

# *Article* **Synthesis of Kaolinite Nanotubes as Heterogeneous Catalysts for Transesterification Reaction of Waste Cooking Oil into Biodiesel**



*This is an open acces article under the CC-BY license.*



This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons 4.0 Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. ©2024 by author.

*Corresponding Author :* Syukri Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Science, Universitas Andalas, Padang, Indonesia Email : [syukri.darajat@gmail.com](mailto:syukri.darajat@gmail.com)

#### **1. Introduction**

Energy consumption from fossil fuels is increasing rapidly due to population growth, transportation needs, and industry [1]. It is estimated that global energy demand will increase by 50% by 2040, potentially causing energy resource shortages and negative impacts on the environment [2]. According to the 2017 Indonesian Energy Outlook report from BPPT, in 2030 Indonesia is estimated to experience an oil import deficit of 540 million barrels per year. The use of fossil fuels is also a major cause of increasing greenhouse gas emissions, which contribute to global warming [3-6]. As fossil reserves dwindle and environmental pollution increases, researchers are looking for alternative energy sources [7]. One of the promising ones is biodiesel, which is renewable, biodegradable, and produces lower emissions than fossil fuels [8-9].

The main raw materials for biodiesel are vegetable oils, such as palm oil, soybean oil, and sunflower oil [10]. However, the use of vegetable oils can cause food problems and high production costs [1]. As a solution, cooking oil can be used because it is cheaper and helps reduce pollution. Disposal of waste cooking oil can create environmental problems, so processing it into biodiesel is a good option [11]. Biodiesel can be produced by various methods, such as oil blending, microemulsion, pyrolysis, and transesterification reactions [12-13]. Among all the methods, transesterification is the most popular because it is easy and efficient [11],[14]. This process involves the reaction of triglycerides from vegetable oils, animal fats, or waste cooking oils with short-chain alcohols such as methanol and ethanol, using a catalyst [15].

Common catalysts used to assist transesterification reactions are homogeneous and heterogeneous catalysts [16-17]. Homogeneous catalysts have better catalytic activity, but their use causes many problems, such as difficulty separating the catalyst from the product, soap formation, and corrosiveness [18-19]. Therefore, the use of heterogeneous catalysts is more recommended because they have low fabrication costs, easy separation of the catalyst from the product, high thermal stability, high recyclability, and low corrosion properties [18],[20]. Clay is an adsorbent material that can be used as a catalyst because it has a large surface a[rea, is porous, has high catalytic reactivity, has high ion exchange capacity, and is cheap [21-22]. One type of clay is kaolinite, which is abundant in nature and is cheaper than other types of clay [21], [23]. In previous research conducted by Rahayu et al. (2024), it was proven that thermally modified kaolinite has the potential to convert fatty acids in waste cooking oil, which can convert palmitic acid by 42% [24]. This discovery has the potential to serve as a catalyst in the production of biodiesel. In order to increase catalytic activity, it is necessary to modify the structure of kaolinite to increase its active side [25].

The use of materials with nanotube structures is recommended in the development of advanced materials. With this structure, the material can achieve a large surface area, high reactivity properties, and excellent catalytic activity. Kaolinite nanotubes in recent studies have been shown to be a new and effective adsorbent material that has a very large surface area, very high surface reactivity, excellent catalytic activity, and is porous[26-28]. The manufacture of kaolinite nanotubes is carried out through several stages of intercalation and electromagnetic wave induction[18]. The use of kaolinite nanotubes as a catalyst has never been done before. Therefore, this study focuses on exploring the potential of kaolinite nanotubes as a catalyst in the transesterification reaction of waste cooking oil which is expected to produce high biodiesel yields and good product selectivity.

### **2. Experimental Section**

### **2.1. Materials**

The materials used for the preparation of the catalyst were pure kaolinite obtained from Klinner Kimia. The materials used for the synthesis of kaolinite nanotubes were dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) of Merck brand, distilled water, methanol ( $CH<sub>3</sub>OH$ ) of Merck brand, nitric acid ( $HNO<sub>3</sub>$ ) of Merck brand, cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB) of Himedia brand, and ethanol ( $CH_3CH_2OH$ ) of Merck brand. The materials used for the transesterification reaction were methanol (CH<sub>3</sub>OH) of Merck brand and waste cooking oil obtained from household cooking oil.

## **2.2. Synthesis of Kaolinite Nanotubes**

Synthesis of kaolinite nanotubes was carried out in several stages of intercalation and electromagnetic wave induction. The first is intercalation with DMSO, 5 grams of kaolinite was dispersed into 50 mL of DMSO solution for 50 minutes at a temperature of 75ºC. Then the mixed solution was transferred into a hydrothermal reactor and heated in an oven for 50 minutes at a temperature of 90ºC. After that, it was centrifuged for 5 minutes to separate the kaolinite intercalated with DMSO from the mixed solution and dried in an oven for 3 days at a temperature of 60ºC. The second is intercalation with methanol, 50 mL of methanol and 7 mL of  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  p.a were mixed until homogeneous to form a methanol/HNO<sub>3</sub> solution. Then 2 grams of kaolinite-DMSO were dispersed in a methanol/HNO<sub>3</sub> solution with a magnetic stirrer for 50 minutes at a temperature of 75ºC. After that, the mixed solution was transferred into a hydrothermal reactor and heated in an oven for 50 minutes at 90ºC. Then centrifuged for 5 minutes to separate the methanol-intercalated kaolinite from the mixed solution. After that, it was continued by washing with 50 mL which was stirred for 30 seconds and centrifuged again.

The washing process was carried out 5 times. Then the methanol-intercalated kaolinite was airdried for 24 hours. The third was intercalation with CTAB, 2 grams of kaolinite-methanol were dispersed into 100 mL of CTAB solution for 50 minutes at 80ºC. Then the mixed solution was transferred into a hydrothermal reactor and heated in an oven for 24 hours at 90ºC. After that, centrifuged for 5 minutes to separate the CTAB-intercalated kaolinite from the mixed solution and air-dried for 24 hours. Finally, 2 grams of kaolinite-CTAB were dispersed with 200 mL of ethanol after induction with electromagnetic waves. Then the mixture solution was sonicated for 90 minutes with a power of 150 W. After that, the mixture solution was centrifuged to separate the kaolinite nanotubes from the mixture solution. Then continued with washing with 50 mL of ethanol which was stirred for 30 seconds and centrifuged again. The washing process was carried out 8 times. Finally, the kaolinite nanotubes were dried in an oven for 2 days at a temperature of 80ºC. The kaolinite nanotubes were labeled KNT and then continued with characterization.

## **2.3. Transesterification of Waste Cooking Oil with The Help of Kaolinite Nanotube Catalyst**

The transesterification reaction was carried out with the following procedure: for the reaction stoichiometry, the molar ratio of used cooking methanol and oil was varied to 3:1, 6:1, and 9:1, then the amount of catalyst used was  $3\%$  w/v to the waste cooking oil. First, the catalyst and methanol were heated to 50ºC with continuous stirring for 10-30 minutes. Next, 30 mL of purified waste cooking oil was added to a three-necked flask that had been previously heated at 105ºC until no more water bubbles remained, then the temperature was allowed to drop to 50ºC. Then mix the catalyst, methanol and purified waste cooking oil.

The transesterification reaction was carried out for 3 hours at 60ºC with a stirring speed of 700 rpm. At the end of the reaction, the flask was cooled to room temperature and the catalyst was separated from the product mixture using filter paper. The biodiesel product was separated from the glycerol using a separating funnel. Biodiesel is washed with hot distilled water (50ºC) with a volume of 1:1 and slowly homogenized until a white liquid is formed. The mixture is left to stand so that water collects at the bottom. Biodiesel is heated at a temperature above the boiling point of water (105ºC) until there are no more water bubbles.

## **2.4. Characterization**

X-Ray Fluorescence (XRF) was used to identify the composition of compounds and elements in pure kaolinite and kaolinite nanotubes. X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) was used to see the success of intercalation compounds inserting into the kaolinite interlayers. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) was used to observe the morphology of kaolinite and kaolinite nanotubes after coating the studied samples with a thin layer of gold. Structural-functional groups were identified using a Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) spectrometer. Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) was used to see the compound content in the biodiesel produced.



**Figure 1.** Procedure of experiment

## **3. Results and Discussion**

## **3.1. Catalyst Characterization**

## **3.1.1. XRF Analysis of Kaolinite and Kaolinite Nanotubes**

The theoretical composition of pure kaolinite consists of  $46.54\%$  SiO<sub>2</sub>, 39.5% Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and 13.96% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> with an ideal Si:Al molar ratio of 1[29]. The results of the XRF analysis of kaolinite samples hereinafter referred to as Kaolinite (KI) and Kaolinite Nanotube (KN) are presented in [Table 1.](#page-4-0) The results of the analysis show that KI has a Si molar ratio of 1.38, indicating that this sample belongs to the kaolinite clay mineral group. In addition, KI also contains other elements such as P, Fe, K, Ti,

Ca, and Ag. Meanwhile, the analysis of the KN sample showed an increase in the Si molar ratio to 1.46. This increase was due to a greater decrease in alumina content compared to silica in KN. In addition, the KN sample also contains sulfur of around 7.54%, which indicates the presence of DMSO molecules between the kaolinite layers, as well as a Br content of 1.87%, which indicates the presence of CTAB molecules and Br- ions bound to kaolinite cations.

**Table 1.** Chemical elemental composition of kaolinite and kaolinite nanotube samples

<span id="page-4-0"></span>

|                        | SiO <sub>2</sub> | $Al_2O_3$      |              | $P_2O_5$ $F_e2O_3$ $K_2O$ $TiO_2$ $CaO$ |                   |      |              | $Ag_2O$ $SO_3$ |                  | Br   | $n_{\text{(Si)}}/n_{\text{(AD)}}$ |
|------------------------|------------------|----------------|--------------|-----------------------------------------|-------------------|------|--------------|----------------|------------------|------|-----------------------------------|
| Kaolinite<br>Kaolinite | 56.71<br>52.13   | 34.67<br>30.29 | 3.48<br>3.24 | 1.84<br>1.83                            | 1.35 0.71<br>1.35 | 0.73 | 0.63<br>0.73 | 0.23<br>0.11   | $\Omega$<br>7.54 | 1.87 | 1.38<br>1.46                      |
| Nanotube               |                  |                |              |                                         |                   |      |              |                |                  |      |                                   |

## **3.1.2. XRD Analysis of Kaolinite (KI)**

X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis was used to evaluate the phase composition, crystal structure, and structural changes that occur during the intercalation process[29]. The XRD test results showed a spectrum pattern that matched kaolinite, namely JCPDS 01-089-6538. The XRD curve for KI shown in [Figure](#page-4-1) shows an ideal crystal structure, characterized by sharp peaks at 7.16 Å at a 2θ angle of 12.35° and 3.58 Å at a 20 angle of 24.85° for  $d_{(001)}$  and  $d_{(002)}$ . In addition, eleven other diffraction peaks that are clearly visible, including  $d_{(020)} = 4.47 \text{ Å}$ ,  $d_{\overline{(110)}} = 4.36 \text{ Å}$ ,  $d_{\overline{(111)}} = 4.19 \text{ Å}$ ,  $d_{(021)} = 3.87 \text{ Å}$ ,  $d_{(111)} =$ 3.34 Å,  $d_1\overline{2}01$  = 2.57 Å,  $d_1\overline{1}31$  = 2.53 Å,  $d_200$  = 2.49 Å,  $d_{003}$  = 2.38 Å,  $d_1\overline{2}02$  = 2.34 Å, dan  $d_131$  = 2.29 Å. The crystallinity degree of KI was recorded at 0.94, indicating a high level of crystallinity. From the comparison of XRD curves, the kaolinite sample shows a spectrum pattern similar to triclinic kaolinite. The results of XRD analysis on KI prove that the sample used is kaolinite in triclinic form.

<span id="page-4-1"></span>

#### **3.1.3. XRD Analysis of Intercalated Compounds and Kaolinite Nanotubes (KN)**

KI cannot be directly converted into KN because the bonds between layers in kaolinite sheets are very strong. Therefore, the formation of intercalation compounds is needed to facilitate the separation of the stacked layers. Intercalation compounds such as Kaolinite-DMSO (KD), Kaolinite-Methanol (KM), and Kaolinite-CTAB (KC) are made to break the bonds between kaolinite layers. XRD analysis was performed on the intercalation compounds to evaluate the success of the intercalation process between kaolinite layers.

Kaolinite is difficult to intercalate due to the strong hydrogen bonds between its layers. Small and highly polar molecules, such as dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), are the right choice to break the hydrogen bonds. The XRD results for KD can be seen in [Figure .](#page-5-0) The analysis shows that there is a shift in the diffraction peak from a 2θ angle of 12.35º to 7.87º, which results in an increase in the basal distance of the  $d_{(001)}$  diffraction peak by 4.06 Å, from 7.16 Å to 11.22 Å after the intercalation of dimethyl sulfoxide molecules between kaolinite layers. This indicates that the intercalation of DMSO into the kaolinite layer was successful. The sharp shape of the  $d_{(001)}$  diffraction peak indicates that the dimethyl sulfoxide molecules are highly oriented in the kaolinite layer. Furthermore, several other diffraction peaks in kaolinite decrease or even disappear, indicating that the degree of crystallinity of kaolinite decreases.



**Figure 3.** XRD Results of Kaolinite, Kaolinite-DMSO, and Kaolinite-Methanol

<span id="page-5-0"></span>Furthermore, intercalation of kaolinite with methanol, which is a non-polar molecule, is carried out to replace the small polar dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) molecule. KM is used as an intermediary agent to insert macromolecular intercalating agents such as cetrimonium bromide (CTAB), resulting in KC. The XRD results for KM can be seen in [Figure 3](#page-5-0). The analysis shows a shift in the diffraction peak from an angle of 2θ 7.87º to 10.23º, resulting in a decrease in the basal distance by 2.59 Å, from 11.22 Å to 8.63 Å. This indicates that the intercalation of methanol molecules into the kaolinite layer was successful. However, a new peak appears at an angle of 2θ 8.86°, indicating that there are still DMSO molecules remaining between the kaolinite layers.

Finally, the synthesis of KC to produce a very wide basal distance between kaolinite layers. This allows the surface to peel off into individual kaolinite sheets when induced by ultrasonic waves, which were roll the kaolinite sheets into KN. The success of KC synthesis is indicated by the appearance of a diffraction peak at an angle of 2θ 2.30º [29], while the success of KN synthesis is seen from the slope of the 2θ angle between 1º- 4º [30]. However, due to the limitations of the XRD instrument that can measure the diffraction pattern from an angle of 2θ 2º, XRD analysis for KC and KN has not been carried out.

## **3.1.4. SEM Analysis of Kaolinite (KI) and Kaolinite Nanotubes (KN)**

SEM analysis is used to characterize the surface morphology of minerals and the changes that occur in them [29]. In this study, SEM was applied to observe the transformation of KI into KN. The results of the SEM test on KI can be seen in [Figure ,](#page-6-0) which shows that KI has a highly crystalline flake shape and a pseudo-hexagonal structure. The KI flakes are stacked, forming a stack of kaolinite sheets. [Figure](#page-6-0) shows the SEM scan results of KN. After the intercalation process and ultrasonic wave induction, the stack of kaolinite sheets was successfully broken into individual sheets, which then rolled into a tube structure. This image indicates the successful formation of KN, and this result can replace XRD analysis for KC and KN which cannot be done.



**Figure 4.** SEM results of (a) Kaolinite (KI) and (b) Kaolinite Nanotubes (KN)

# <span id="page-6-0"></span>**3.2. Catalytic Activity Test of Kaolinite (KI) and Kaolinite Nanotube (KN) Catalysts**

Catalyst activity test in this study was conducted on the transesterification reaction of waste cooking oil into biodiesel. The catalysts used in this reaction were KI and KN, each of which was reacted with variations in the ratio of methanol and oil of 3:1, 6:1, and 9:1. The transesterification reaction was carried out at a temperature of 60ºC, with a stirring speed of 700 rpm, and a reaction time of 3 hours.

The biodiesel yield produced by the KI catalyst can be seen in [Figure .](#page-7-0) Based on the biodiesel yield results obtained, the biodiesel yield increased from the molar ratio reaction of methanol and oil 3:1 to 6:1 and decreased at a ratio of 9:1. The optimum biodiesel yield was obtained at a variation of the molar ratio of methanol:oil 6:1, which was 12,02% and the minimum at a molar ratio of methanol:oil 9:1, which was 0,34%. In the transesterification reaction, the use of excess methanol is useful for encouraging the formation of methyl esters, where the transesterification reaction is reversible so that it plays an important role in the formation of biodiesel.

At a molar ratio of 6:1 to 9:1 there was a decrease, this is estimated because the use of excessive methanol or beyond the ideal limit can reduce the concentration of triglycerides, so that the interaction between triglyceride molecules and methoxide ions becomes limited and not optimal. This reduces the rate of reaction of ester compound formation. In addition, excessive methanol can dissolve

glycerol, complicate separation, and contribute to the re-formation of triglycerides, leading to a reversible reaction and reducing the formation of ester compounds. Excess methanol at the active site of the catalyst also reduces the interaction between reactants and can cause deactivation of the active site on the catalyst [18],[31].



**Figure 5.** Biodiesel yield produced by KI catalyst

<span id="page-7-0"></span>The FAME content produced from the transesterification reaction using KI catalyst can be seen in [Table 2.](#page-7-1) In the reaction with a methanol:oil ratio of 3:1 the most dominant type of FAME is 9- Octadecenoic acid, methyl ester, (E)-. Then, at a methanol:oil ratio of 9:1, the types of FAME produced are 9-Octadecenoic acid (Z)-, methyl ester and Pentadecanoic acid, 14-methyl-, methyl ester in equal amounts. Meanwhile, in the reaction with a methanol:oil ratio of 6:1, in addition to the formation of methyl ester, ethyl ester is also produced, which is included in the biodiesel category. The ethyl ester produced at this ratio is Hexadecanoic acid, 2-hydroxy-1-(hydroxymethyl) ethyl ester.

<span id="page-7-1"></span>

| No | <b>FAME/FAE</b>                        | Carbon Chain | %Area Fame/Fae Katalis KI |       |      |
|----|----------------------------------------|--------------|---------------------------|-------|------|
|    |                                        |              | 3:1                       | 6:1   | 9:1  |
|    | Hexadecanoic acid, methyl ester        | C16          | 0.45                      | 0.9   |      |
|    | 9-Octadecenoic acid (Z)-, methyl ester | C18          | 10.71                     |       | 0.28 |
|    | Pentadecanoic acid, 14-methyl-, methyl | C15          |                           |       | 0.28 |
|    | ester                                  |              |                           |       |      |
| 4  | Hexadecanoic acid, 2-hydroxy-1-        | C16          |                           | 22.78 |      |
|    | (hydroxymethyl) ethyl ester            |              |                           |       |      |

**Table 2.** %FAME dan %FAE content produced with KI catalyst

The biodiesel yield produced by the KN catalyst can be seen in [Figure .](#page-8-0) The analysis results show that the biodiesel yield decreases with increasing molar ratio of methanol and oil. The maximum biodiesel yield was obtained at an oil molar ratio of 3:1, which was 49.84%, while the minimum yield was recorded at a ratio of 9:1, with a value of 32.67%. This decrease is thought to occur for the same reason as that which occurs in the biodiesel yield when using kaolinite catalyst.

The conversion of KI to KN increases the surface area of kaolinite, which in turn increases the adsorption capacity and the number of active sites of kaolinite as a catalyst. With the increase in adsorption capacity, more methanol and triglycerides can be adsorbed on the kaolinite surface, thus triggering the transesterification reaction. In addition, the increase in the number of active sites allows more methanol to be converted into methoxy ions, which can react with triglycerides that are also adsorbed on the kaolinite surface. The presence of cations in KN, such as  $Fe^{2+}$ , K<sup>+</sup>, Ti<sup>2+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, and Ag<sup>+</sup>, with percentages of 1.83%, 1.35%, 0.73%, 0.73%, and 0.11%, respectively, increases the active sites of KN. In addition, the presence of Br<sup>-</sup> anions of 1.87% also contributes to the increase in the active sites of KN as a catalyst. This is proven by the increase in biodiesel yield from using the KN catalyst compared to using the KI catalyst.



**Figure 6.** Biodiesel yield produced by KN catalyst

<span id="page-8-0"></span>The content of FAME produced from the transesterification reaction using KN catalyst can be seen in [Table 3.](#page-8-1) The increasing ratio of methanol:oil, the selectivity of FAME increases. In the reaction with a methanol:oil ratio of 3:1 and 6:1, the most dominant types of FAME are Hexadecanoic acid, methyl ester and 9-Octadecenoic acid, methyl ester, (E)-. Then with the increase in the methanol:oil ratio from 3:1 to 6:1 shows that the selectivity of FAME increases from 6 types to 4 types of FAME. While in the reaction with a methanol:oil ratio of 9:1 produces very selective FAME, which only produces Hexadecanoic acid, methyl ester.

<span id="page-8-1"></span>

| N <sub>0</sub> | <b>FAME</b>                             | Carbon Chain | %Area Fame Katalis KN |       |       |
|----------------|-----------------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------|-------|-------|
|                |                                         |              | 3:1                   | 6:1   | 9:1   |
|                | Dodecanoic acid, methyl ester           | C12          | 0.21                  | 0.32  |       |
|                | Hexadecanoic acid, methyl ester         | C16          | 19.05                 | 21.37 | 52.42 |
|                | 6-Octadecenoic acid, methyl ester       | C18          |                       | 0.66  |       |
| 4              | 9-Octadecenoic acid (Z)-, methyl ester  | C18          | 2.42                  |       |       |
|                | 9-Octadecenoic acid, methyl ester, (E)- | C18          | 28.93                 | 32.82 |       |
| 6              | Nonadecanoic acid, methyl ester         | C19          | 17.81                 |       |       |
|                | Docosanoic acid, methyl ester           | C22          | 3.41                  |       |       |

**Table 3.** %FAME content produced with KN catalyst

## **4. Conclusion**

Kaolinite nanotubes were successfully synthesized from kaolinite and used as heterogeneous acid catalysts. This catalyst was applied in the transesterification of waste cooking oil. Kaolinite nanotubes (KN) achieved a biodiesel yield of 49.84% after a 3-hour reaction interval using 3%w catalyst in the presence of a methanol-oil ratio of 3:1 at a reaction temperature of 60˚C. Kaolinite was shown to increase the surface area and catalytic activity compared to kaolinite.

## **5. Acknowledgement**

This study was supported by Hibah Penelitian Bima 2024 Number : 041/E5/PG.02.00.PL/2024 Universitas Andalas.

## **References**

- [1] Khan N, Maseet M, Basir SF. (2020). Synthesis and characterization of biodiesel from waste cooking oil by lipase immobilized on genipin cross-linked chitosan beads: A green approach. *Int J Green Energy*. 17(1):84–93.
- [2] Ghosh N, Halder G. (2022). Current progress and perspective of heterogeneous nanocatalytic transesterification towards biodiesel production from edible and inedible feedstock: A review. *Energy Convers Manag*. 270(7):116292.
- [3] Aboudi Mana SC, Hanafiah MM, Chowdhury. (2017). Environmental characteristics of clay and clay-based minerals. *Geol Ecol Landscapes*. 1(3):155–61.
- [4] Adu-Gyamfi MN, Raj A, Golding P, Perez L, Golding D, Contreras LR, et al. (2022). Moving towards renewable energy to mitigate carbon emissions from fossil fuel. *Am J Environ Sci Eng*. 6(2):91–100.
- [5] Bargole SS, Singh PK, George S, Saharan VK. (2021). Valorisation of low fatty acid content waste cooking oil into biodiesel through transesterification using a basic heterogeneous calcium-based catalyst. *Biomass and Bioenergy*. 146(2):105984.
- [6] Yuvenda D, Sudarmanta B, Jamaludin, Muraza O, Putra RP, Lapisa R, Zainul R et al. (2022). Combustion and Emission Characteristics of CNG-Diesel Dual Fuel Engine with Variation of Air Fuel Ratio. *Automot Exp*. 5(3):507–27.
- [7] Negm NA, Rabie AM, Mohammed EA. (2018). Molecular interaction of heterogeneous catalyst in catalytic cracking process of vegetable oils: chromatographic and biofuel performance investigation. *Appl Catal B Environ*. 239:36–45.
- [8] Chang A, Pan J-H, Lai N-C, Tsai M-C, Mochizuki T, Toba M, et al. (2020). Efficient simultaneous esterification/transesterification of non-edible Jatropha oil for biodiesel fuel production by template-free synthesized nanoporous titanosilicates. *Catalyst Today* 356(10):56– 63.
- [9] Salmasi MZ, Kazemeini M, Sadjadi S. (2020). Transesterification of sunflower oil to biodiesel fuel utilizing a novel K2CO3/Talc catalyst: Process optimizations and kinetics investigations. *Ind Crops Prod.* 156(8):112846.
- [10] Topare NS, Patil KD. (2021). Biodiesel from waste cooking soybean oil under ultrasonication as an alternative fuel for diesel engine. *Material Today.* 43:510–3. 8
- [11] Mohadesi M, Aghel B, Gouran A, Razmehgir MH. (2022). Transesterification of waste cooking oil using Clay/CaO as a solid base catalyst. *Energy*. 242
- [12] Kumar S, Deswal V. (2022). Optimization at low temperature transesterification biodiesel production from soybean oil methanolysis via response surface methodology. *Energy Sources, Part A Recover Util Environ Eff*. 31;44(1):2284–93.
- [13] Salmasi MZ, Kazemeini M, Sadjadi S. (2020). Transesterification of sunflower oil to biodiesel fuel utilizing a novel K2CO3/Talc catalyst: Process optimizations and kinetics investigations. *Ind Crops Prod.* 156(8)
- [14] Altalhi AA, Mohamed EA, Morsy SM, Abou Kana MTH, Negm NA. (2021). Catalytic manufacture and characteristic valuation of biodiesel-biojet achieved from Jatropha curcas and waste cooking oils over chemically modified montmorillonite clay. *J Mol Liq.* 340
- [15] Đặng TH, Nguyễn XH, Chou CL, Chen BH. (2021). Preparation of cancrinite-type zeolite from diatomaceous earth as transesterification catalysts for biodiesel production. *Renew Energy*. 174:347–58.
- [16] Febiola F, Rahmayeni, Admi, Syukri. (2023). Kaolinite and Illite Based Clay Supporting Nickel: Its Synthesis, Characterization, and Catalytic Optimazion in a Lab-Scale Fatty Acid Methyl Ester Production. *Her Bauman Moscow State Tech Univ Ser Nat Sci*. 109(4):159–74.
- [17] Syukri, Islami DM, Saputra Y, Seprianti S, Wahyuni S, Ramadhani F, Arief S, et al. (2019). Natural Zeolits and Its Modifications with Protons and Copper As the Catalys**t** for Esterification of Ethanol with Acetic Acid. KnE Eng. 1(2):296.
- [18] Abukhadra MR, Mostafa M, El-Sherbeeny AM, Ahmed Soliman AT, Abd Elgawad AEE. (2020). Effective transformation of waste sunflower oil into biodiesel over novel K+ trapped clay nanotubes (K+/KNTs) as a heterogeneous catalyst; response surface studies. *Microporous Mesoporous.* 306(5)
- [19] Syukri S, Septioga K, Arief S, Putri YE, Efdi M, Septiani U. (2020). Natural Clay of Pasaman Barat Enriched by CaO of Chicken Eggshells as Catalyst for Biodiesel Production. *Bull Chem React Eng Catalyst*. 15(3):662–73.
- [20] Rahmani Vahid B, Haghighi M, Alaei S, Toghiani J. (2017). Reusability enhancement of combustion synthesized MgO/MgAl2O4 nanocatalyst in biodiesel production by glow discharge plasma treatment. *Energy Convers Manage*. 143:23–32.
- [21] Abukhadra MR, Sayed MA. (2018). K+ trapped kaolinite (Kaol/K+) as low cost and ecofriendly basic heterogeneous catalyst in the transesterification of commercial waste cooking oil into biodiesel. *Energy Convers Manag*e. 177(9):468–76.
- [22] Ali B, Yusup S, Quitain AT, Alnarabiji MS, Kamil RNM, Kida T. (2018). Synthesis of novel graphene oxide/bentonite bi-functional heterogeneous catalyst for one-pot esterification and transesterification reactions. *Energy Convers Manage*. 171:1–12.
- [23] Alqahtani MD, Nasser N, Bin Jumah MN, AlZahrani SA, Allam AA, Abukhadra MR, et al. (2023). Insight into the Morphological Properties of Nano-Kaolinite (Nanoscrolls and Nanosheets) on Its Qualification as Delivery Structure of Oxaliplatin: Loading, Release, and Kinetic Studies. *Molecules*. 28(13).
- [24] Rahayu, Nengsih, Z. W., Arief, S., Rilda, Y., Alif, M. F., & Syukri. (2024). Separation of Kaolinite from Clay Minerals and Its Catalytic Activity in Transesterification Reactions. Hydrogen Jurnal Kependidikan Kimia. 12(2), 16–25.
- [25] Abukhadra MR, Mohamed AS, El-Sherbeeny AM, Soliman ATA. (2020). Enhanced Adsorption of Toxic and Biologically Active Levofloxacin Residuals from Wastewater Using Clay Nanotubes as a Novel Fixed Bed: Column Performance and Optimization. *ACS Omega*. 5(40):195–205.
- [26] Xu H, Fan E, Liu J, Sun S, Shao G, Wang H, et al. (2019). Thermal stability and E. coli adsorption of kaolinite nanotubes. *Appl Clay Sci.* 181(100)
- [27] Abukhadra MR, Bakry BM, Adlii A, Yakout SM, El-Zaidy MA. (2019). Facile conversion of kaolinite into clay nanotubes (KNTs) of enhanced adsorption properties for toxic heavy metals (Zn2+, Cd2+, Pb2+, and Cr6+) from water. *J Hazard Mater*. 374(1):296–308.
- [28] Li X, Wang D, Liu Q, Komarneni S. (2019). A comparative study of synthetic tubular kaolinite nanoscrolls and natural halloysite nanotubes. *Appl Clay Sci.* 168 (42) : 1–7.
- [29] Li Y, Liu Q, Li J, Hou D, Zhang J, Li J. (2022). The preparation of high-yield uniform nanotubes from coal-measure kaolinite. *Appl Clay Sci.* 229(8)
- [30] Cai X, Li C, Tang Q, Zhen B, Xie X, Zhu W, et al. (2019). Assembling kaolinite nanotube at water/oil interface for enhancing Pickering emulsion stability. *Appl Clay Sci* 172(1):115–22.
- [31] Mohd Johari, S. A., Ahmad Farid, M. A., Ayoub, M., Rashidi, N. A., & Andou, Y. (2024). Optimization and kinetic studies for biodiesel production from dairy waste scum oil via microwave assisted transesterification. *Environmental Technology & Innovation. 34*