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Maximizing paraffin to olefin ratio employing simulated nitrogen-rich syngas via Fischer-Tropsch process over $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{SiO}_2$ catalysts

Hamid Mahmoudi^a, Hessam Jahangiri^b, Omid Doustdar^a, Nazanin Akbari^a, Joe Wood^c, Athanasios Tsolakis^a, Mirosław Lech Wyszynski^{a,*}

^a Department of Mechanical Engineering, School of Engineering, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, B15 2TT, UK;

^b School of Water, Energy and Environment, Cranfield University, Cranfield, MK43 0AL, UK;

^c School of Chemical Engineering, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, B15 2TT, UK;

*Corresponding author: Email address: m.l.wyszynski@bham.ac.uk (M.L.Wyszynski)

ABSTRACT

The optimization of cobalt oxide (Co_3O_4) loading on silica for the low-temperature Fischer-Tropsch (LTFT) synthesis process employing simulated nitrogen-rich syngas (50 vol%) to produce highly paraffinic biodiesel is studied. Four different amounts of Co_3O_4 varying from 15 to 36 wt% were loaded on silica in order to examine the catalytic performance of Co/SiO_2 catalysts. The supported catalysts were characterized by using XRF, nitrogen physisorption, XRD, TPR, DRIFT and SEM fixed with EDS analysis. The performances of the catalysts were examined in a single channel fixed bed reactor employing simulated nitrogen-rich syngas ($\text{CO}:\text{H}_2:\text{N}_2 = 17:33:50$ vol%). The reactor was operated at $P = 20$ bar, $T = 237$ °C and $\text{WHSV} = 3.0$ $\text{NI}/\text{h.g}_{\text{cat}}$. The active site concentration was maximized by (i) utilizing all the available surface area of the sphere's porous support, (ii) using ethanolic impregnation solution to hinder sintering of Co_3O_4 phases due to presence of ethoxyl groups, (iii) connecting oxide crystallites to the neighbouring pores by increasing the active metal content. As a result, the production of heavy hydrocarbons per unit of time was maximized with 36 wt% cobalt loading on silica (CO conversion and C_{5+} selectivity were 87.65 and 81.78 mol%, respectively, and also paraffin:olefin ratio was 98:2).

Keywords: Fischer-Tropsch synthesis; cobalt catalyst; silica support; biodiesel; paraffin.

Abbreviations: DRIFT, Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform; EDS, Energy-Dispersive Spectroscopy; FTS, Fischer-Tropsch Synthesis; FWHM, Full-Width Half Maximum; GC-MS, Gas Chromatogram-Mass Spectrometry; JCPDS, Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards; LTFT, Low-Temperature Fischer-Tropsch; PDF, Powder Diffraction File; PPF, Process Path Flow; SEM, Scanning Electron Microscopy; TCD, Thermal Conductivity Detector; TPR, Temperature-Programmed Reduction; WGS, Water Gas Shift; XRD, X-Ray Diffraction; XRF, X-Ray Fluorescence.

38 **1. INTRODUCTION**

39 Biomass-derived hydrocarbon fuels have received attention as alternative fuel sources
40 due to the increase in demand for fossil fuels and concerns regarding climate change [1].
41 Thermochemical conversion of biomass can be performed by combustion, pyrolysis and
42 gasification [2, 3]. Gasification is one of the commercial approaches to convert biomass
43 into syngas which contains hydrogen (H_2) and carbon monoxide (CO) [3]. In 1922 Han
44 Fischer and Franz Tropsch developed a heterogeneously catalyzed process (Fischer-
45 Tropsch synthesis (FTS)) for the transformation of syngas into different hydrocarbon
46 fractions (lower olefins, gasoline, diesel fuels). Nature of the supporting materials and
47 active metal dispersion are two significant parameters affecting catalyst activity and
48 product selectivity in the FTS process [4]. Supported catalysts are the most preferred to
49 synthesize long-chain hydrocarbons due to the high dispersion of active agents over the
50 support's surface, as well as, the higher thermo-stability degree which extends the
51 catalyst's lifetime [5]. Among certain transition metals employed for FTS catalyzing,
52 cobalt-based catalysts are the most preferred to synthesize middle-distillate
53 hydrocarbons [6]. Higher activity at low temperature (CO conversion per pass), heavy
54 hydrocarbon productivity, higher chain growth probability, higher selectivity to paraffin,
55 lower compounds oxygenating in secondary reactions, lower water gas shift (WGS)
56 reaction and a longer lifetime of cobalt compared to iron catalysts makes it more
57 appropriate to be employed to synthesize diesel fuel and wax [7]. The interaction of active
58 cobalt site with the supporting materials was the subject of various studies, due to its
59 significant catalytic properties [8, 9]. Silica high surface area, high porosity degree, as well
60 as, weaker metal support interaction compared to alumina and titania makes the silica as
61 appropriate support for FTS [10, 11]. Moreover, silica possesses high thermo-stability
62 due to its high Tamman temperature [12].

63 Cobalt ions are highly diffused into the support lattice when active metal is loaded in a
64 lower amount. The diffusion of cobalt could be obstructed by application of promoters
65 such as Re [13]. The increase in the supported active phase enhances the reducibility of
66 silica-supported Co_3O_4 catalyst [14]. The hydrothermal stability of the catalyst is
67 improved when cobalt oxide species interacted strongly to the oxygen atoms of silanol
68 groups in the silica matrix [15]. Khodakov et al. [9] concluded that the catalytic
69 performance of a narrow pore sized catalyst was better than that of a large pore size due
70 to higher dispersion of the active site over this support. Ma et al. [16] observed that the
71 decrease in the average cobalt cluster diameter by about 30% (from 38.4 nm for a catalyst
72 containing 15 wt% metal content to 27 nm for a catalyst containing 25 wt% metal
73 content) in a cobalt catalyst supported by silica, resulted in an increase in the intrinsic
74 reaction rate constant due to the rise in the density of active Co^0 on the surface site.

75 Many works of literature are studied about the effect of catalyst types, active metals and
76 supports in FTS process employing nitrogen-free syngas [1, 10, 11]. However, it was not
77 possible to identify in the literature any work which concentrated on the production of
78 highly paraffinic middle distillate fuel using a fixed bed reactor with nitrogen-rich syngas
79 at the maximized conversion rate. The nitrogen-rich syngas is more likely to be used in
80 industry and reduces the cost of biofuel production using syngas derived from air
81 gasification of biomass waste [17]. It is reported that the nitrogen gas concentration is
82 47.77 ± 1.30 vol% on a dry basis for downdraft fixed bed gasifier [18, 19]. Therefore, all
83 experiments were done using nitrogen-rich syngas (50 vol%) in this study. In order to
84 maximize the conversion of the reactants per pass, a series of four cobalt-based catalysts
85 were prepared in house by employing different concentrations of active metal (cobalt
86 loading: 15, 22, 29 and 35 wt%) over the silica support. The aim of this investigation was
87 to design, build and commission a compact biofuel generator via FTS process eventually

88 on the scale suitable for an individual farmer or small village to convert their biomass
89 (agricultural waste) into the consumable drop-in liquid fuel. Commercial-scale biofuel
90 plants raise the cost of fuel synthesizing in many aspects. Lowering the capital and
91 operating cost for a mobile biofuel generator will counteract various limitation existing
92 for platform mounted biomass to liquid (BTL) plants [20]. The International Energy
93 Agency (IEA) reported that high production costs and the need for large-scale production
94 facilities are two significant barriers in the utilization of commercial-scale second-
95 generation biodiesel (SGB) in rural areas [21]. Therefore, a miniaturized unit of biofuel
96 generator can be inexpensive and transportable and could deliver ultra-clean drop-in
97 liquid fuel for individual users or small villages. The objectives of this study were as
98 follows:

- 99 I. Engineering a heterogeneous catalytic reaction system capable of synthesizing
100 nitrogen-rich syngas in a miniaturized single fixed bed reactor in FTS process.
- 101 II. Designing active cobalt/silica catalyst to maximize the conversion rate of syngas
102 to prevent recycling of unreacted raw syngas in downstream and thus minimizing
103 the drop-in liquid production's time for individual users or farmer.
- 104 III. Optimization study to achieve high conversion in single pass operation along with
105 high selectivity to long-chain hydrocarbons with maximized paraffin to olefin
106 ratio.

107 In this research, catalysts performance were tested in a single channel fixed bed reactor
108 employing simulated nitrogen-rich syngas ($\text{CO}:\text{H}_2:\text{N}_2 = 17:33:50$ vol%).

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111 **2. EXPERIMENTAL**

112 ***2.1 Catalyst Preparation***

113 The cobalt catalysts were prepared by one step incipient wetness impregnation of silica
114 support (Fuji Silysia Chemical Ltd., grade: CARiACT Q-10) with different molar ethanolic
115 solutions of cobalt (II) nitrate hexahydrate ($\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, grade: ACS reagent, $\geq 98\%$,
116 Sigma Aldrich Co). Before the impregnation, the support was pre-treated by drying in air
117 at 200 °C for 14 h and was followed by calcination at 500 °C for 2 h in an oven [22]. These
118 actions were resulted in complete removal of the physically adsorbed multilayer of water
119 as well as maximizing the concentration of isolated single and geminal OH groups over
120 amorphous silica surface. After impregnation, the catalyst was dried in air at 200 °C for
121 14 h and then calcined at 500 °C for 4 h to generate the active site phases. The resulting
122 materials were named SUP-Q-10 (silica support) and CAT-Q-X, where X is the amount of
123 cobalt loadings.

124 ***2.2 Catalyst Characterization***

125 A wavelength-dispersive XRF (WDXRF) spectrometer (Bruker ® S8 Tiger) combined
126 with an X-ray source (end-window 4-kW Rh X-ray tube) operated at 60 kV, 50 mA (Co)
127 and 30 kV, 100 mA (Si) was employed to perform the quantitative and qualitative
128 analyzing of different elements in the samples using an optimized analyzer crystal (Co:
129 LiF 200 crystal and Si: PET crystal). All operations were performed under a helium
130 atmosphere with a flow rate of 0.7 l/min. For each experiment, a powder sample of 0.4 g
131 was weighed and poured into the sample cup covered with transparent film (Chemplex
132 ®, Mylar: 2.5 μm thin and 63.5 mm diameter). Then the sample cup was mounted in the
133 small mask (8 mm).

134 The nitrogen physisorption analyses were measured at -195.76 °C utilizing a
135 Micromeritics ® ASAP 2010 instrument. For each experiment, 1.1 g of each sample was
136 outgassed for 4 h at 90 °C. The surface area of the samples was determined by employing
137 the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method. The relative pressure was increased from
138 0.05769 to 0.9864 to form the multilayer of physically adsorbed nitrogen on the porous
139 structure. Barrett, Joyner, and Halenda (BJH) method was employed to calculate the total
140 pore volume. The relative pressure was decreased to about 0.1168 to evaporate the
141 condensed nitrogen. Kelvin equation was used to calculate the core radius [23].

142 The crystalline phases of the unreduced/calcined catalysts were studied using X-ray
143 diffraction (XRD) method (EQUINOX 3000 motorization-free diffraction system) with
144 monochromatized radiation of Cu-K α operating at room temperature. The scans (2θ)
145 ranged from 0° to 115° and the samples were analyzed in their original powder form.
146 Metal phases were assigned by comparing the obtained diffraction patterns with those in
147 the standard XRD powder diffraction File (PDF), combined with the Joint Committee on
148 Powder Diffraction Standards (JCPDS). Scherrer equation (Equation 1) was employed to
149 calculate the diameter of Co₃O₄ crystallites using (3 1 1) peaks at $2\theta = 36.65^\circ$ [24, 25].

$$150 \quad d = \frac{k \cdot \lambda}{\beta \cdot \cos \theta} \times \frac{180^\circ}{\pi} \quad (1)$$

151 Where d is the mean crystallite diameter (nm), λ the X-ray wavelength (1.54056 Å), and
152 β is the full-width half-maximum (FWHM) of the Co₃O₄ diffraction peak. A k factor of 0.89
153 was used in the Scherrer equation. The average Co₃O₄ crystallite size ($d(\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4)$) was
154 converted to the corresponding mean cobalt metal diameter by considering relative
155 molar volumes of cobalt crystallites (Equation 2). Then in Equation 3, the related cobalt

156 metal dispersion ($D(\text{Co}^0)$) was calculated according to the average Co^0 crystallite size
157 ($d(\text{Co}^0)$) [24, 25].

$$158 \quad d(\text{Co}^0) = 0.75 \cdot d(\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4) \quad (2)$$

$$159 \quad D(\text{Co}^0) = \frac{96}{d_{\text{Co}^0}} \quad (3)$$

160 The reduction behaviour of the catalysts was investigated by employing hydrogen
161 temperature-programmed reduction (TPR) using Micromeritics. For each experiment,
162 0.1 g of calcined sample was loaded in quartz U-shape tube reactor. The sample was
163 purged by flushing nitrogen for 60 minutes, heated from ambient temperature to 150 °C
164 and then cooled to 50 °C. Afterwards, pure hydrogen was introduced to the sample with
165 a total flow rate of 500 cm³/min. While hydrogen was flowing, the sample's temperature
166 was raised from 50 °C to 900 °C with a ramping rate of 4 °C /min. An on-line thermal
167 conductivity detector (TCD) was utilized to measure the amount of hydrogen gas before
168 and after passing through the sample.

169 The nature of the acid sites of the catalyst samples was distinguished by employing
170 diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) of chemisorbed
171 pyridine using Nicolet Avatar 370 MCT. The spectra of the samples were obtained in the
172 wavenumber ranging between 650 – 4000 cm⁻¹. For each experiment, 50 mg of powder
173 samples were diluted with 450 mg of KBr powder (potassium bromide). After that, the
174 samples were loaded into the environmental cell and dried at 50 °C under vacuum
175 conditions. The pyridine was exposed to the samples Ex-situ using a desiccator. Before
176 sample loading in the environmental cell, they were subjected to a vacuum oven to
177 remove the excess physisorbed pyridine.

178

179 The scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (Jeol ® JSM 6060)-energy dispersive
180 spectroscopy (EDS) (Oxford instrument Inca 300) surface analysis was performed to
181 evaluate the heterogeneity of the particle size as well as metal repartition over the surface
182 of various catalysts (working distance: 10 mm, signal: SED). The structure of the cobalt
183 catalysts was considered at nano-scale by using FEI strata ® XP 235 dual-beam SEM. The
184 surface mapping on the user defined area was obtained for all of the samples
185 (accelerating voltage 20 kV, live time 140 to 150 seconds, working distance 10 mm and
186 spot size 71).

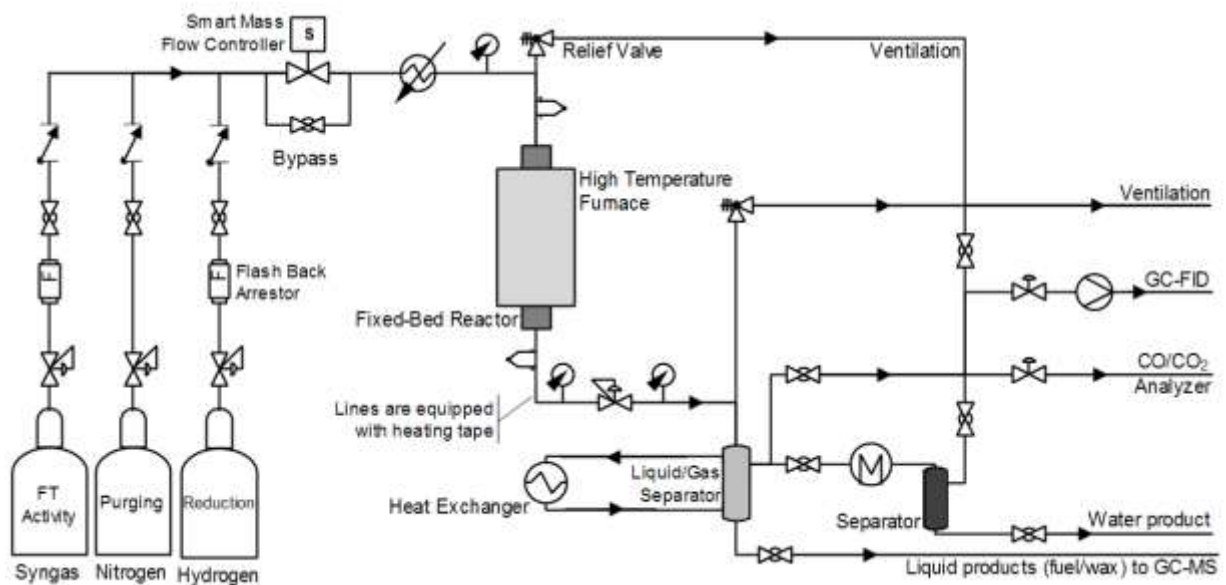
187 ***2.3 FTS Experiment***

188 **Figure 1** indicates the schematic diagram of the mini scale biofuel generator along with
189 the Process Path Flow (PPF), designed and developed to convert simulated synthesis gas
190 into long-chain hydrocarbons. The FT hydrogenation reaction was carried out in a
191 tubular mini-structured downdraft fixed bed reactor (seamless stainless steel, 19 mm
192 inner diameter, 1.65 mm wall thickness, and 530 mm length). The reactor was mounted
193 in a tube furnace with the temperature ranging from 40 to 1100 °C to provide the heat
194 zone. To achieve a uniform wall temperature, a metal jacket inside the furnace tube
195 surrounded the reactor. For each experiment, 2 g of the catalyst was diluted with silicon
196 carbide (mesh particle size 200-450, Sigma Aldrich Co.) with a mass ratio of 1:12 and then
197 were loaded into the reactor [26]. The diluted catalyst was packed with glass beads (3
198 mm diameter) and glass wool (Sigma Aldrich Co.). A thermocouple was positioned along
199 the centreline of the reactor to monitor the bed temperature during the reaction. A
200 simulated nitrogen-rich syngas bottle was used to provide feedstock for the FT activity
201 (CO:H₂:N₂ = 17:33:50 vol%). A calibrated smart mass flow controller was employed to
202 regulate the volumetric flow rate of the syngas (Bronkhorst Ltd).

203 Before the FT reaction, the catalytic bed was purged using nitrogen gas for 120 minutes
204 at 140 °C. The reduction process started with flowing hydrogen gas (pure hydrogen, zero
205 grade, BOC Co.) over the catalyst starting at 60 °C. While the hydrogen gas was flowing,
206 the bed temperature was increased linearly with time to 200 °C and held at this step for
207 60 minutes. Then the temperature was ramped up to 340 °C and held for 60 minutes. The
208 final temperature ramping was targeted to 450 °C, and the cobalt catalyst was left at this
209 temperature for 14 h with a volumetric hydrogen flow rate of 3.0 NI/h. The gas velocity
210 was kept high to prevent the cobalt catalyst sintering by removing the produced water
211 from the reduction reaction. After finishing the reduction step, the reactor temperature
212 was lowered to 170 °C, and the syngas was introduced to the catalyst. Subsequently, the
213 pressure was increased to the desired pressure, and the bed temperature was increased
214 to the required reaction temperature. The catalyst was put on stream for 12 h to
215 determine CO conversion, methane (CH₄) and carbon dioxide (CO₂) selectivity, and
216 products' selectivity over this period of reaction time.

217 Two liquid/gas separators were used to separate the liquid products from the gaseous
218 stream. Liquid hydrocarbon products were collected in a cold trap, cooled externally at
219 10 °C using a counter-current heat exchanger. Changes in the concentration of carbon
220 monoxide and produced carbon dioxide were monitored on-line by using a modified AVL
221 Digas™ 440 every 30 to 90 minutes. A flame-ionized detector was used on-line to analyze
222 the hydrocarbons from C₁ to C₈ using pora plot Q column to separate the products
223 combined with a gas chromatogram (GC). 250 µL of the sample injected into the GC using
224 helium as the carrier gas. The initial oven temperature was adjusted at 5 °C, while the
225 temperature was ramped up at 7.5 °C/min to reach 225 °C and then held for 8 minutes.
226 The detector temperature was set at 320 °C. Quantitative analysis was carried out to
227 measure the concentration of different compounds in a sample of the gas. In regards to

228 heavy hydrocarbons, the product distribution was analyzed offline employing a DB1
 229 column combined with gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS).
 230 As several simultaneous chemical reactions take place in the FT regime, producing both
 231 desired and undesired products, Equations 4 to 7 were employed to analyze the gaseous
 232 products. Equation 4 was defined to demonstrate the fraction of reactant that has been
 233 consumed and Equations 5 to 7 were employed to show the portion of reactants that have
 234 been converted to valuable and valueless products.



235
 236 **Figure 1.** Schematic diagram of small scale biodiesel generator via Fischer-Tropsch
 237 Synthesis (FTS) process and utilized equipment along with Process Path Flow (PPF).
 238

239
$$X_{CO} \text{ (CO Conversion \%)} = \frac{\text{moles of inlet CO} - \text{moles of outlet CO}}{\text{moles of inlet CO}} \times 100 \quad (4)$$

240
$$S_{CO_2} \text{ (CO}_2 \text{ selectivity \%)} = \frac{\text{moles of CO}_2 \text{ produced}}{\text{moles of inlet CO} - \text{moles of outlet CO}} \times 100 \quad (5)$$

241 C_x selectivity % ($x = 1 - 4$)

$$242 \quad = \frac{\text{moles of } C_x \text{ produced}}{(\text{moles of } CO_{in} - \text{moles of } CO_{out}) - \text{moles of } CO_{2\text{produced}}} \times 100(6)$$

$$243 \quad S_{5+} = 100 - S_{C_1} - S_{C_2} - S_{C_3} - S_{C_4} \quad (7)$$

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262 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

263 ***3.1 X-Ray Fluorescence (XRF) Elemental Analysis***

264 The quantitative elemental analyses of the prepared catalysts were carried out by using
265 a wavelength dispersive XRF spectrometer. **Table 1** shows cobalt content on silica. The
266 metal concentrations over the support's surface were controlled by changing the molarity
267 of the cobalt impregnation solutions. The XRF analysis confirms that increasing the
268 molarity of impregnation solutions leads to higher loading of cobalt over the silica
269 support.

270 ***3.2 Nitrogen Adsorption/Desorption Analysis***

271 The N₂ adsorption isotherms are displayed in **Figure 2**. All isotherms showed exhibit
272 hysteresis and belonged to type IV isotherms [27]. The results of the surface area
273 measurements, as well as the pore volume and pore diameter, are represented in **Table**
274 **1**. The results show that the BET surface area of the silica support (SUP-Q-10) was
275 decreased after the impregnation of the cobalt catalyst. The loading of the active metal
276 over the porous support resulted in the blockage of some pores and subsequently, a
277 reduction in specific surface areas [28]. Hereafter, the surface areas of CAT-Q-15, CAT-Q-
278 22 and CAT-Q-29 did not change significantly. However, there is a drop in the surface area
279 for the highest Co loading (CAT-Q-36) which might be attributed to more plugging of the
280 pores of support by the active metal species, which led to inaccessible pores during the
281 nitrogen adsorption [29]. The increase of Co species did not change the average pore
282 diameter, while BJH analysis of the isotherms revealed that the pore volumes
283 continuously decreased as the Co loading was increased. These results suggest the silica
284 surface is near to saturation at 15 wt% and that as the Co loading is increased crystallite
285 growth continues unabated in the porous structure. It is reported that the pore volume

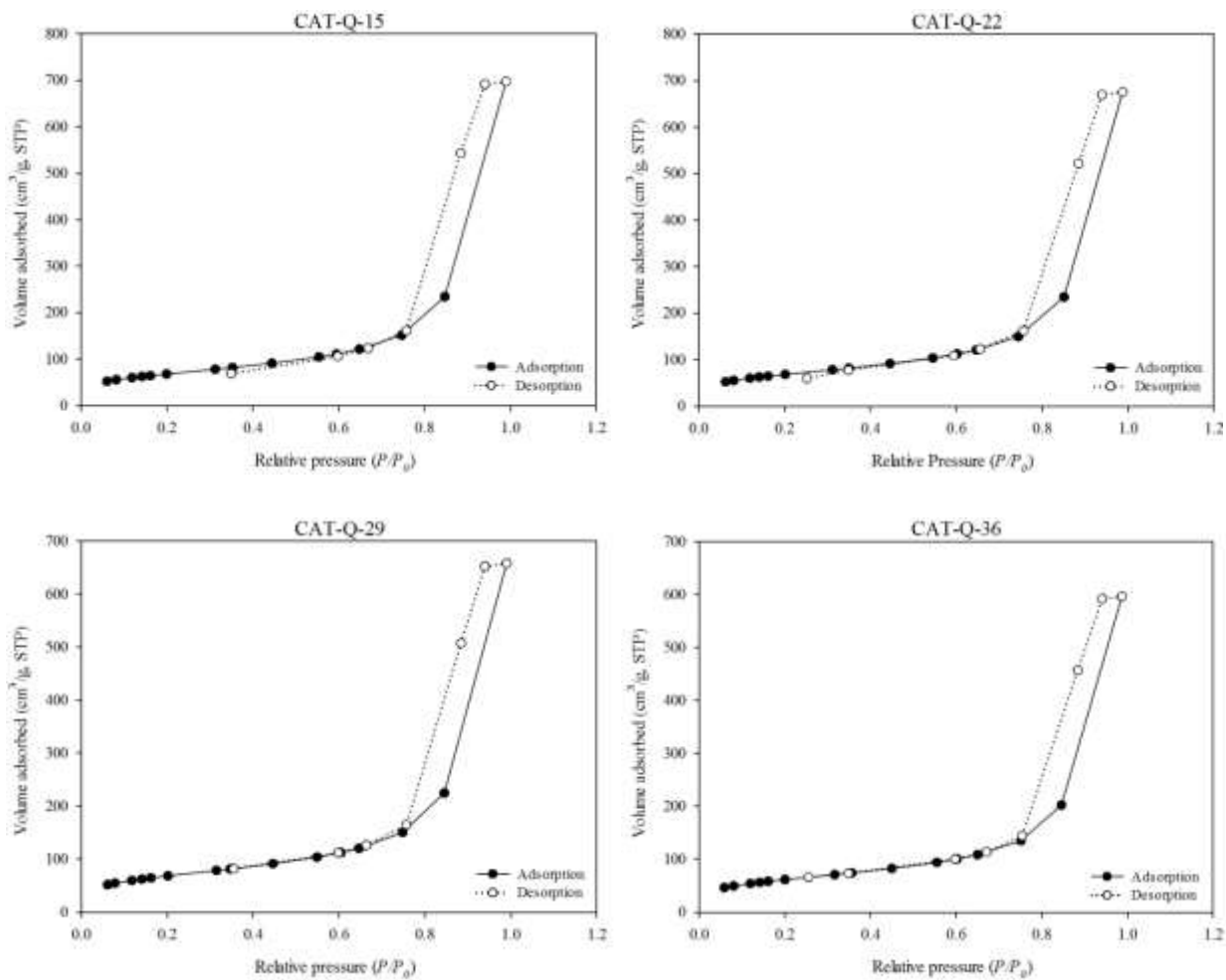
286 and diameter of Co/silica remained unchanged with increasing the cobalt loading and
287 this can be attributed to the impact of aqueous impregnation on mesoporous structures
288 or additional heat treatments during the preparation process [30, 31].

289

290 **Table 1.** XRF elemental analysis and textural characteristics of porous silica support
291 and different supported cobalt catalysts measured by nitrogen physisorption technique.

Sample	Co (%)	BET surface area (m ² /g)	Average pore diameter (nm)	Pore volume (cm ³ /g)
SUP-Q-10	0	277.4	17.2	1.20
CAT-Q-15	15.4	247.9	17.4	1.08
CAT-Q-22	22.0	249.7	16.7	1.04
CAT-Q-29	29.3	250.8	16.2	1.01
CAT-Q-36	35.7	225.9	16.4	0.92

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293

294 **Figure 2.** Nitrogen adsorption (filled circle) and desorption (empty circle) for different
 295 supported cobalt catalysts.

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306 **3.3 X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) Analysis**

307 The crystalline structure of the cobalt supported samples was analyzed by XRD analysis
308 **(Figure 3)**. The presence of Co_3O_4 spinal phases with 2θ values of 36.65° , 38.21° , 44.74°
309 and 65.13° were observed in all of the diffractograms [32]. The intensity of our results is
310 different from some literature [24, 30]. However, some other studies reported that the
311 intensity of cobalt/silica catalysts could change which is associated with catalysts
312 preparation methods and calcination temperature [33, 34]. The Co_3O_4 is the most
313 dominant phase when the cobalt nitrate is decomposed under air [34]. The wide
314 diffraction peaks are illustrated that the signal at 36.65° are changing with increasing the
315 cobalt loading, due to the presence of a small Co_3O_4 crystalline phase formed over porous
316 silica support. It is reported that the metallic cobalt crystallite size is proportional to the
317 size of the Co_3O_4 crystalline phase [24]. In addition to the cobalt cluster size, the average
318 size of supported Co_3O_4 crystallites is greatly influenced by the porous silica support's
319 structure [9, 35]. **Table 2** listed the average crystallite size of Co_3O_4 (according to the
320 Scherrer equation based on the characteristic diffraction peak at $2\theta = 36.65^\circ$), the cobalt
321 metal particle diameter (Equation 2) as well as the metal dispersion (Equation 3). It is
322 observed that Co_3O_4 crystallite size of CAT-Q-15 decreased with further cobalt loading
323 (up to 29 wt%). However, the average crystallite size of the Co_3O_4 phase was increased
324 by 19% from 12.98 nm (CAT-Q-29) to 16.04 nm (CAT-Q-36), containing the highest cobalt
325 concentration. CAT-Q-29 sample assigns the highest estimated cobalt dispersion among
326 the others. In some cases (CAT-Q-15 and CAT-Q-22), the crystallite sizes calculated from
327 the XRD measurements are larger than the pore diameter of the catalysts. This could be
328 suggested by the highly branched structure of the silica supports, which able the cobalt

329 metals to be formed and interconnected to other neighbouring pores and to be placed on
330 the exterior surface of the supports [30, 36].

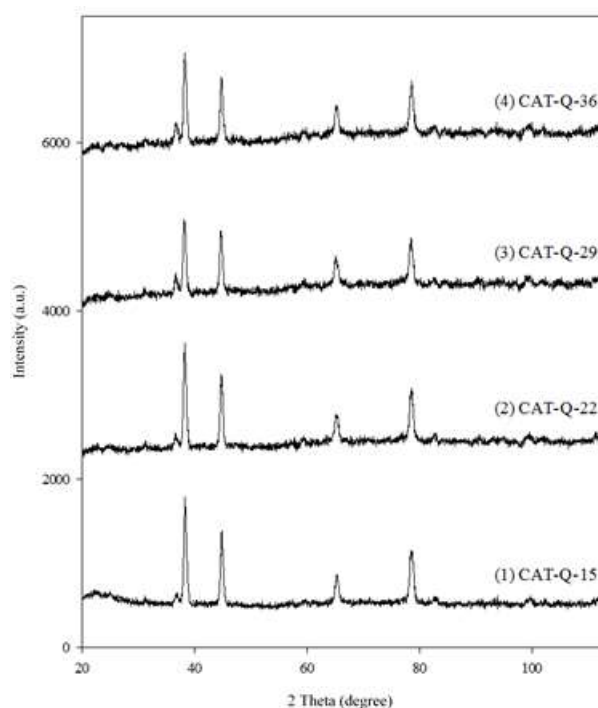
331

332 **Table 2.** Average Co_3O_4 crystallite size estimated Co^0 particle diameter and estimated
333 cobalt dispersion for different supported cobalt catalysts.

Sample	Co_3O_4 crystallite diameter (nm)	Estimated Co^0 particle diameter (nm)	Estimated cobalt dispersion (%)
CAT-Q-15	24.79	18.59	3.87
CAT-Q-22	19.47	14.60	4.93
CAT-Q-29	12.98	9.73	7.39
CAT-Q-36	16.04	12.03	5.98

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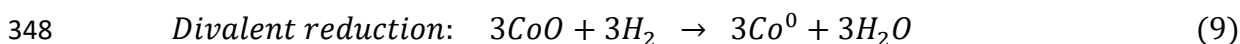
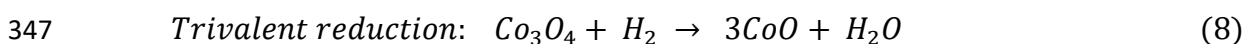


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337 **Figure 3.** XRD diffraction spectrogram of different calcined and unreduced catalysts.

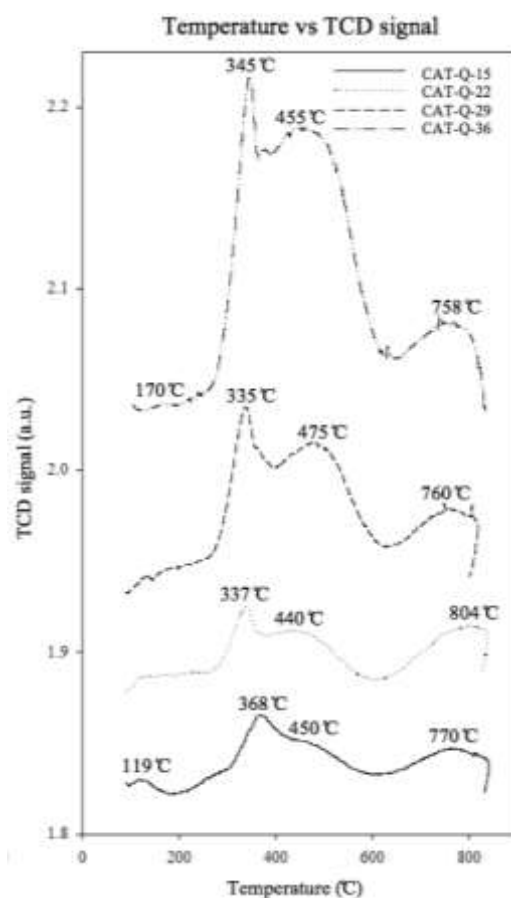
338 **3.4 Temperature-Programmed Reduction (TPR) Analysis**

339 TPR has been conducted to determine the temperature at which Co_3O_4 is reduced to
340 elemental cobalt, thereby identifying the interaction species and operating temperature
341 of the Fisher-Tropsch reactor. **Figure 4** shows the TPR profiles of all catalysts, when
342 reduced under H_2 , as a function of temperature. The TPR experiments show there are
343 several reduction events occurring. The two TPR peaks occur between 250 °C and 640
344 °C, and the final reduction event happens above 750 °C. The first two events are ascribed
345 to the sequential reduction of Co_3O_4 to CoO and finally to elemental Co (Equations 8 and
346 9 respectively) [37-40].



349 Co_3O_4 reduction to the CoO is ascribed to the low-temperature reduction peaks (CAT-Q-
350 15: 368 °C, CAT-Q-22: 337 °C, CAT-Q-29: 335 °C, CAT-Q-36: 345 °C) for the four
351 differently loaded cobalt catalysts. On the other hand, the reductions which occurred at
352 450, 440, 475 and 455 °C are ascribed to the reduction of CoO to the free metallic Co^0 in
353 CAT-Q-15, CAT-Q-22, CAT-Q-29 and CAT-Q-36 respectively [37-40]. The reductions of all
354 of the catalysts were completed below 480 °C. As shown in the figure, all of the catalysts
355 display a broad peak at temperatures higher than 750 °C (CAT-Q-15: 770 °C, CAT-Q-22:
356 804 °C, CAT-Q-29: 760 °C, CAT-Q-36: 758 °C), which could be attributed to the reduction
357 of surface cobalt interacting with surface silicates [41, 42] or alternatively to the cobalt
358 fraction contained in the inner cavities of the silica support [43]. The low-temperature
359 peak observed in some TPR spectra is attributed to the reduction of residual cobalt
360 nitrate [33]. Overall, a slight temperature shift in the TPR profiles to the low temperature

361 is observed from 15 wt% to 29 wt % cobalt loading, and the acid strength decreased.
362 Therefore, CAT-Q-29 appeared to be more easily reduced in comparison with CAT-Q-15
363 and CAT-Q-22. This trend in the reduction profile of the catalysts is in agreement with the
364 literature [10, 44]. However, the bulk reduction of cobalt oxide is slightly shifted to a
365 higher temperature in the CAT-Q-36. This might be attributed to either the exact nature
366 of the cobalt or the formation of cobalt silicate compounds [10]. Furthermore, increasing
367 the cobalt loading on silica increased the H₂ consumption area and thus could show a
368 higher reduction degree of Co₃O₄ to metallic Co [25, 44]. Qualitatively, it is evident that
369 CAT-Q-22 is reduced at the lowest temperature of 440 °C and CAT-Q-29 at the highest
370 temperature of 475 °C. Therefore, the reactor must be brought to at least 475 °C in order
371 to reduce the catalyst to the active Co/SiO₂ form.



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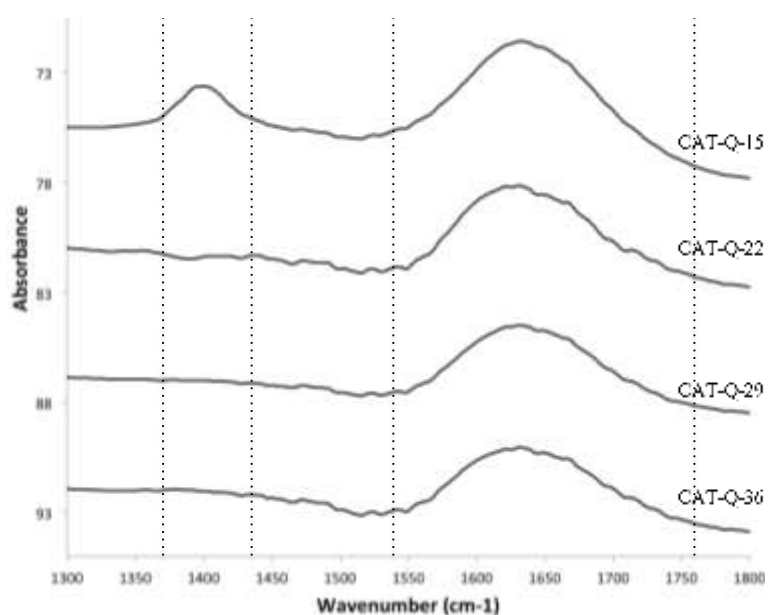
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Figure 4. TPR profiles for different supported cobalt catalysts.

374 **3.5 Pyridine Adsorption/DRIFTS**

375 Pyridine adsorption, followed by DRIFTS explored the nature of acid sites. Application of
376 pyridine that interacts with the sites varying in acidity enables determination of Lewis
377 and Brønsted acid sites in the samples [45]. Spectra of probe molecule interacting with
378 pre-calcined oxide catalysts are shown in **Figure 5**. Lewis acid sites are indicated through
379 the adsorption mode at 1440 and 1620 cm^{-1} , whereas Brønsted acid sites showed
380 adsorption modes at 1550 cm^{-1} [45]. The results indicated that different cobalt loadings
381 on silica have mainly Lewis acid species and a small amount of Brønsted acid species [46].

382



383

384 **Figure 5.** DRIFT spectra of pyridine adsorbed on different supported cobalt
385 catalysts.

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389 **3.6 Microstructural and Morphological Structure**

390 Heterogeneity of particle size, as well as repartition of active sites over the surface of
391 different catalysts, were considered by employing the SEM instrument (**Figure 6-9**). In
392 addition to the morphology of the catalysts, typical microanalysis of the surface was
393 investigated by EDS. The concentration of cobalt particles is demonstrated in the white
394 colour, while the dark colour illustrates the silica support surface. Composition maps of
395 CAT-Q-15 and CAT-Q-22 obtained from SEM-EDS analysis illustrated the homogeneous
396 dispersion of cobalt over the entire analyzed spot area. CAT Q-15 showed less dense and better
397 homogeneous morphology than CAT-Q-22. It could be noticed that better active site distributions
398 were achieved in these two catalysts compared to those of high cobalt content samples (CAT-Q-
399 29 and CAT-Q-36). The cobalt particles over the surface of CAT-Q-29 and CAT-Q-36 catalysts
400 might be agglomerated and exhibited non-uniform distribution due to thermal gradient. As a
401 result of the thermal gradient, an outward flow from inside to the outside of the pores of support
402 occurred, and subsequently, the metal oxides were concentrated on the support surface,
403 particularly when the metal content was increased, which leads to more accumulation of metal
404 oxide and inhomogeneous formation of lumps [47]. The typical SEM imagining of the samples
405 along with EDS mapping illustrates that the cobalt particles are distributed on the external
406 surface of the support granule in powder catalysts [48]. The poly-dispersed spherical metal
407 particles were observed for all catalysts [49].

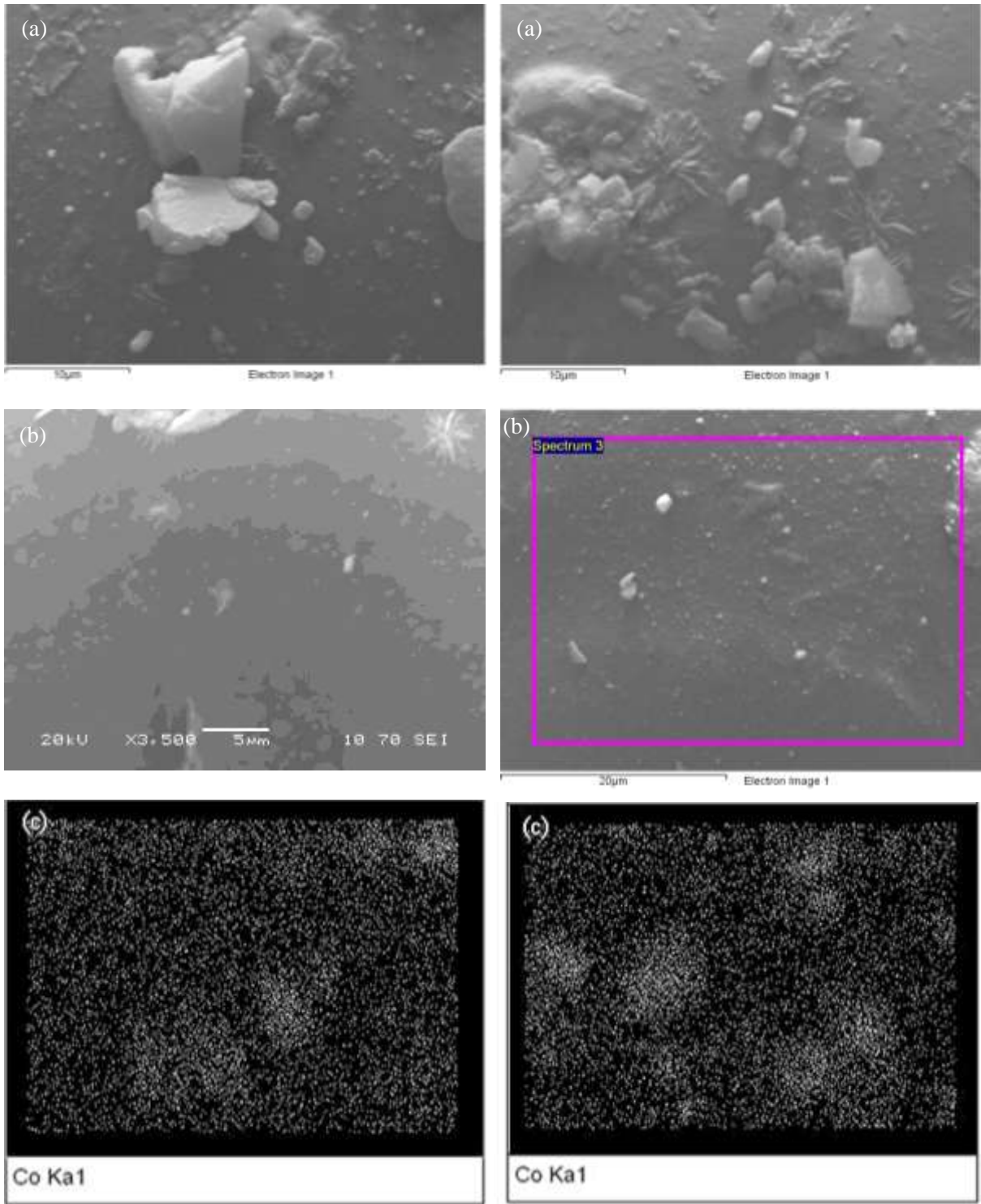
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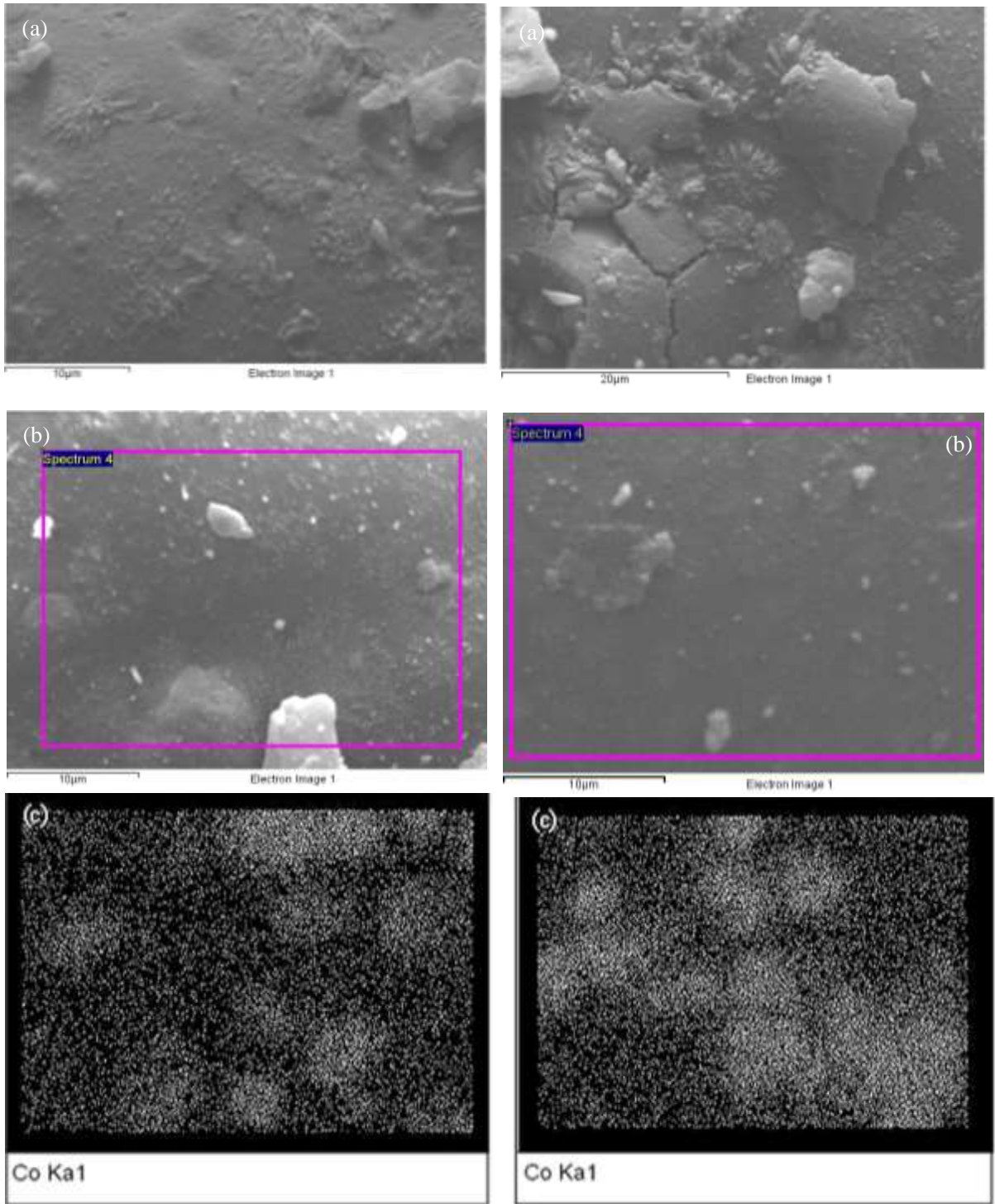
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Figure 6. SEM micrographs (Figures 6.a and 6.b) and EDX micro-analysis (Figure 6.c) of sample CAT-Q-15.

Figure 7. SEM micrographs (Figures 7.a and 7.b) and EDX micro-analysis (Figure 7.c) of sample CAT-Q-22.



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Figure 8. SEM micrographs (Figures 8.a and 8.b) and EDX micro-analysis (Figure 8.c) of sample CAT-Q-29.

Figure 9. SEM micrographs (Figures 9.a and 9.b) and EDX micro-analysis (Figure 9.c) of sample CAT-Q-36.

422 ***3.7 Catalyst Activity and Selectivity in the FTS Process***

423 The FT performances of the different catalysts were considered at 237 °C, 20 bar and 3.0
424 $\text{Nl/h.g}_{\text{cat}}$ WHSV. The hydrogenation activities of all catalysts were examined in the same
425 reactor set-up and reaction conditions, as well as the gaseous environment, to ensure the
426 comparison was correctly made. The catalyst activities in terms of CO conversion as well
427 as hydrocarbon/by-product selectivity were reported for 12 h in **Table 3**. As the cobalt
428 content increased from 15 to 36 wt%, the hydrogenation activity of the catalyst in terms
429 of carbon monoxide conversion was increased by 68.4% (from 27.67 to 87.65 mol%). The
430 results are in good agreement with those reported by Sun et al. [50].

431 The increase in CO conversion is associated with the higher active sites of cobalt species
432 in CAT-Q-36. The increase in the concentration of active metal sites resulted in a highly
433 active supported cobalt catalyst due to higher reducibility. It is reported that FTS activity
434 correlated with higher Co_3O_4 reduction [25, 44]. In the TPR profile (Figure 4), much
435 higher H_2 consumption could be illustrated the observed larger area for the Co_3O_4
436 reduction on the sample CAT-Q-36 and could demonstrate the highest reducibility.
437 Furthermore, the Co_3O_4 reduction area decreased with reducing the cobalt loading and
438 thus could decline the catalyst reducibility [25, 44].

439 The activity of the cobalt catalyst is proportional to the concentration of accessible
440 surface metallic cobalt (Co^0). The high hydrogenation activity of CAT-Q-36 compared to
441 low cobalt content catalysts confirms that the cobalt particles have not been aggregated
442 due to the increase in cobalt loading. However, Medina et al. [51] observed that CO
443 conversion decreased with the increasing of the metal content above 20 wt%.

444 The product distributions of the catalysts were affected mainly by the amount of metal
445 loading. All of the catalysts showed relatively high selectivity in methane formation. The

446 increases in the concentration of active sites resulted in a decrease in the production of
447 methane. The maximum CH₄ selectivity was reported for the CAT-Q-15 ($S_{CH_4} = 41.85$
448 mol%), and the minimum selectivity of methane was for CAT-Q-36 ($S_{CH_4} = 13.44$ mol%).
449 It is generally assumed that methane hydrocarbon is favoured when CO and
450 intermediates are weakly adsorbed by active sites [34]. In contrast to the methane
451 formation, water gas shift (WGS) reaction showed a different trend. CAT-Q-15 showed
452 the lowest carbon dioxide production, whereas an increase in the metal content increased
453 the CO₂ selectivity.

454 CAT-Q-36 revealed the highest selectivity in C₅₊ hydrocarbon ($S_{C_{5+}} = 81.78$ mol%)
455 compared to the others, while CAT-Q-15 was allocated the lowest selectivity in heavy
456 hydrocarbons production ($S_{C_{5+}} = 38.82$ mol%). It is reported that the Lewis acid sites of
457 Co-based catalysts in FTS improved the CO adsorption and dissociation and thus
458 increasing C₅₊ selectivity [52, 53]. We also observed that Lewis acid sites are identified
459 as the active species (Figure 5), and thus they were responsible for the C₅₊ hydrocarbons
460 production in FTS process.

461 It is also reported that small cobalt crystallites formed long-chain hydrocarbons [51]. The
462 presence of strained siloxane bridges over dehydroxylated silica surface, which react
463 with ethanol, increase the density of ethoxyl groups (Si – O – C₂H₅). The ethoxyl groups
464 interfere with the sintering of Co₃O₄ during the endothermic decomposition of cobalt
465 nitrate. These phenomena result in the synthesis of active cobalt-based catalyst, uniform
466 repartition of active phase as well as the formation of smaller cobalt crystallite size over
467 support surface [54].

468 This investigation confirms that the conversion per pass of reactants could be maximized
469 by increasing the concentration of the active sites over the support surface without any

470 dramatic reduction in the accessibility of the Co⁰ particles. Furthermore, the pore
 471 blockage of the silica support was almost absent. This investigation was successful in
 472 increasing the selectivity to diesel fraction in liquid products with maximized
 473 paraffin:olefin ratio (98:2) using fixed-bed reactor technology. However, future catalysts
 474 selectivity tests at the same activity as well as maximizing paraffin to olefin ratio for low
 475 cobalt loading are required to be studied.

476 **Table 3.** Catalytic performances of the different supported cobalt catalysts in FTS (CO
 477 conversion (X_{CO}), products selectivity (S_{CO_2} , S_{CH_4} , $S_{C_2-C_4}$, S_{C_5+}) and reaction conditions:
 478 237 °C, 20 bar and 3.0 NI/h.g_{cat} WHSV).

Catalyst	X_{CO} (mol%)	The selectivity of gas-phase products (mol%)					
		S_{CO_2}	S_{CH_4}	S_{C_2}	S_{C_3}	S_{C_4}	S_{C_5+}
CAT-Q-15	27.67	1.96	41.85	4.07	8.10	7.16	38.82
CAT-Q-22	44.95	2.09	28.00	2.68	5.19	4.53	59.60
CAT-Q-29	61.74	2.88	24.09	0.21	0.39	0.36	74.95
CAT-Q-36	87.65	5.32	13.44	1.10	1.90	1.78	81.78

Experimental data for CAT-Q-36 at the optimum condition: liquid phase mass fraction (W_i), a liquid produced known as LP (ml) and distribution of paraffin and olefin hydrocarbons within diesel fraction ($C_{12} - C_{22}$).				
	$C_7 - C_{11}$ (wi)	$C_{12} - C_{22}$ (wi)	C_{23+} (wi)	LP (ml)
CAT-Q-36	14.91	81.70	3.39	4.45

	N-paraffin	Iso-paraffin	Total paraffin	Total olefin	Alcohol
	%	%	%	%	%
CAT-Q-36	58.95	39.16	98.11	1.10	0.79

479

480

481 **3.8 Maximizing Normal Paraffin/Olefin Ratio in FT Synthesis**

482 Paraffin are the most preferred hydrocarbons in the FT synthesis as they are stable
483 compounds due to the absence of the pi bond in their carbon skeleton and are generally
484 unreactive. The produced alkanes from FTS process are mainly straight-chained
485 hydrocarbons. However, the olefins outputs are mostly tertiary [55].

486 In order to maximize the normal paraffin (N-paraffin), the CAT-Q-36 was selected due to
487 the highest CO conversion (**Table 3**). The product distribution, which is collected at
488 optimum reaction conditions for CAT-Q-36, is shown in **Table 4**. The maximum CO
489 conversion (98.22 mol%) and N-paraffin production (78.32 mol%) were achieved at 245
490 °C, 25 bar and 3.0 NI/h.g_{cat} WHSV. When the conversion increased at the optimum
491 reaction condition, the N-paraffin to olefin ratio increased, which is attributed to the
492 secondary reactions (α -olefin readsorption) and changes in termination mechanism [43].

493 The paraffins are produced through three major routes in FT synthesis. These three
494 routes are termination by hydrogenation of alkyl groups, secondary hydrogenation of α -
495 olefin and readsorption with chain initiation followed by hydrogenation termination [56,
496 57]. The present investigation increased the termination degree in FT reaction as well as
497 the degree of the secondary reaction, and it could be associated with the partial water
498 pressure for cobalt/silica catalyst [33, 43]. Lowering the partial water pressure in the
499 reaction regime increased the degree of secondary hydrogenations of α -olefin.
500 Controlling the partial water pressure provided more available primary olefins for re-
501 insertion and chain-growth through secondary reaction [43].

502 **Table 4.** The fraction of N-paraffin and olefin hydrocarbons in optimized condition for
503 CAT-Q-36 catalyst (reaction conditions: 245 °C, 25 bar and 3.0 NI/h.g_{cat} WHSV).

Conversion (CO)	98.22 mol%
Selectivity to diesel fraction (C₁₂ - C₂₂)	81.70 mol%
Type of hydrocarbon in diesel fraction	Mass fraction (wi)
Iso-paraffin	18.45
N-paraffin	78.32
Total paraffin	96.77
Olefins	2.04
Alcohols	1.19

504
505 To sum up, all experiment conditions demonstrated a stable FT performance, and no
506 catalyst deactivation was observed for 24 hr. However, future extended recycling and the
507 ageing test is required to be investigated. Using the nitrogen-rich syngas (which is more
508 likely to be used in industry from air gasification of biomass waste) and increasing the CO
509 conversion and minimizing the drop-in liquid production's time reduce the cost of
510 compact biofuel generator in several manners (no need for CO recycling, no need for fuel
511 upgrading and reduce the farmer cost). In this study, an effort was made to design and
512 prepare an active Co/SiO₂ catalysts for a cost-efficient LTFT process. Hence, the
513 investigation advanced the research towards (i) designing and engineering highly active
514 cobalt-based catalyst capable of synthesizing nitrogen-rich syngas (50 vol%) in a single
515 fixed bed reactor and (ii) developing active silica-supported cobalt catalyst to maximize
516 the conversion rate of syngas to prevent recycling of unreacted raw syngas in
517 downstream and (iii) optimization study from achieving high conversion with maximized
518 paraffin to olefin ratio.

519

520 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

521 The study was carried out to examine the effect of metal precursor loading on the
522 catalytic behaviour of the cobalt supported silica powder. The catalytic performance of a
523 powder Co/SiO₂ catalyst was investigated by utilizing fixed-bed reactor technology in a
524 low-temperature Fischer-Tropsch synthesis (LTFT) process operating at 237 °C bed
525 temperature, 20 bar reaction pressure and 3.0 NI/h.g_{cat} WHSV. The nitrogen-rich syngas
526 was used with a ratio of CO:H₂:N₂ = 17:33:50 vol%. The increase in the concentration of
527 active metal sites resulted in a highly active supported cobalt catalyst. The metal loading
528 influenced the cobalt crystallite size and subsequently the cobalt particle size. The
529 conversion of the reactants was maximized by increasing the concentration of active
530 cobalt sites over the large surface area of the silica support. CAT-Q-36 had the highest
531 conversion (87.65 mol%) and selectivity in C₅₊ hydrocarbon (81.78 mol%), but CAT-Q-
532 15 had the lowest conversion (27.67 mol%) and selectivity (38.82) which correlated with
533 the Lewis acid sites of Co-based catalyst. The maximum paraffin:olefin ratio was 98:2 for
534 CAT-Q-36 in the presence of nitrogen-rich syngas (50 vol%) using fixed-bed reactor
535 technology.

536

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