increased to 270 °C at a heating rate of 7
213 °C/min.

214 The performance of the catalyst in the DO process with PFAD was evaluated by the
215 percentage of both saturated and unsaturated straight-chain hydrocarbon yields (X). All
216 analyses were repeated several times with the same condition to validate the reliability of the
217 results.

$$218 \quad X = \frac{\sum na + \sum nb}{\sum nz} \times 100\%$$

219 where: na = area of alkene (C₈-C₂₀), nb = area of alkane (C₈-C₂₀), and nz = area of product

220

221 The hydrocarbon selectivity (Y) of the hydrocarbon was calculated by:

$$222 \quad Y = \frac{Cx}{\sum nx} \times 100\%$$

223 where: Cx = area of desired hydrocarbon fraction, and nx = area of hydrocarbon

224

225 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

226 3.1 Physicochemical Properties of the Catalyst

227 Low-angle and wide-angle XRD patterns of both the catalyst support and
228 corresponding supported NiO catalysts are illustrated in **Figures 1** and **S1**. The parent Al-
229 SBA-15 all show well defined low angle diffraction peaks ~ 1.1 - 1.2° indicative of the (100)
230 reflection of the hexagonal porous network (**Figure S1a**), while wide angle patterns show no
231 evidence of crystalline phases of Al_2O_3 , suggesting the successful incorporation of Al^{3+} into
232 the silica framework (**Figure S1b**). Following impregnation with NiO, low angle XRD
233 (**Figure 1a**) demonstrates the two-dimensional $p6mm$ hexagonal arrangement of the Al-SBA-
234 15 and SBA-15 supports were retained, however, a slight decrease in the (100) and (110)
235 reflections, suggests a slight decrease in the mesopore ordering in the final supported NiO
236 catalyst [30,36,38]. The good crystallinity and phase purity of NiO is shown in the wide-
237 angle XRD pattern in **Figure 1b**. The observed broad peak at $\sim 20^\circ$ - 30° for all synthesized
238 catalysts (**Figures S1b and 1b**) was attributed to amorphous silica in the framework. The
239 effective impregnation of NiO on both Al-SBA-15 and SBA-15 catalyst supports, can be
240 verified the presence of diffraction peaks at $\sim 37.22^\circ$, 43.19° , and 62.74° , which correspond
241 to the (111), (200) and (220) planes of face-centred cubic NiO (JCPDS 01-075-0197). No
242 other peaks related to unknown phases were visible (within the detection limits of XRD),
243 indicating that the condition used in this synthesis could produce a relatively pure phase of
244 supported NiO on Al-SBA-15 and SBA-15.

245 All synthesized SBA-15 and Al-SBA-15 materials in **Figure S2a** exhibit similar Type
246 IV isotherms, consistent with purely mesoporous materials with similar pore sizes and non-
247 intersecting mesopores [40,41]. Impregnation with NiO (**Figure 2a**) does not change the
248 mesoporous structure of the catalysts, which retain the structural characteristics typical of
249 TLCT synthesized SBA-15 [24]. All NiO/SBA-15 and NiO/Al-SBA-15 catalysts exhibit the
250 H1 hysteresis loop attributed to a honeycomb-like mesoporous structure with well-defined
251 cylindrical pore channels [42]. Slight differences in magnitude of the hysteresis, particularly
252 for NiO/Al-SBA-15(25), may reflect the decreased pore diameter, which falls into a regime
253 where a significant hysteresis loop is not expected [ref]. The existence of Al³⁺ in the matrix
254 of mesoporous Al-SiO₂ catalyst supports has previously been observed to alter the pore and
255 textural properties relative to pure SiO₂ supports [12,43]. **Figures S2b** and **2b** show narrow
256 pore size distributions for all synthesized catalyst supports and corresponding supported NiO
257 catalysts, confirming the genesis of highly dispersed NiO nanoparticles does not disrupt the
258 porous hexagonal structure of the support.

259 **Table 1**, summarises the physicochemical properties of the parent supports and NiO
260 doped catalysts. SBA-15 has the largest specific surface area (698 m²g⁻¹) with the specific
261 surface area decreasing as more Al³⁺ is incorporated into the SBA-15 framework. The
262 variation of surface area with Al³⁺ content is shown in **Figure S3**, for the lowest concentration
263 of Al³⁺ (Si/Al = 75) the surface area decreases to 410 m²g⁻¹, then remains constant at 386
264 m²g⁻¹ and 384 m²g⁻¹ respectively for Si/Al = 25 and 50, before decreasing to 309 m²g⁻¹ for
265 the highest concentration of Al³⁺ (Si/Al = 5). A similar trend, albeit with lower surface area,
266 is observed upon introduction of NiO into the Al/SBA-15 and SBA-15 catalyst supports.
267 This decrease in surface area is associated with the deposition of NiO, including particle

268 aggregation of the synthesized material during calcination, which may partially blocked some
269 pores or cover the surface catalyst of the SBA-15, affecting the silica network connectivity
270 contributing to a decrease in surface area [39][6].

271

272 **TABLE 1.** Physicochemical properties of the synthesized catalysts

Catalyst	BE T surface area (m ² g ⁻¹)	Pore volume (cm ³ g ⁻¹)	Average Pore size (nm)	NiO Crystallite size (nm)	Ni content ^d (wt.%)	Si/Al molar ratio ^d	Acid site loading ^e (mmolg ⁻¹)
SB A-15	698	0.978	6.2	-	-	-	-
NiO-SB A-15	522	0.924	6.9	9.7 ± 0.5	7.10	-	0.144
Al-SB A-15(75)	410	0.402	3.4	-	-	113.49	0.215
NiO/Al-SB A-15(75)	264	0.305	3.6	9.7 ± 0.5	7.16	61.07	0.219
Al-SB A-15(50)	384	0.420	4.5	-	-	69.50	0.231
NiO/Al-SB A-15(50)	254	0.342	4.2	9.8 ± 0.5	7.35	41.07	0.242
Al-SB A-	386	0.322	3.2	-	-	38.20	0.297

15(25)								
Ni	26	0.2	3.1	9.4	6.82		24.85	0.322
O/Al-SBA-A-15(25)	1	47		±				
				0.5				
Al-SBA-A-15(25)	30	0.3	3.6	-	-		7.75	0.486
SB	9	60						
A-15(5)								
Ni	16	0.1	3.4	9.6	6.42		5.39	0.500
O/Al-SBA-A-15(5)	4	93		±				
				0.5				

- 273 a. BJH desorption pore volume
274 b. BJH desorption average pore diameter
275 c. Calculated using the Scherrer equation based on the XRD diffraction pattern
276 d. Estimated from the XRF analysis (errors in Si/Al = ± 20%)
277 e. Calculated by propylamine TGA-MS analysis
278

279 The pore volume of SBA-15 was highest at 0.978 cm³/g, consistent with the highest
280 surface area, whereas the NiO/Al-SBA-15(5) catalyst exhibited the lowest pore volume,
281 0.193 cm³/g and surface area. The incorporation of Al³⁺ into the SBA-15 framework had a
282 significantly reduced the pore volume, with further reduction observed upon subsequent
283 doping with NiO. The SBA-15 support and NiO-SBA-15 catalyst have slightly higher
284 average pore sizes of ~6-7 nm, while Al-SBA-15 samples possessed smaller average pore
285 size of ~3.2-4.5 nm which were largely unchanged upon incorporation of NiO. The estimated
286 average crystallite size of NiO of NiO-SBA-15 and all NiO/Al-SBA-15 catalysts were
287 determined to be ~9-10 nm according to the Debye Scherer method (**Table 1**). These were

288 obviously larger than the average pore size of the catalyst support, indicating that a number
289 of NiO particles were present on the external surface of the mesoporous catalyst support.

290 The elemental composition of the Al-SBA-15 supports and corresponding supported
291 NiO catalysts prepared with various Si/Al mole ratios were investigated using XRF elemental
292 analysis (**Table 1**). The calculated Ni content was in good agreement with the theoretical
293 value, verifying the effectiveness of wet impregnation for incorporating an accurate loading
294 of NiO onto the catalyst support. The experimental Si/Al molar ratio of the parent Al-SBA-
295 15 supports showed good agreement with the intended ratios (5, 25, 50 and 75), and within
296 the accuracy of the measurement was unchanged following doping with NiO.

297 The acidity of the synthesized catalysts was evaluated by temperature programmed
298 reaction of chemisorbed propylamine and TG-MS [44–46]. The peak intensity of the
299 desorption of the reactively formed propene is proportional to the acid site loading, while the
300 desorption temperature reflects the acid strength. **Figure S4** shows the temperature-
301 programmed desorption of reactively formed propene from propylamine decomposition over
302 the parent Al-SBA-15 supports, which indicates that the acidity of all synthesized materials
303 was greatly improved when Al³⁺ was present in the framework of the catalyst support. The
304 presence of NiO particles on the corresponding catalyst support (**Figure 3**) also slightly
305 increased the acid site loading slightly as shown in **Table 1**, which suggests Lewis acidic
306 Ni²⁺ sites in the surface of NiO may also contribute to propylamine decomposition. All
307 synthesized catalyst supports exhibited propene desorption in a similar range of temperatures
308 at ~430 °C, with the acid site loading increasing with decreased Si/Al molar ratio;
309 corresponding supported NiO catalyst exhibited a similar trend but with a slightly lower
310 desorption temperature of ~420 °C. The lower temperature of propene desorption suggests

311 there is a synergy between NiO and acid sites on the Al-SBA-15 support catalyst that
312 increases the acid strength of the synthesized catalyst. The most acidic catalyst is Ni/Al-SBA-
313 15(5), which is believed to comprise a large amount of both Brønsted and Lewis acidic sites.
314 The lowest acid site loading was observed for Ni-SBA-15, which had only Lewis acid sites,
315 and is most likely attributed to defects on the SiO₂ support and low coordination Ni²⁺ sites in
316 the surface of NiO nanoparticles. The effect of Brønsted and Lewis acidic sites on the catalyst
317 acidity can be observed in **Figure 4**, which shows the DRIFT spectra of chemisorbed pyridine
318 on the NiO/Al-SBA-15 and NiO/SBA-15 catalysts. The absorption bands at approximately
319 1446, 1570 and 1590-1600 cm⁻¹ correspond to pyridine adsorption at the Lewis acid sites
320 [45]. The Brønsted acid sites arise from the pyridine adsorption band at approximately 1547
321 and 1640 cm⁻¹, while the 1490 cm⁻¹ band is attributed to pyridine adsorbed at the Brønsted
322 and Lewis acid sites [44]. The bands at 1446 and 1590 cm⁻¹ may also have a contribution
323 from pyridine hydrogen bonded to weak silanol groups [44,47]. As the Si/Al molar ratio
324 decreases the intensity of bands at 1547 cm⁻¹ and 1640 cm⁻¹ and 1490 cm⁻¹ increases,
325 indicative of the genesis of Brønsted acid sites in the Si-O-Al framework, while the intensity
326 of the Lewis acid bands remained almost unchanged. The intensity of the band associated
327 with the Brønsted acid increased proportionally with an decreased Si/Al molar ratio (i.e. Al³⁺
328 content). The absence of Brønsted acid bands in NiO/SBA-15 further evidences that Brønsted
329 acidity arises in the aforementioned catalysts from Si-O-Al interactions, and that some Lewis
330 acidity originates from Ni²⁺ in NiO [32].

331 The distribution of Al³⁺ in Al-SBA-15 and corresponding NiO-supported catalyst can
332 be elucidated by ²⁷Al and ²⁹Si MAS NMR of the parent support and for NiO/Al-SBA-15(5)
333 (**Figure 5**), with ²⁷Al MAS NMR spectra distinguishing between framework and extra-

334 framework Al^{3+} species in SBA-15. The interaction of Al^{3+} with the SBA-15 catalyst support
335 results in three resolved peaks arising in the NMR spectrum at chemical shifts of
336 approximately 51, 27 and 0 ppm. The peak line at approximately 51 ppm demonstrates the
337 incorporation of Al^{3+} species into the SBA-15 framework via tetrahedral coordination (AlO_4
338 structural unit, Al(tet)) of Al^{3+} covalently bound to four Si atoms via oxygen bridges [48,49].
339 Meanwhile, the peaks at approximately 27 and 0 ppm are assigned to the non-framework or
340 extra-framework coordination of Al^{3+} as pentahedral (AlO_5 structure unit, Al(penta)) and
341 octahedral (AlO_6 structure unit, Al(oct)) arrangements [50,51]. The Al-SBA-15(5) shows the
342 simultaneous presence of all three peaks for AlO_4 , AlO_5 and AlO_6 structural units, which
343 suggests at high Al content more Al was present in an extra-framework form [48,52]. As the
344 Al content is decreased to Al-SBA-15(50) and Al-SBA-15(75), the tetrahedral peak at 51
345 ppm is dominant indicating the successful incorporation of just framework Al^{3+} into SBA-
346 15. The TLCT thus method proved successful in doping the walls of SBA-15 by the
347 incorporation of Al^{3+} species into the SBA-15 framework without destroying the SBA-15
348 structure. For NiO/Al-SBA-15(5) the peaks associated with pentahedral (27 ppm) and
349 octahedral (0 ppm) Al^{3+} decrease significantly compared to the parent Al-SBA-15(5). This
350 suggests that highly reactive extra-framework Al-OH groups in the parent support may have
351 interacted with Ni^{2+} , thereby altering the coordination of extra-framework Al^{3+} . Such
352 interactions in NiO/Al-SBA-15(5), coupled with paramagnetic effects from NiO may
353 account for the decreased intensity of pentahedral (27 ppm) and octahedral (0 ppm) peaks
354 observed in **Figure 5a** [38,53,54]. In contrast, the framework Al^{3+} species at 51 ppm is
355 relatively unchanged upon doping with NiO indicating the stability of this species during the
356 impregnation step. The ^{29}Si MAS NMR spectra of Al-SBA-15 and NiO/Al-SBA-15(5) shows

357 a relatively broad, featureless band at about -109 ppm. The chemical shift range for ^{29}Si for
358 aluminosilicates is relatively narrow spanning -102 to -116 ppm, with Si (3 Si, 1 Al) expected
359 around -106 ppm [ref]. Thus the peak observed for Al-SBA-15 falls in the correct range for
360 $\text{Si}(\text{O}-\text{Si})_n(\text{OAl})_{4-n}$ units, with the broadness of the peak reflecting the amorphous nature of
361 the mesoporous walls of Al-SBA-15 [55,56]. The strong interaction of paramagnetic NiO
362 with the Al-SBA-15 catalyst support reduces the intensity of the ^{29}Si signal from NiO/Al-
363 SBA-15(5) relative to the Al-SBA-15(5) parent support [54].

364 The morphological characteristics of Al-SBA-15(5), NiO/Al-SBA-15(5) and
365 NiO/SBA-15 were further explored by HRTEM as shown in **Figure 6**. **Figure 6a** shows the
366 well-defined mesoporous channels of Al-SBA-15(5) are not significantly different to that of
367 SBA-15 the structure shown in **Figure 6b** owing to the ease of incorporation of Al^{3+} into the
368 mesoporous framework [28]. **Figure 6c** shows the mesopores are retained in NiO/Al-SBA-
369 15(5) upon NiO doping, with NiO particles well dispersed throughout the pore network. The
370 uniform pore size distribution of the mesoporous Al-SBA-15 support catalyst can limit the
371 agglomeration and particle growth of NiO, ensuring a good dispersion of small NiO
372 nanoparticles in the resulting NiO/Al-SBA-15(5) catalyst [24], [38]. **Figure 6b** and **c** also
373 shows NiO/Al-SBA-15(5) has a higher NiO dispersion than NiO-SBA-15, suggesting a
374 stronger interaction of NiO with Al-SBA-15(5) reduces sintering. Further analysis by
375 HRTEM-EDS chemical mapping in **Figure S5** verifies that some NiO agglomeration
376 occurred over SBA-15 supports. For NiO/Al-SBA-15 a homogenous distribution of Si, O, Al
377 and Ni is observed, further confirming the uniform dispersion of NiO and within the Al-SBA-
378 15 framework. The use of media with the appropriate water/ethanol ratio in the wet
379 impregnation method correspondingly increases the NiO dispersion, as the mixed solvent

380 increases the diffusion rate of the Ni salt precursor and the adhesion of the NiO to the
381 mesoporous structure of the catalyst support [30,57]. Finally, the EDS chemical mapping
382 analysis also supports the XRF elemental analysis, with the close nominal value of the Ni
383 content and Si/Al molar ratio employed in catalyst synthesis.

384

385 **3.2 Deoxygenation activity of PFAD**

386 The catalytic activity of NiO-SBA-15 and NiO/Al-SBA-15 catalysts with different
387 Si/Al molar ratios of 5-75 was studied in the solventless DO reaction of PFAD under a
388 nitrogen gas atmosphere. The reaction was conducted in a semi-batch reactor with 5 wt%
389 catalyst loading at 350 °C for 2 hours. A blank experiment was carried out in the absence of
390 catalyst under the same reaction conditions to determine the product distribution during the
391 thermal decomposition of PFAD. **Figure 7** reveals all NiO/Al-SBA-15 and NiO/SBA-15 are
392 active for the conversion of PFAD, producing a high yield (81-86%) of saturated and
393 unsaturated straight-chain hydrocarbons, with a selectivity towards the diesel range *n*-(C₁₁-
394 C₁₇) fraction spanning 81-91%. In the absence of catalyst thermal cracking of PFAD
395 produces only a 22% yield of hydrocarbons with a higher 56.8% selectivity towards gasoline
396 range *n*-(C₈-C₁₀) products observed.

397 An effective catalyst for DO should remove oxygen from FFA while avoiding carbon
398 loss from C-C cracking to form light straight chain hydrocarbons. The product selectivity for
399 *n*-(C₈-C₁₇) deoxygenated products are shown **Figure S6**, while **Figure 8** summarises
400 fractions groups together over the ranges C₈₋₁₀, C₁₁₋₁₄ and C₁₅₋₁₇. In the absence of catalyst the
401 majority of hydrocarbon products lie in the *n*-C₈ and *n*-C₉ fractions due to cracking being the
402 dominant process, while over NiO/Al-SBA-15 or NiO/SBA-15, *n*-C₁₅ and *n*-C₁₇ products are

403 favoured. These fractions are largely associated with the FFA composition in PFAD, which
 404 comprises ~47% of C₁₆ (palmitic acid), ~51% of C₁₈ (stearic acid, oleic acid, linoleic acid and
 405 linolenic acid) and 1-2% of FFAs with carbon numbers C₁₂ and C₁₄. DO reaction proceeds
 406 via decarboxylation (eq 1), decarbonylation (eq 2) and cracking (eq 3-4) [39], thus the desired
 407 pathway must be controlled to attain a high selectivity of the hydrocarbon product. The high
 408 selectivity towards *n*-C₁₅ and *n*-C₁₇ suggests DCX/DCN reaction pathways are favoured
 409 which reduces the carbon chain length by one unit upon removal of CO₂ or CO respectively.

410

411 *Decarboxylation (DCX) of FFA*



413

414 *Decarbonylation (DCN) of FFA*



416

417 *Cracking*



420

421 **Figure 9** shows the distribution of unsaturated and saturated *n*-C₁₅ products comprises >85%
 422 of straight-chain alkanes, suggesting DCX was the dominant reaction pathway. The high
 423 dispersion of NiO on Al-SBA-15 and SBA-15 is most likely responsible for the improved
 424 hydrocarbon yield and high diesel selectivity during DO of PFAD. Hydrocarbon cracking
 425 via C-C scission of deoxygenated *n*-C₁₅ and *n*-C₁₇ chains (eq 3) or long-chain C₁₆ and C₁₈

426 FFAs (eq 4) can produce *n*-(C₈-C₁₆) hydrocarbons, and are both favoured by high reaction
427 temperatures or the presence of strongly acidic sites. The slight increase in selectivity towards
428 the *n*-C₁₅ fraction from NiO/SBA-15 to mildly acidic NiO/Al-SBA-15(50 and 75) (**Figure**
429 **S6**) may reflect the improved NiO dispersion over these catalysts. In contrast the slight
430 decrease in selectivity towards *n*-C₁₅ and *n*-C₁₇ and increase in shorter chain *n*-C₈₋₁₀ and *n*-
431 C₁₁₋₁₄ fractions (**Figure 8**) over NiO/Al-SBA-15(25 and 5) may reflect their slightly
432 increased acidity which may increase C-C cracking [32,55]. Future work will explore the
433 kinetics of DCN, DCX and cracking of model FFA substrates to further assess the impact of
434 acidity on green-diesel product selectivity.

435

436

437 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

438 A series of templated mesoporous Al-SBA-15 supports with Si/Al molar ratios
439 spanning 5-75 were successfully synthesised by a true liquid crystal templating (TLCT)
440 method. Subsequent wet impregnation with Ni(NO₃)₂.6H₂O from an ethanolic solution was
441 used to produce NiO/Al-SBA-15 catalysts, with well-dispersed 9-10 nm NiO nanoparticle
442 sizes. Acid site loadings determined from temperature programmed reaction of propylamine
443 reveal the acid site loading increases with decreased Si:Al ratio, while ²⁷Al and ²⁹Si MAS-
444 NMR demonstrated that framework Al³⁺ was stable towards NiO functionalisation. NiO/Al-
445 SBA-15 and NiO/SBA-15 catalysts all exhibit excellent catalytic activity for PFAD
446 deoxygenation producing hydrocarbon yields of 81-86% and a selectivity to the diesel
447 fraction (C₁₁-C₁₇) of 81-91%. In the absence of catalyst, thermal cracking of PFAD is the
448 dominant process, whereas for supported NiO catalysts deoxygenation proceeds mainly via

449 DCX and DCN processes, with the DCX:DCN ratio for the main *n*-C₁₅ fraction found to
450 increase with decreased Si:Al ratio in the support. Low Si/Al molar ratios led to a slight
451 decrease in selectivity towards diesel range (C₁₁-C₂₀) hydrocarbons which may be attributed
452 to the increased acid loading favouring cracking reactions.

453

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675 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

676 **Fig 1.** a) Low-angle and b) wide-angle XRD patterns for NiO-SBA-15 and various Si/Al
677 molar ratios for the NiO/Al-SBA-15 catalyst

678

679 **Fig 2.** a) N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms and b) Pore size distribution of synthesized
680 NiO/Al-SBA-15 and NiO/SBA-15 catalysts.

681

682 **Fig 3.** Temperature-programmed desorption of reactively formed propene from propylamine
683 decomposition over NiO/Al-SBA-15 and NiO/SBA-15 catalysts.

684

685 **Fig 4.** DRIFT spectra of chemisorbed pyridine for NiO/Al-SBA-15 and NiO/SBA-15
686 catalysts.

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688 **Fig 5.** a) ²⁷Al and b) ²⁹Si NMR MAS spectra of the Al-SBA-15 and SBA-15 catalyst supports
689 and Ni/Al-SBA-15(5) catalyst

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691 **Fig 6.** HRTEM image of a) Al-SBA-15(5), b) NiO/SBA-15 and c) NiO/Al-SBA-15(5)

692

693 **Fig 7.** Hydrocarbon yield of deoxygenated liquid product with gasoline (C₈-C₁₀) and diesel
694 (C₁₁-C₁₈) distribution range using synthesized NiO/SBA-15 and NiO/Al-SBA-15 catalysts

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696 **Fig 8.** Comparison of selectivity towards C₁₅-C₁₇, C₁₁-C₁₄ and C₈-C₁₀ and fractions formed
697 during DO of PFAD.

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699 **Fig 9.** Comparison of *n*-alkane and *n*-alkene hydrocarbon yields within the *n*-C₁₅ fraction

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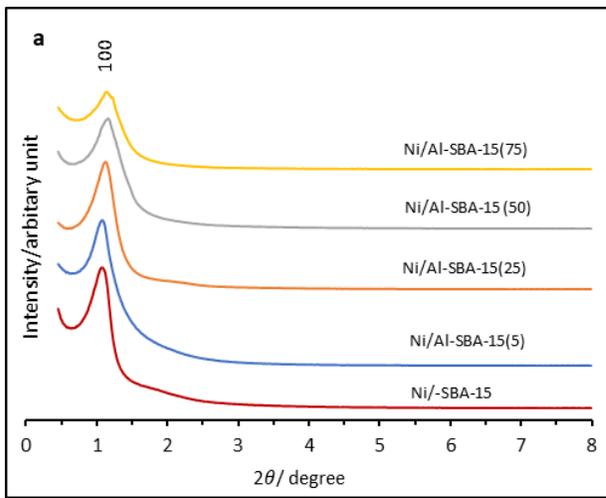
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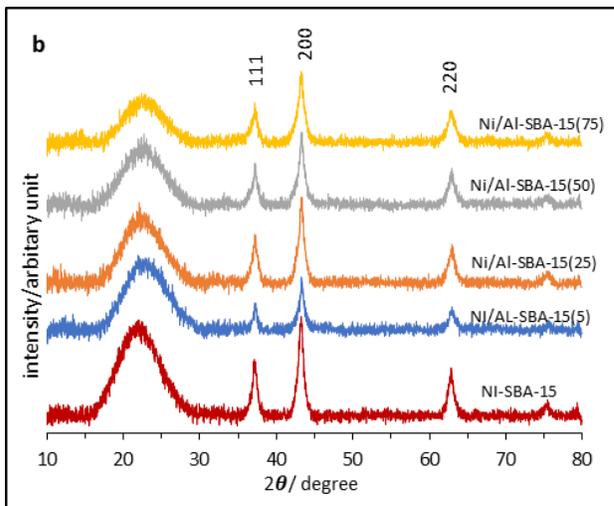
716 **FIGURES**

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718 **Fig 1.**



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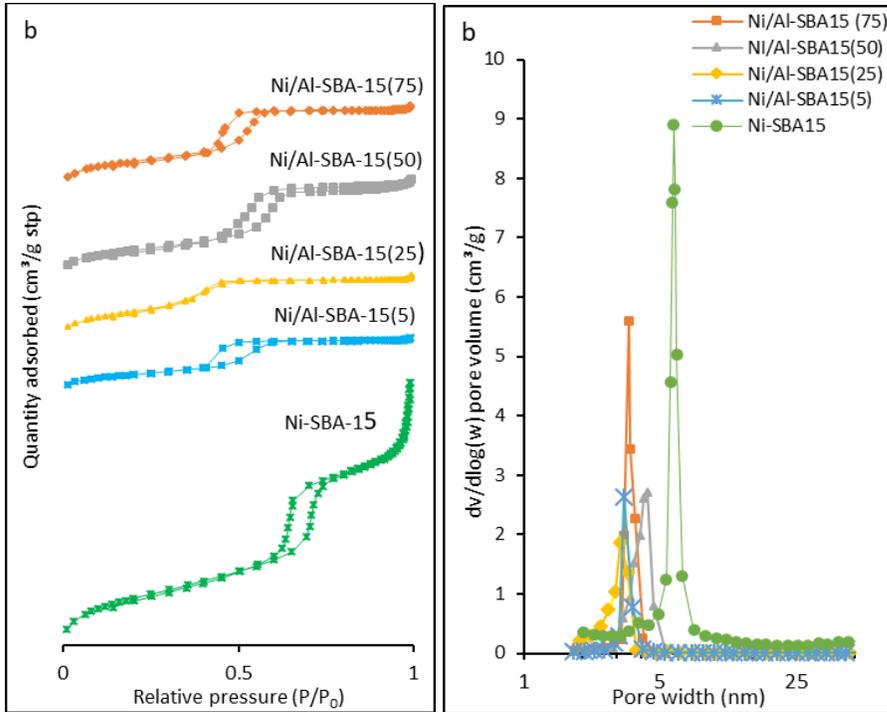
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729 **Fig 2.**

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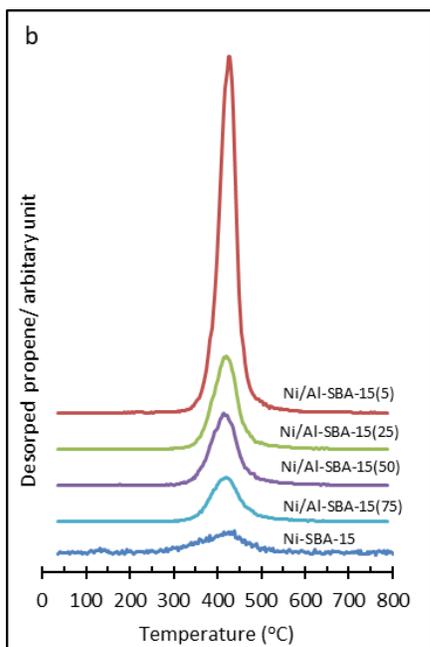
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742 **Fig 3.**



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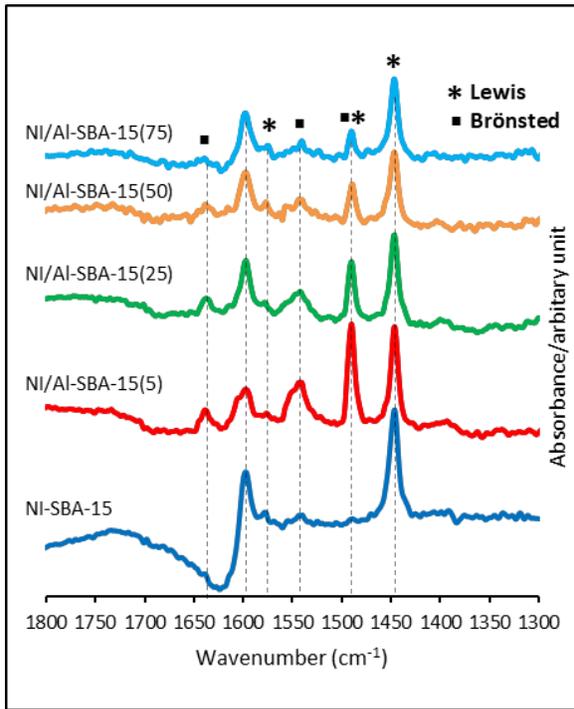
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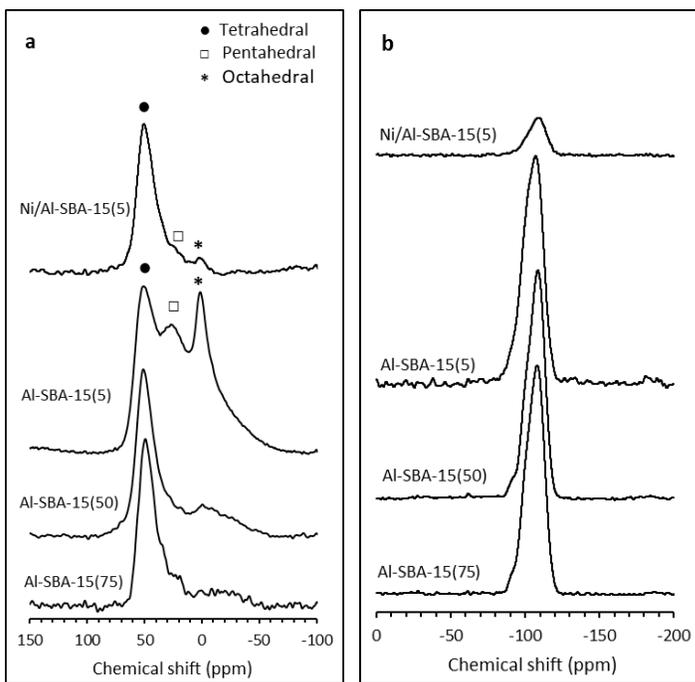
756 **Fig 4.**



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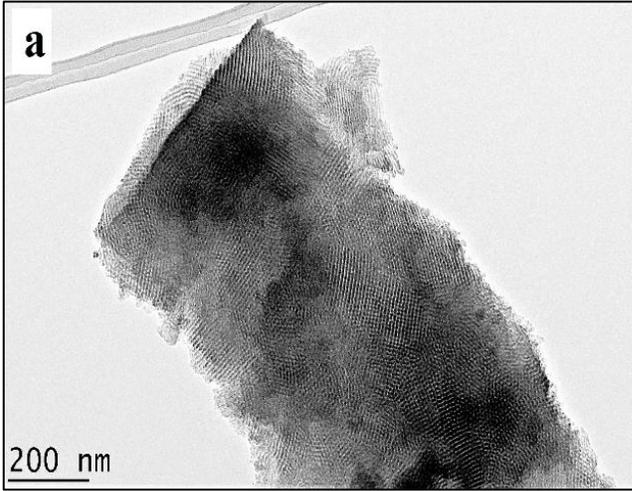
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759 **Fig 5.**

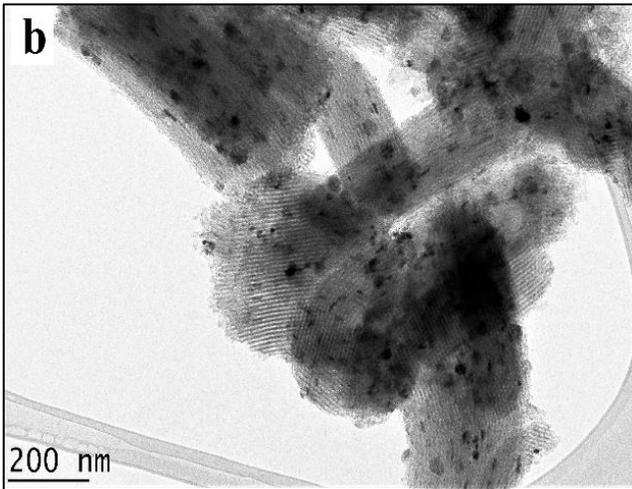


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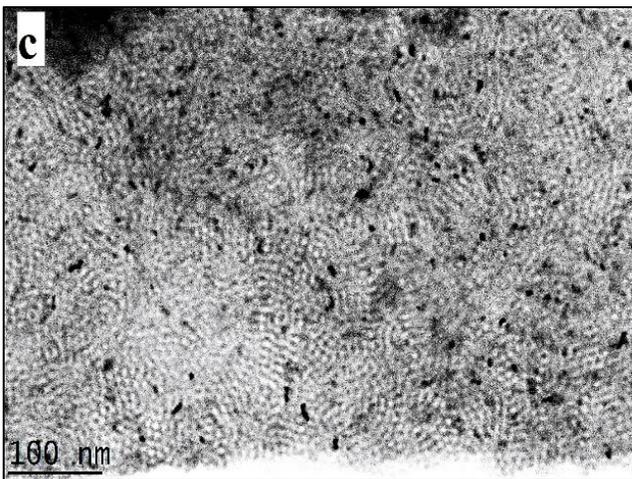
761 **Fig 6.**



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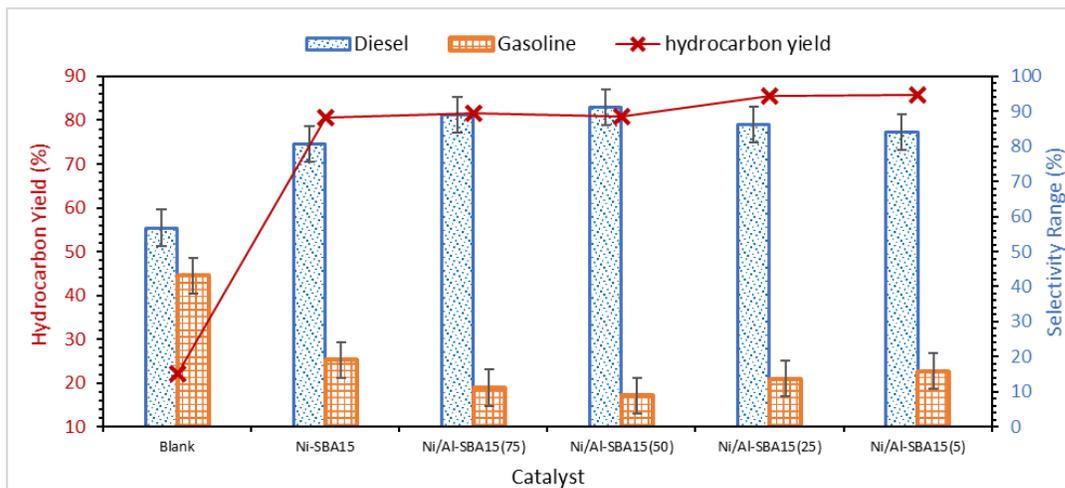


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765 **Fig 7.**



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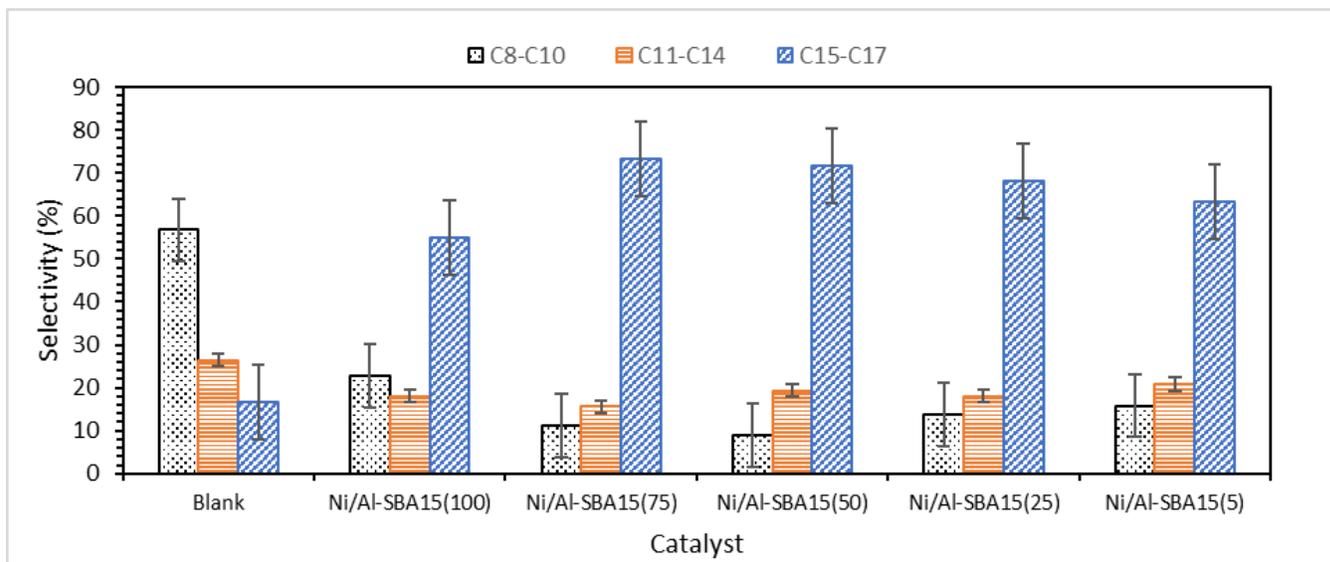
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771 **Fig 8.**



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