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Date deposited: 6th March 2012

Version of file: Author final

Peer Review Status: Peer reviewed

Citation for item:

Velasquez Orta SB, Lee JGM, Harvey A. [Alkaline in situ transesterification of *Chlorella vulgaris*](#). *Fuel* 2012, **94**, 544–550.

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1 **Alkaline *in situ* transesterification of *Chlorella vulgaris***

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16 Journal: Fuel

17

18 **Abstract**

19

20 *In situ* transesterification, or “reactive extraction”, of lipids in algal biomass has the potential
21 to greatly simplify and reduce costs of the production of algal biodiesel, as it reduces the
22 number of unit operations by contacting the biomass directly with the alcohol and catalyst
23 required to convert lipids to their alkyl esters (biodiesel). A design of experiments was
24 conducted to understand the impact of process variables in the production of Fatty Acid
25 Methyl Ester (FAME) from *Chlorella vulgaris* microalgae. Three process variables (catalyst
26 ratio, solvent ratio and reaction time) were studied, based on their process significance. The
27 maximum FAME recovery of $77.6\pm 2.3\text{wt}\%$ was obtained at a reaction time of 75 minutes,
28 using a catalyst:lipid (NaOH) molar ratio of 0.15:1 and a methanol:lipid molar ratio of 600:1.
29 Additional experiments were performed at the optimum methanol ratio (600:1) to compare
30 results obtained using an alkaline catalyst with an acid catalyst. In terms of time, the alkaline
31 catalyst (sodium hydroxide) outperformed the acid catalyst (sulphuric acid) obtaining higher
32 conversions at lower reaction times. Nevertheless, using an acid catalyst ratio of 0.35:1 for
33 longer reaction times resulted in higher conversions, up to $96.8\pm 6.3\text{wt}\%$, and may have
34 facilitated the breakage of microalgae cell walls. In conclusion, the alkaline *in situ*
35 transesterification of algal biomass can achieve high conversion in less time than an acid
36 catalyst, using a lower ratio of catalyst. The final selection of the type of catalyst will depend
37 on the characteristics (batch vs continuous) and cost of the *in situ* transesterification including
38 catalyst and methanol costs, and the downstream processes required to obtain a saleable
39 biodiesel.

40 **Key words:** *in situ* transesterification, microalgae, biodiesel, catalyst, experimental design

41

42 **1. Introduction**

43 The UN's Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change report states that in the last 30 years
44 carbon dioxide emissions have risen by 80% [1]. The increased levels of greenhouse gases
45 have had several environmental impacts, the most important being global warming. In 2008
46 the transport sector in the European Union contributed 21% to total greenhouse gas emissions
47 [2]. This contribution could decrease by using biodiesel instead of petrol-diesel [3]. Biodiesel
48 has an established market in Europe, as it is already commercially produced and used with
49 existing distribution and storage infrastructure. Biodiesel has competitive combustion
50 efficiency [4], and can be obtained from a wide range of sustainable biomass, such as crops
51 that can grow on marginal land (e.g. jatropha), used fryer oil, waste streams, agricultural
52 residues and microalgae.

53

54 Using microalgae to produce biodiesel has several advantages over production from
55 terrestrial plant crops. Microalgae are fast-growing photosynthetic microorganisms that can
56 complete an entire growing cycle in few days, and can be cultivated in fresh water, sea water,
57 or wastewater. Microalgae can be used to sequester carbon dioxide and can produce lipids
58 at up to 77wt% of total biomass [5]. One option for producing biodiesel from microalgae is to
59 convert algal lipids to fatty acid alkyl esters via transesterification [6, 7]. Other alternatives
60 are thermal cracking and microemulsions [4]. The transesterification occurs as a series of
61 three reactions: triglycerides (lipid compounds) are sequentially converted to diglycerides,
62 monoglycerides and, finally glycerol (by-product), with the alkyl ester (the "biodiesel") being
63 produced at every step. This is achieved by reacting the lipids with an alcohol which usually
64 requires an acidic or alkaline catalyst. Methanol is the most commonly used reactant in
65 industry, as it is readily available and is relatively inexpensive [8]. The use of methanol
66 yields Fatty Acid Methyl Esters (FAMES). Alternatively, ethanol can be used; however this is

67 more expensive than methanol and does not always produce a consistently measurable
68 product [9]. The transesterification can be performed using a homogenous or heterogeneous,
69 acid or alkaline, catalyst. Examples of homogeneous acid catalysts are sulphuric or
70 hydrochloric acid; while sodium or potassium hydroxide/methoxide are homogenous alkaline
71 catalysts.

72

73 Conventionally, the oil is extracted and refined from microalgae prior to conversion to FAME.
74 Several studies have focussed on transesterification of microalgae oil using alkaline catalysts
75 [10, 11] or acid catalysts [12-16]. Vijayaraghavan and Hemanathan [10] showed, using fresh
76 water microalgae oil, ethanol and potassium chloride, that microalgal biodiesel quality was
77 comparable to biodiesel from conventional sources. Hossain *et al.* [11] showed that an
78 alkaline reaction can reach a conversion to biodiesel of 90%, when using oil from microalgae
79 *Spirogyra sp.* and *Oedogonium sp.*, sodium hydroxide, and methanol. Miao and Wu [12]
80 studied the acid transesterification of microalgae oil using a high molar ratio of sulphuric acid
81 (2.25 M) at different temperatures and methanol ratios. They obtained a maximum
82 conversion of 68% at 30°C, using a methanol ratio of 45:1. Xu *et al.* [14] obtained biodiesel
83 from *Chlorella protothecoides* oil after 4 h, using 100% acid catalyst, 56:1 molar ratio of
84 methanol, and a temperature of 30 °C. Li *et al.* [15] also used *C. protothecoides* oil, obtaining
85 98% oil to biodiesel conversion within 12 h at a temperature of 38°C using 100% lipase as
86 catalyst and 3:1 molar ratio of methanol to oil.

87

88 All the previous studies strictly require microalgae oil extraction and purification by
89 mechanical or chemical methods. Alternatively, the oil extraction step can be eliminated by
90 performing the reaction directly in the lipids contained in organic matter, a process known as
91 *in situ* transesterification (Fig. 1). Johnson and Wen [16], Wahlen *et al.* [17], Ehimen *et al.*

92 [18] and, Haas and Wagner [19] have recently evaluated acid-catalysed *in situ*
93 transesterification. Johnson and Wen [16] tested biodiesel production from algae
94 *Schizochyrtium limacinum* SR21 using different solvents (methanol, chloroform, hexane and
95 petroleum ether). They obtained a maximum 68% yield of FAMEs when chloroform or
96 hexane were added to methanol using 1.5 mol of sulphuric acid and 132:1 mol of methanol
97 and solvent at 90°C for 40 min. Ehimen *et al.* [18] tested *Chlorella* algae at different
98 temperatures, alcohol molar ratios, reaction times and moisture contents in the production of
99 biodiesel. Their study showed a maximum lipid to FAME conversion of around 88% after a
100 reaction time of 2 hours, using 0.04 mol of sulphuric acid, 500:1 mol of methanol and a
101 temperature of 90°C. Xu and Mi [20] conducted an alkaline *in situ* transesterification of
102 *Spirulina* sp. in order to test different types of co-solvents.

103 In this study we evaluated FAME production by alkali-catalysed *in situ* transesterification of
104 microalgae *Chlorella vulgaris* at different reaction times, methanol ratios, and catalyst
105 concentrations. Past studies have not thoroughly investigated the use of alkaline catalysts for
106 microalgae, due to their high free fatty acid (FFA) contents. For example, Haas and Wagner
107 reported an FFA content of 35.1 wt% in microalgae biomass [19]. An alkaline catalyst is
108 normally not recommended for feedstocks containing more than 2 wt% of FFA per total
109 lipids, due to increased soap and water formation [6]. However, the amount of FFA in
110 microalgae can also be low, as it varies according to the type of strain and growing conditions
111 [21]. If FFA is low, then alkaline catalyst are the most likely option as the transesterification
112 reaction proceeds faster than with an acid catalyst, reducing reactor size, and therefore capital
113 cost. Alkaline catalysts are also less corrosive to equipment than acid catalysts [22]. Most
114 importantly, past evidence from *in situ* transesterification of oilseeds shows that alkaline
115 catalyst have a higher tolerance for water than conventional processes [23]. This is important

116 as microalgae biomass will contain water, and it can be very costly to dry it to the very low
117 levels required for biodiesel production.

118 **2. Methodology**

119 2.1 Microalgae *Chlorella Vulgaris*

120 Dried *Chlorella vulgaris* was purchased from Chlorella Europe (London, UK). The lipid
121 content of *Chlorella vulgaris* was measured by mixing 1 g of powder with 45 mL of a
122 homogenized mixture of methanol and chloroform (1:2, v/v). After overnight extraction,
123 samples were vacuum-filtered with Whatman 2E filter paper into an acetone-washed
124 separating funnel and then transferred to another clean glass test tube. A weak salt solution
125 consisting of potassium chloride (KCl; 0.88v%) was added at 25% of the starting volume
126 [24]. The mixture was shaken gently and two layers were left to separate. The top layer
127 mixture was removed using a Pasteur pipette and drained to waste; the bottom layer mixture
128 was transferred into a weighed clean test tube. The solvent was removed by evaporation at
129 room temperature for several days until achieving constant weight. The amount of FFA
130 present was determined by titration using method ASTM D5559 [25].

131 Identification of FAME from the crude algae oil was conducted by using the one-step lipid
132 extraction method and FAME preparation described by Garces and Mancha [26]. A
133 methylating mixture was prepared containing methanol-toluene:2,2-
134 Dimethoxypropane:sulphuric acid (39:20:5:2 by volume). The methylating mixture (3.3 mL)
135 was mixed with heptane (1.7 mL) and added to 0.2 g of microalgae followed by vigorous
136 shaking and incubation in a water bath at 80°C for 2 h. After this, the sample was cooled
137 down and the upper layer formed in the mixture was separated and analysed using gas
138 chromatography (see section 2.4).

139 2.2 Experimental design

140 In order to have a systematic approach to data collection and analysis, a design of
141 experiments (DOE) was used. Although the transesterification reaction to produce biodiesel
142 is seen as a simple reaction mechanism, there are multiple parameters that affect the process
143 such as temperature, mixing rate, solvent and catalyst ratios, reaction time, biomass, and pH.
144 Using a DOE is a more effective procedure to evaluate some, if not all, the parameters
145 involved when compared to the traditional one-at-a-time methodology because it can study
146 several parameters at the same time with the lowest possible number of observations [27].

147 The series of experiments to evaluate the performance when using an acid or alkaline catalyst
148 were first set up to follow a 3^3 factorial design. The fixed variables were: temperature (60°C),
149 grams of algae (7g) and mixing rate (380 rpm). A temperature of 60°C was used as this is the
150 standard temperature used in industry, and a high mixing rate of 380 rpm ensured that the
151 process was not limited by external mass transfer. The changing variables were: solvent
152 (methanol to oil molar ratios of 300:1, 400:1 and 600:1), catalyst (NaOH to oil molar ratios of
153 0.05:1, 0.15:1, 0.25:1) and reaction time (5 min, 15min and 45 min). Once the first results
154 were obtained an additional experiment was conducted to evaluate a fourth level of the
155 alkaline catalyst (0.35:1) and methanol (800:1) ratios at the same three reaction times. The
156 overall experimental design needed a total of 63 observations in duplicate. The final weight
157 of FAME obtained was the response variable in the experimental design and acid *in situ*
158 transesterification.

159 2.3 Procedure for *in situ* transesterification

160 Apart from the experimental design, further acidic (H_2SO_4) and alkaline (NaOH) *in situ*
161 transesterifications were conducted at a methanol to oil molar ratio of 600:1 to allow
162 comparison of catalyst performance at different reaction times and catalyst concentrations.

163 All *in situ* transesterifications whether alkali (NaOH) or acid- catalysed (H₂SO₄) were carried
164 out in 50ml centrifuge tubes. The tubes were filled with 7 g of algae and then pre-heated in
165 the oven at 100°C for 1hour to remove any moisture due to storage. When using sodium
166 hydroxide (NaOH) as catalyst, granules were pre-dissolved in methanol at a concentration of
167 100 g/L to form sodium methoxide. The required amounts of catalyst (NaOH or H₂SO₄) and
168 methanol were added to each tube consecutively to begin the experiment and avoid any
169 reaction delays between experiments. The transesterification reaction was performed at a
170 constant temperature of 60°C and a stirring rate of 380 rpm using a shaking incubator (IKA
171 KS 4000 iconrol). Once the reaction was complete, 0.5 mL of acetic acid (for reactions using
172 an alkaline catalyst) or 0.5 mL of water (for reactions using an acid catalyst) was added to
173 each tube to neutralise the catalyst and stop the reaction. After, the tubes were stored in a
174 refrigerator (at 5°C) to reduce the temperature, and then the algae residues were separated
175 from the bulk liquid by centrifugation (SCI QUIP sigma 3-16p) for 5 min at 4000 g. The bulk
176 liquids (containing methanol, FAME and by-products) were stored in pre-weighed tubes. The
177 final weight of the bulk liquid was recorded for each tube and the FAME concentration was
178 measured by gas chromatography (see section 2.4).

179 2.4 Analytical techniques

180 Analysis of total FAME yields from the *in situ* transesterification was performed using gas
181 chromatography (GC, Hewlet Packard 5890) adjusted to the following conditions: carrier gas:
182 helium, 7psi; air pressure, 32psi; hydrogen pressure, 22psi; a capillary column was used with
183 a head pressure of 4.5psi. Samples of 250mg were mixed with 1 mL of an external standard
184 solution (C17:0 Sigma Aldrich 51633, 10 mg/ mL) in 2 mL vials. One microlitre of the
185 mixture was injected to the GC and data was collected using DataApex Clarity software, UK.
186 The mass of FAME obtained in the biodiesel rich phase from experiments was calculated by
187 multiplying the weight of the final biodiesel mixture obtained times the FAME concentration

188 measured by GC. Dividing the mass of FAME obtained by the maximum FAME available in
189 the lipids gave the FAME yield.

190 In order to characterise the compounds in the FAME chromatogram a grain FAME mix
191 (Sigma Aldrich 47801, 10 mg/mL) and a series of pure FAME compounds (C16:0, C17:0,
192 and C18:2) were analysed at the same GC conditions as the FAME samples.

193 **3. Results and discussion**

194 3.1 Alkaline *in situ* transesterification

195 The microalgae cultures were shown to contain 26.9 ± 0.4 wt% lipids of total biomass. This
196 lipid ratio was in accordance with the manufacturer's specifications, and is relatively low, as
197 the commercially available *Chlorella* is used as a protein-rich nutrient. Within the total lipids,
198 a maximum FAME mass of 791 mg was obtained for the 7 g of dried microalgae used in all
199 experiments. FFA accounted for 3.2 ± 0.2 wt% of total lipids; this value is in the low range,
200 and agrees with values reported by Widjaja *et al.* when using *Chlorella* biomass dried at
201 100°C [21]. Fig. 2 shows the mass of FAME obtained at the different conditions of the
202 experimental design. A significant FAME conversion was achieved very rapidly: in just 5
203 minutes, there was a 55wt% FAME conversion (of total FAME mass) when using the highest
204 methanol/NaOH ratios (Fig. 2a). After 15 minutes the FAME yield increased further,
205 achieving 60wt% at the highest methanol/NaOH ratios (Fig. 2b). Finally, at 45 minutes, (Fig.
206 2c), the yield achieved maximum conversion for the range of times studied in the
207 experimental design. Figs. 2b and 2c also show that increasing the methanol ratio from 300:1
208 to 600:1, decreases the amount of catalyst needed to reach an increased conversion of FAME
209 yield. It can also be observed that using low (300:1) or high (800:1) ratios of methanol plus a
210 high ratio of catalyst (0.35) decreases the FAME yield beyond 15min (Fig. 2b and Fig. 2c). A
211 low yield is obtained when using a low methanol ratio and a high ratio of catalyst probably

212 due to production of soap instead of FAMES, as sodium hydroxide produces water upon
213 dissolution in methanol. On the other hand, when using high ratios of methanol, the FAME
214 conversion may have decreased due to the dilution of the catalyst.

215 The percentage FAME yield reached a maximum of $71\pm 1\text{wt}\%$, after 45min, at a catalyst ratio
216 of 0.35 and solvent ratio of 600:1. This value is higher than the maximum conversion of algal
217 biomass obtained by Johnson and Wen [16] of 66wt% but lower than the 88wt% maximum
218 conversion reported by Ehimen et al. [18], both using acid catalysis. As the maximum
219 conversion was reached at the highest time evaluated in the initial set, the amount of FAME
220 obtained could still be increasing (see next section).

221 3.2 Identification of optimal reaction time

222 The experimental design indicated that using a solvent ratio of 600:1 gave the highest lipid to
223 FAME conversion, and that using a catalyst ratio of 0.25 was as efficient as using a catalyst
224 ratio of 0.35 (see section 4.3). However, the highest FAME products were given at the
225 highest evaluated time of 45 min. In order to find an optimum time an additional set of
226 experiments were conducted at 75 min and a longer period of time (20 h). Fig. 3 shows that
227 75 min gave the highest FAME product for catalyst ratios higher than 0.15. At this plateau
228 value, the highest FAME yield was $77.6\pm 2.3\text{wt}\%$ of total FAME mass. The maximum yield
229 obtained when using microalgal biomass was lower than the maximum yields reported for
230 alkaline catalysed sunflower, *Jatropha curcas* and cotton seed (>90%) by *in situ*
231 transesterification, but higher than when using primary sewage sludge and an acid catalyst
232 (66%)[28].

233 At a reaction time of 75 min there was no difference between different catalyst ratios of 0.15,
234 0.25 or 0.35. Therefore the optimum conditions are found to be when using a catalyst ratio of

235 0.15 (to minimise catalyst consumption), combined with a reaction time of 75 min and a
236 solvent ratio of 600:1.

237 3.3 Analysis of experimental design

238 The balanced data of the DOE was statistically evaluated in order to identify interactions
239 among variables for the *in situ* transesterification of microalgae. This is facilitated by using
240 the “p-value” and “t-value” factors. As a rule, large magnitudes of t and small magnitudes of
241 p ($p \leq 0.005$) indicate that the parameter significantly affects the process. Linear and combined
242 effects of the parameters were tested at 95% significance. The effect of all the individual
243 parameters were significant giving a $p = 0.000$. However, F values differed and indicated that
244 catalyst ratio (92.4), time (44.4) and solvent ratio (29.9), in that order, affected the FAME
245 yield most. In this experiment, initial solvent ratios used were already high therefore the
246 statistical analysis indicates that if the solvent ratio was further decreased, the effect on
247 FAME conversion will be the minimum, from the parameters evaluated. Results from
248 studying interaction between parameters showed that the combined effects of solvent*catalyst,
249 time*catalyst, and time*solvent, were also significant ($p \leq 0.005$).

250 Fig. 4 gives a graphical representation of interaction between variables. It can be observed
251 that for the lowest alcohol and catalyst ratios (300:1 and 0.05:1) the FAME yield was a
252 relatively weak function of the reaction time in the range examined (Fig. 4 b and g). This
253 indicates that a catalyst ratio of 0.05 is too low for the reaction to complete. For all other
254 ratios, the rate of change of the FAME yield between 5 and 15 min was higher than between
255 15 and 45 min. As expected, the rate of FAME conversion decreases with time. It can also be
256 seen that an increase in catalyst molar ratio from to 0.35:1 (curves in Fig. 4b) caused a higher
257 rate of change, than an increase in methanol molar ratio from 300:1 to 800:1. This is due to
258 the fact that the catalyst ratio is being increased 6 times the initial value while the methanol

259 ratio is only increased by a factor of 2.6. Fig. 4d shows that an alcohol ratio of 800:1 gave the
260 highest rate of change through time, going from 180 mg to 420 mg between 5 and 45 min;
261 however the mass of FAME was low. A high rate of change should be expected when the
262 solvent is used in high concentrations. The increased methanol requirement for obtaining
263 sufficient levels of conversion is a disadvantage compared to conventional transesterification.
264 *In situ* transesterification typically requires molar ratios of 100s:1 compared with using
265 around 6:1 ratios in transesterification of pure, liquid triglycerides [15] .

266 Fig. 4e indicates that increasing the catalyst ratio from 0.05:1 to 0.25:1 linearly increases the
267 amount of FAME up to methanol ratios of 600:1. The main effects plot (Fig. 5) also indicated
268 that a solvent ratio of 600:1 produced the highest FAME yield. A methanol ratio of 800:1
269 decreased the FAME obtained at catalyst ratios of 0.25:1 and 0.35:1 (Fig. 4e and Fig. 4h). As
270 previously mentioned, this could be due to the dilution of the catalyst at high solvent ratios.
271 Using a high alcohol ratios also affected reproducibility; experiments using 800:1 methanol
272 ratios had the lowest similarity (Fig. 4, graph f).

273 The change in FAME yield observed when changing catalyst ratios in the main effects plot
274 (Fig. 5) shows a logarithmic curve indicating that there is an optimum catalyst ratio for the
275 FAME yield. There was no significant difference (ANOVA, $p = 0.343$) between FAME
276 yields obtained at 0.25:1 and 0.35:1 catalyst ratios after 45 min (Fig. 4, graph g). Additionally,
277 after 75 min the yields obtained at 0.15, 0.25 and 0.35 catalyst ratios did not show significant
278 differences. This suggests that to obtain the maximum yield within 45 min using a catalyst
279 ratio of 0.25:1 should be optimum, while leaving the reaction for 75 min decreases the
280 catalyst ratio needed to 0.15:1 for maximum yield.

281 A further evaluation of the data was conducted by analysing residuals. The residuals followed
282 a linear trend in the normal probability plot and had a normal frequency distribution. This
283 validates the statistical analysis. Graphs j to l in Fig. 4 shows the variation between

284 experiment 1 and 2. There was no significant difference between experiments which
285 confirmed the reproducibility of the data and this can also be observed in the main effects
286 plot (Fig. 5).

287 3.4 Comparison of acid and alkaline *in situ* transesterification

288 Fig. 6 shows the mass of FAME obtained when using an alkaline or acid catalyst at the
289 previously found optimum methanol ratio of 600:1. Higher yields were obtained with an
290 alkaline catalyst than an acid catalyst over the lengths of time tested. Using a catalyst ratio of
291 0.05:1 produced low FAME yields (<100 mg) independent of the type of catalyst. When
292 using an alkaline catalyst (Fig. 6a), after 5min of reaction, the FAME yield increased
293 approximately linearly as the catalyst ratio increased. At 15 min and 45 min, the yield of
294 FAME was the highest at a 0.25:1 catalyst ratio. As the reaction continued, the FAME yield
295 increased more rapidly at low concentrations of catalyst until achieving a plateau. All catalyst
296 molar ratios achieved approximately the same plateau after 45 min, apart from concentrations
297 lower than 0.15.

298 Regarding the acid catalyst (Fig. 6b), ratios of 0.15:1 produced FAME yields lower than 200
299 mg (<25% conversion). During the first 75 min, an increase of the acid catalyst ratio up to
300 0.35 increased the FAME obtained to ~320 mg (approximately 50% conversion). Clearly the
301 acid reaction is much slower on a mole of catalyst basis. To determine the maximum yield
302 that could be obtained by the acid catalyst, the reaction was allowed to proceed for a long
303 period of time (20 h). In these conditions the highest FAME yield obtained was 96.9 ± 6.3 wt%
304 (corresponding to 766 ± 50 mg), achieved at the highest catalyst ratio of 0.35.

305 3.5 Characterisation of fatty acid methyl esters

306 The FAMEs obtained when using an alkaline or acid catalyst are shown in Table 1. When
307 acid or alkaline catalysts were used the compounds, the most abundant species were palmitic

308 acid (C16:0), stearic acid (C18:0), elaidic acid (C18:1n9t), linoleic (C18:2n6c) and linolenic
309 acids (C18:3n6 and C18:3n3). Only FAMES produced using an alkaline catalyst contained
310 gamma linolenic acid (C18:3n6). On the other hand, increased concentrations of myristic acid
311 (C14:0) and myristoleic acid (C14:1n9 *cis*) appeared when using an acid catalyst on the
312 microalgae (or the crude oil). Crude oil contained increased quantities of short chain
313 compounds whereas FAME obtained by *in situ* transesterification exhibited increased
314 concentrations of long chain compounds (C18:1). From the identified FAME compounds, it
315 was found that the profiles were mainly composed of unsaturated fatty acids ranging from 56%
316 to 71%, which is in accordance with previous literature [29, 30]. In particular, the FAME
317 profile was similar to that reported by Couveia and Oliveira [30], where palmitic (C16:0),
318 elaidic-oleic (C18:1), and linoleic (C18:3) were the major fractions obtained from *Chlorella*
319 biomass. The differences between the acid- and alkali-extracted FAMES from *Chlorella*
320 *vulgaris* have a range of (possibly interrelated) causes, including: differing extents of
321 conversion at these conditions, differences in the catalysts' extraction of lipids from the cell
322 membrane and differences in the conversion of FFA.

323 4. Conclusions

324 This research was intended to define the values of the processing parameters required to
325 produce biodiesel from microalgae in the most efficient manner. *In situ* transesterification of
326 algal biomass is an example of process intensification as it reduces the number of steps
327 required to obtain biodiesel by combining lipid extraction and transesterification into one step.
328 This study evaluated essential process parameters for the alkaline *in situ* transesterification of
329 microalgae to FAMES via an experimental design. In the range of the three parameters
330 evaluated (methanol ratio, catalyst ratio and time) the highest FAME yield was obtained at a
331 reaction time of 75 min, using a methanol ratio of 600:1, and a catalyst ratio of 0.15:1. It was
332 shown that a conversion of $77.6 \pm 2.3\text{wt}\%$ can be achieved using an alkaline catalyst at

333 considerably lower reaction times than when using an acid catalyst. However, the methanol
334 ratio was extremely high, as for oilseed biodiesel production by *in situ* transesterification, and
335 methods to reduce the amount of methanol will need to be proposed for this process to
336 become economic, as a substantial energy cost will be incurred by recycling the methanol. On
337 this evidence, for this feedstock, alkaline catalysis is significantly more rapid than acid
338 catalysis, but has a lower yield. The final selection of the type of catalyst to be used will
339 depend on the characteristics of the algae biomass (particularly amount of FFA content) and
340 the final downstream processes necessitated by the conversion rate achieved, and removal of
341 the catalyst itself. The FAME profiles of the acid and alkali-catalysed processes were shown
342 to differ somewhat, but the major FAMEs produced from *Chlorella vulgaris* were palmitic
343 acid, elaidic acid, oleic acid, and linoleic acid.

344 5. Acknowledgements

345 We thank Ms Malak Menouni for her laboratory assistance and intellectual contributions. We
346 appreciate Ms Hilary Redden's help on the FAME microalgae characterisation. This work
347 was funded by Carbon Trust Algae Biofuels Challenge, UK (Project 72).

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414

415 **Figures**

416

417 **Fig.1 Comparison between *in situ* transesterification and conventional**
418 **transesterification.** Green squares indicate initial and final products, blue squares are main
419 processes required, and grey squares indicate by-products obtained.

420 **Fig. 2 Fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) obtained at different catalyst ratios, solvent**
421 **ratios, and reaction times.** Reaction times for the different graphs were: a) 5 min, b) 15 min,
422 and c) 45 min.

423 **Fig. 3 Mass of FAME obtained at different reaction times.** Labels indicate different
424 catalyst ratios of sodium hydroxide per mol of lipid. A fixed methanol ratio of 600:1 was
425 used for all data points.

426 **Fig. 4 Interaction plot of results.** Values observed are means of duplicate experiments.
427 Values plotted are means of duplicate experiments.

428 **Fig. 5 Main Effects plot.** Mean data obtained for the factors (time, solvent, catalyst and
429 experiment) studied in the experimental design.

430 **Fig. 6 Effect of using different catalyst ratios on FAME yield.** *In situ* transesterification
431 was done using either: (a) Alkaline catalysis or (b) acid catalysis. Values obtained at
432 methanol:oil 600:1, and temperature 60°C.