

Article

Hydrotreated Vegetable Oil as a Fuel from Waste Materials

Petr Zeman ¹, Vladimír Honig ^{1,*}, Martin Kotek ², Jan Táborský ¹, Michal Obergruber ¹, Jakub Marík ², Veronika Hartová ² and Martin Pechout ²

¹ Czech University of Life Sciences Prague, Faculty of Agrobiology, Food and Natural Resources, Department of Chemistry, Kamýcká 129, Prague 6, 169 21, Czech Republic; pzeman@af.czu.cz (P.Z.); honig@af.czu.cz (V.H.); taborský@af.czu.cz (J.T.); obergruber@af.czu.cz (M.O.)

² Czech University of Life Sciences Prague, Faculty of Engineering, Department of Vehicles and Ground Transport, Kamýcká 129, Prague 6, 169 21, Czech Republic; kotekm@oikt.czu.cz (M.K.); marikj@tf.czu.cz (J.M.); nidlova@tf.czu.cz (V.H.); pechout@tf.czu.cz (M.P.)

* Correspondence: honig@af.czu.cz; Tel.: +420 22438 2722

Abstract: Biofuels have become an integral part of everyday life in modern society. Bioethanol and fatty acid methyl esters are a common part of both the production of gasoline and diesel fuels. Also, pressure on replacing fossil fuels with bio-components is constantly growing. Waste vegetable fats can replace biodiesel. HVO seems to be a better alternative. This fuel has a higher oxidation stability for storage purposes, a lower temperature of loss of filterability for the winter time, a lower boiling point for cold starts and other. Viscosity, density, cold filter plugging point of fuel blend, and flash point were measured to confirm that a fuel from HVO is so close to a fuel standard, that it is possible to use it in engines without modification. The objective of this article is to show the properties of different fuels with and without HVO admixtures and to prove the suitability of using HVO compared to FAME. HVO can also be prepared from waste materials and no major modifications of existing refinery facilities are required. No technology in either investment or engine adaptation of fuel oils is needed in fuel processing.

Keywords: biofuel; biodiesel; hydrotreating; hydrocarbon; waste

1. Introduction

A long-term European strategy is an effort for a so-called "recycling society". With the growing volume of waste, growing industries are dealing with waste management and recycling. Despite a noticeable progress, there is still a great potential in previously underutilized sources of waste. The main obstacles are the legislative problems and the low application of approved rules, the differentiation of regulations in different countries, and generally the low awareness of the professional and lay public about new possibilities and prospects. The current EU waste policy is based on the concept of the so-called waste hierarchy, which states that it is primarily necessary to prevent the generation of waste itself, and if this is not possible, it must be recycled or otherwise exploited, under condition of minimal dump disposal. As a waste could be considered everything, which can be somehow reused, even materials like grey water, wood chips, old clothing, kitchen scraps or diseased fruit and vegetables [1–7].

Legislative requirements are higher for double-counting materials, to meet the 10% share of biofuels. This double counting applies to biofuels made from waste and residues, as well as to biofuels made from raw materials that have been grown on so-called degraded areas, and it is thus another supportive step to meet the sustainability criteria [8–10].

Sustainability criteria in the EU are determined by Directive 2009/28/ES. Among these, we include reducing GHG (Green House Gas) emissions, optimizing land use and carbon stocks, biodiversity, environmental requirements for crop production, etc. To achieve 10% CO₂ savings between 2010 and 2020, a minimum biofuel share of 15% must be reached.

Hydrotreated vegetable oils are one of the possibilities to use the increased biofuel content in diesel fuel. This would allow another option to meet the CO₂ reduction target for the year 2020. At the same time, it will be necessary to include these advanced biofuels into legislation, and to establish clear rules for their use. In addition to these changes, changes in the composition of diesel fuel can also be expected in the future. This concerns mainly the requirements for increasing the cetane number and cetane index, adjusting the course of the distillation curve (reduction of temperature by 95% of the pre-distilled volume), further reducing the content of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon and, introducing a limit for aromatics similar to automotive gasoline and tightening requirements for lubrication and mechanical impurities for fuels for diesel engines. Introducing changes that have a positive effect on reducing harmful emissions and particulate matter pollution will entail an increase in production costs and therefore the speed of their deployment will depend on the economic situation and legislative changes adopted within the EU [11–13]. Biofuels are, compared to the fossil fuels, renewable. As far as their technological development is concerned, the issue of biofuels is only at an early stage. The most commonly declared "first generation" of biofuels is bioethanol produced from starch and sugar, biodiesel produced from vegetable oils (rape, soy, etc.) and animal fats without chemical treatment, or produced due to the transesterification process to fatty acid methyl esters (FAME – rapeseed oil) or similar non-edible feedstocks like soursop seed oil [14,15]. These are sophisticated technologies, and above all, commercially available [16–18].

Figure 1 shows a simplified difference between the production of hydrotreated oils and fatty acid methyl esters (FAME).

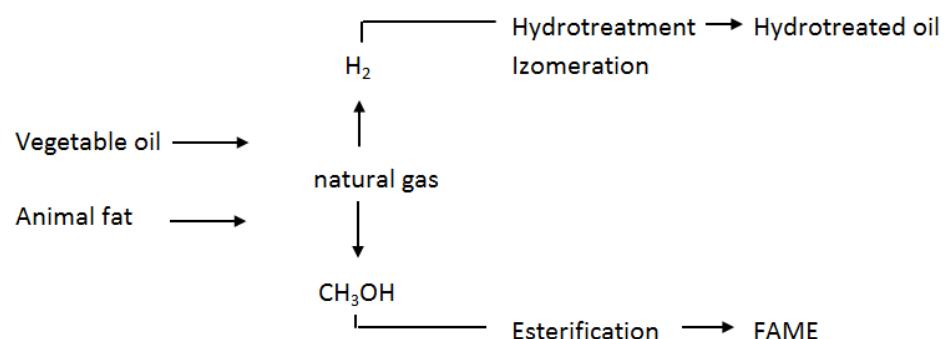


Figure 1. Simplified scheme for the production of hydrotreated oils and fatty acid methyl esters.

The production of hydrotreated vegetable oils is based on introducing hydrogen molecules into the raw fat or oil molecule. This process is associated with the reduction of the carbon compound. When hydrogen is used to react with triglycerides, different types of reactions can occur, and different resultant products are combined.

The original oil obtained by hydrotreatment gets higher oxidation stability, which is desirable for frying oils. Partial fat stiffening is used for raw margarine production. For fuel purposes, such final product is not suitable. In hydrotreated fuels, therefore, partial hydrotreatment is mostly omitted and overall hydrotreatment continues, often with free fatty acids (Figure 2).

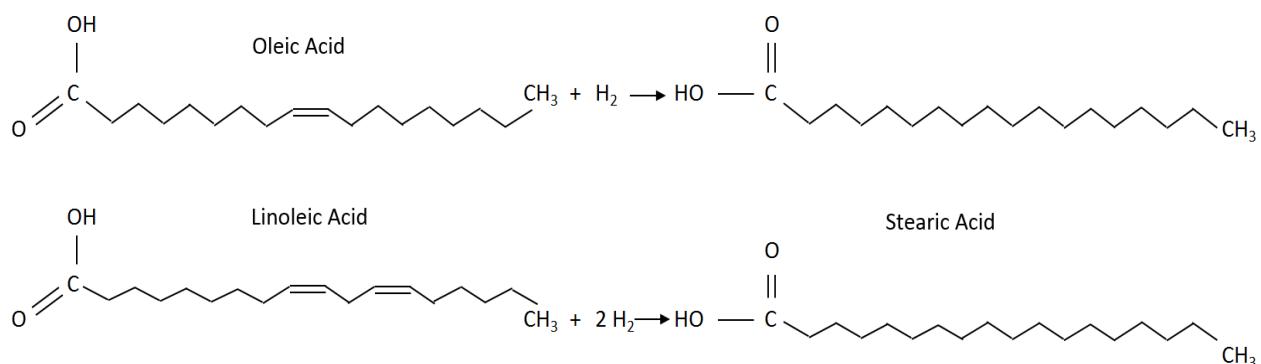


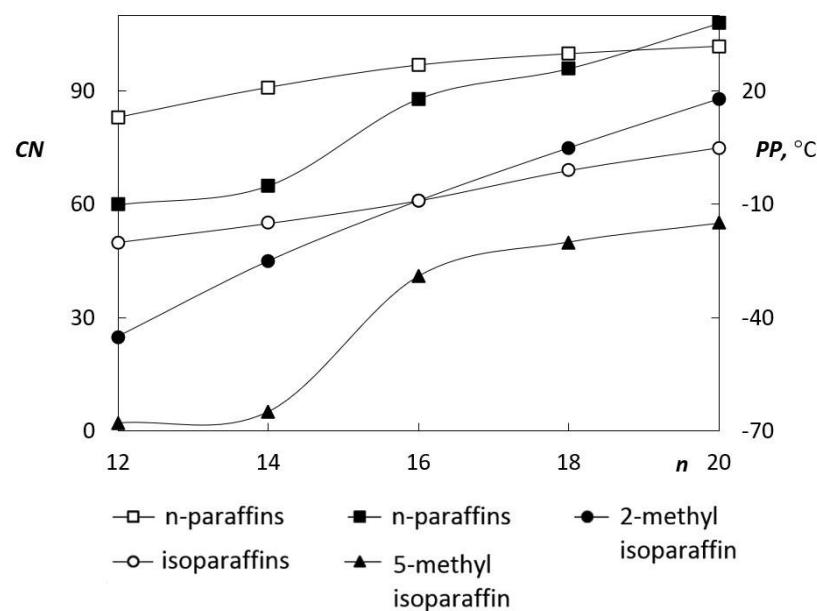
Figure 2. Hydrotreatment of fatty acids.

Another method of converting triglycerides by hydrogen is the cleavage of the ester to hydrocarbon and glycerol-derived propane and free fatty acids. These fatty acids (n is the number of carbons) are either:

1. by hydro deoxygenation reduced to hydrocarbons (n) and water,
2. subject to decarboxylation, i.e. carbon dioxide CO_2 is cleaved to give $n-1$ hydrocarbons
3. or decarboxylation is carried out by removing the carbon monoxide (CO) and water molecule to produce an $n-1$ hydrocarbon.

For the reaction of hydrogen with vegetable oils and vacuum gas oil were used the same catalysts and the same types of reactors and equipment, as for the oil processing [22,23]. In recent decades, efforts have been made to find the best catalysts, to optimize hydrogen reaction processes and to find suitable sources of vegetable oil or fats. Lack of resource availability and high hydrogen consumption are increasing production costs, but these shortcomings are being gradually managed commercially [24].

Key process for obtaining hydrocarbons is the hydroisomerisation. This is a radical reaction where branching of hydrocarbon molecules is achieved by the use of form-selective catalysts, such as zeolites or other acid catalysts. n -paraffins having a boiling point corresponding to diesel fuel generally have a higher cetane number than their branched isomers. In contrast, isoparaffins have lower solidification points than n -paraffins. Therefore, there is a compromise on the quality of the paraffin-rich fuel, the fuel has either good combustion properties, or good low-temperature properties. The result of hydroisomerization is therefore a fuel with a lower solidification point and a lower cetane number. The relationship of these two properties is illustrated in Figure 3 [26].

**Figure 3.** Cetane number and paraffin solidification points depending on carbon number

Hydrotreated oils are characterized by very good low temperature properties. The cloud point also occurs below -40 °C. Therefore, these fuels are suitable for the preparation of premium fuel with a high cetane number and excellent low temperature properties. The Cold Filter Plugging Point (CFPP) virtually corresponds to the cloud point value, which is why the value of the cloud point is significant in the case of hydrotreated oils.

The production process of hydrotreated oils can also produce fuel with appropriate low temperature properties, also from palm oils and other oils, including animal fats, whose methyl esters have a very poor applicability at lower temperatures [31]. This results in the use of hydrotreated oils

throughout the year, without risking loss of serviceability or fuel logistics problems. Hydrotreated vegetable oils thus find their potential usability as aviation fuels. The production process of hydrotreated oils can also produce fuel with appropriate low temperature properties also from palm oils and other oils including animal fats whose methyl esters have a very poor applicability at lower temperatures. This results in the use of hydrotreated oils throughout the year, without risking loss of serviceability or fuel logistics problems. Hydrotreated vegetable oils thus find their potential usability as aviation fuels.

Hydrotreated vegetable oils meet EN 15940: 2014 for paraffinic diesel fuels from synthesis or hydrotreatment, formerly TS 15940: 2012 for paraffinic diesel fuels [32]. This specification also applies to Fischer-Tropsch synthesis products: GTL, BTL and CTL. Specification TS 15940: 2012 was preceded by CWA 15940: 2009 CEN Workshop Agreement, which was created in cooperation between car and fuel manufacturers. HVO is usually supplied without FAME, however, it is allowed to add up to 7% (V/V) according to EN 15940 specification, which the earlier CWA 15940 did not allow. EN 14214 for FAME for HVO does not apply, as HVO is composed only of hydrocarbons. However, HVO meets the requirements of EN 590 for diesel fuel, except for the density below the lower limit of this standard [33]. This also applies to the US ASTM D975 [34]. Table 1 shows differences between these standards.

Table 1. Requirements of EN 15940, EN 590 and ASTM D975 [35].

Parameter	EN 15940	EN 590:2013	ASTM D975
Cetane number	≥ 70.0	≥ 51.0	≥ 40
Density at 15 °C (kg.m ⁻³)	765–800	820–845	
Viscosity at 40 °C (mm ² .s ⁻¹)	2.00–4.50	2.00–4.50	1.9–4.1
Hydrocarbons (% m/m)			≤ 35
polyaromatic	-	≤ 8	-
aromatic	≤ 1.0	-	-
olefin	≤ 0.1	-	-
Sulfur content (mg.kg ⁻¹)	≤ 5.0	≤ 10.0	≤ 15
Flash point (°C)	> 55	> 55	> 52
Lubricity HFRR at 60 °C (μm)	≤ 460*	≤ 460	≤ 520
95% by volume distils at (°C)	< 360	< 360	282–338
CFPP (°C)	≥ -34	≥ -34	-
Ash content (% m/m)	≤ 0.01	≤ 0.01	≤ 0.01
Total impurity content (mg.kg ⁻¹)	≤ 24	≤ 24	-

* Including lubricating additives for use in vehicles approved for driving on the fuel according to the standard.

2. Materials and methods

The sample of tested hydrotreated vegetable oil was received from the Neste Oil Company (Finland). Simultaneously, diesel fuel free of fatty acid methyl esters compliant to EN 590 and a FAME mixture compliant to EN 14 214 were used for laboratory test.

The following tests of blends were made:

1. Density at 15 °C according to EN ISO 3675
2. Kinematic viscosity at 40 °C according to EN ISO 3104
3. Cold filter plugging point (CFPP) according to EN 116
4. Flash point according to EN 2719
5. Oxidation stability of vegetable oil according to EN 15 751
6. Cetane number according to EN ISO 5165
7. Lubricity according to EN 12156-1 (HVO lubrication 460–650 μm)
8. Calorific value according to ISO 1928 on IKA C200 Calorimeter
9. Gas Chromatography – Flame Ionization Detector GC-FID

Following samples and their mixtures were analyzed:

1. 100% FAME
2. 100% HVO (from Neste Oil Company)
3. 100% Diesel Fuel (without any FAME)

For the GC measurements, the samples were diluted 1/50 (20 μ l sample + 980 μ l hexane).

Analytical Standards:

1. Mixed standard: n-alkanes C10 to C30 in hexane
2. Mixed standard: Supelco 37 Components FAME Mix

For sample analysis, an Agilent Technologies 7890A gas chromatograph equipped with an autosampler, a capillary quartz column SPB-2560 and a flame ionization detector (FID) was used. The basic instrument parameters and GC analysis conditions are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Device parameters and GC analysis conditions

Device	Type and settings
Gas Chromatograph	Agilent Technologies 7890A
Autosampler	G4513A (16 positions) with a syringe Agilent Gold Standard 10 μ l
Analytical column	SPB-2560, 100 m x 0.25 mm i.d., film thickness 0.2 μ m
Temperature program	140 $^{\circ}$ C (5 min), increase 4 $^{\circ}$ C.min $^{-1}$, 245 $^{\circ}$ C (20min) \rightarrow 51.25 min
Carrier gas	Helium 5.6, const. inlet pressure 50 psi (flow rate 1.58 ml.min $^{-1}$ at 140 $^{\circ}$ C)
Injection chamber	Temperature 280 $^{\circ}$ C, injection volume 1 μ l, split ratio 1 : 100
Detector	Temperature 280 $^{\circ}$ C, gas flow: hydrogen (6.0) 30 ml.min $^{-1}$, air (5.0) 400 ml.min $^{-1}$, makeup = nitrogen (6.0) 25 ml.min $^{-1}$
Data collection software	Agilent ChemStation (Revision B.04.02 SP1)

Lubrication was measured on a PCS instrument: HFRR (High Frequency Reciprocating Rig). The PCS instrument uses an electromagnetically vibrating moving body with low amplitude, while simultaneously compressing it against a solid body. The instrument measures the frictional forces between the bodies and the electrical contact resistance between them. Settings in is Table 3.

Table 3. Technical parameters PCS: HFRR

Parameter	Value
Frequency	10-200 Hz
Shift	20 μ m - 2 mm
Load	0.1 - 1 kg with supplied weights
Maximum frictional force	by amplitude, max 10 N
Temperature	From room temperature to 150 $^{\circ}$ C
Standard upper test body	Ball \varnothing 6 mm
Standard lower test body	Disk \varnothing 10 mm and thickness 3 mm
Power supply	100-230 V
Heating	Two heating cartridges 24 kW, 15 kW

3. Results

The density of the hydrotreated vegetable oil (about 780 kg.m $^{-3}$) is lower than the density of fossil diesel (800 to 845 kg.m $^{-3}$) because of their paraffinic character, and also a lower temperature distillation end. The density of the fuel has traditionally been an important factor in terms of volume of fuel consumption and maximum performance, and we can say that the reduction in volume calorific value is only a function of density. At a lower calorific value, the engine gets less energy and needs more fuel to ensure the same power output at a partial load.

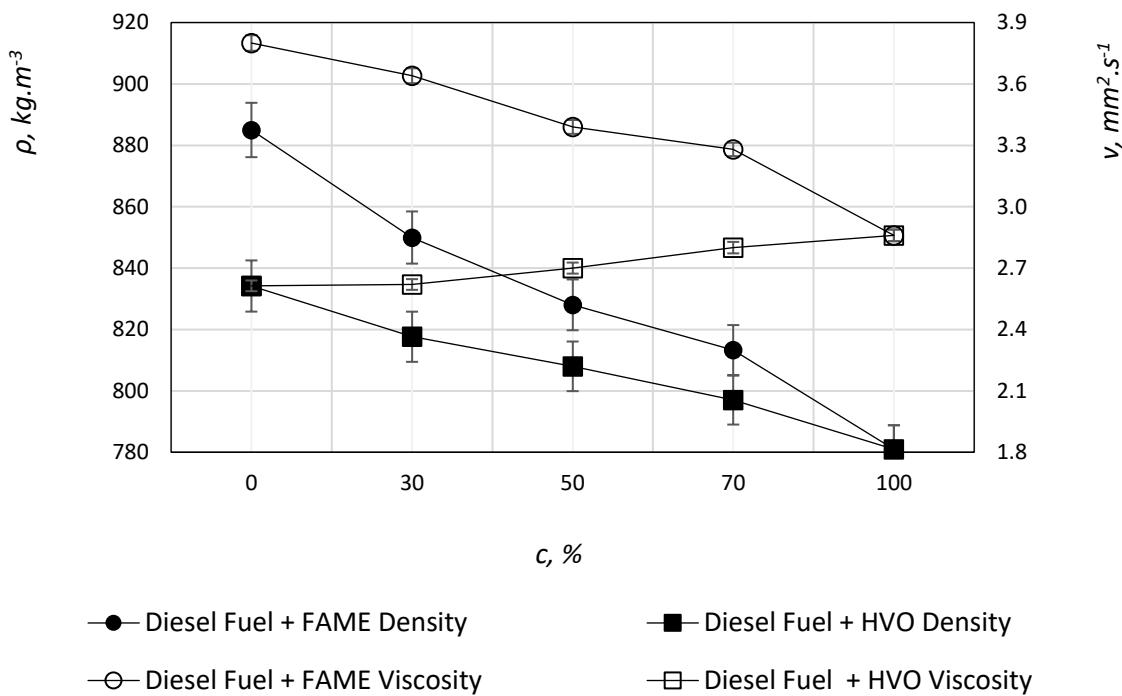


Figure 4. Density and kinematic viscosity of diesel fuel and FAME with HVO.

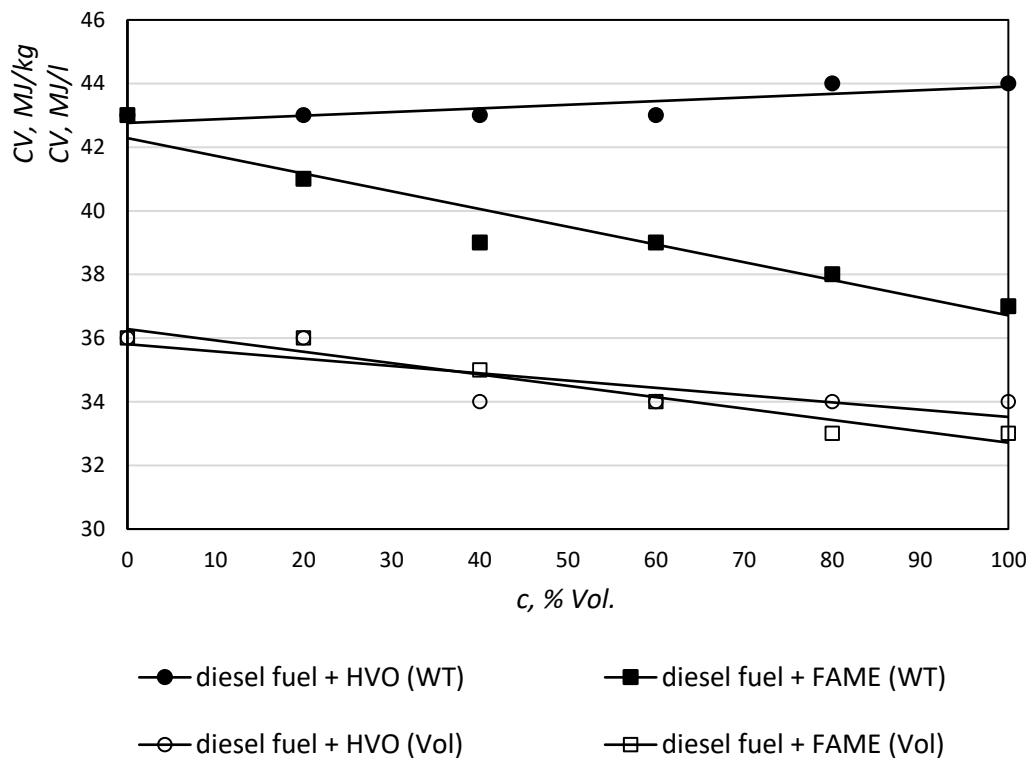


Figure 5. Calorific value of mixed fuels

In the case of hydrotreated oils, the effect is different, as the calorific value compensates the lower density effect (Figures 4 and 5). Higher calorific value of the hydrotreated oils is based on the fact that the amount of hydrogen in the hydrotreated oils is about 15.2% (m/m), as opposed to 13.5% (m/m) in standard diesel.

Figure 4 shows that the density with increasing HVO concentration in the mixture is expected to decrease. This is due to the lower permissible water content and paraffinic character with a higher hydrogen content than diesel, which results in a higher energy content per kg. Mixture of diesel fuel with HVO > 30% (V/V) HVO in the mixture exceeds the EN 590 (Table 1) limit for diesel (820–845 kg.m⁻³). High proportion mixtures did not meet the standard limits. On the contrary, low density offers the possibility of blending HVO into diesel fuels with higher contents of heavier fractions, or their incorporation into less profitable products, such as fuel oil. Conversely, standardized kinematic viscosity limits meet all HVO mixtures.

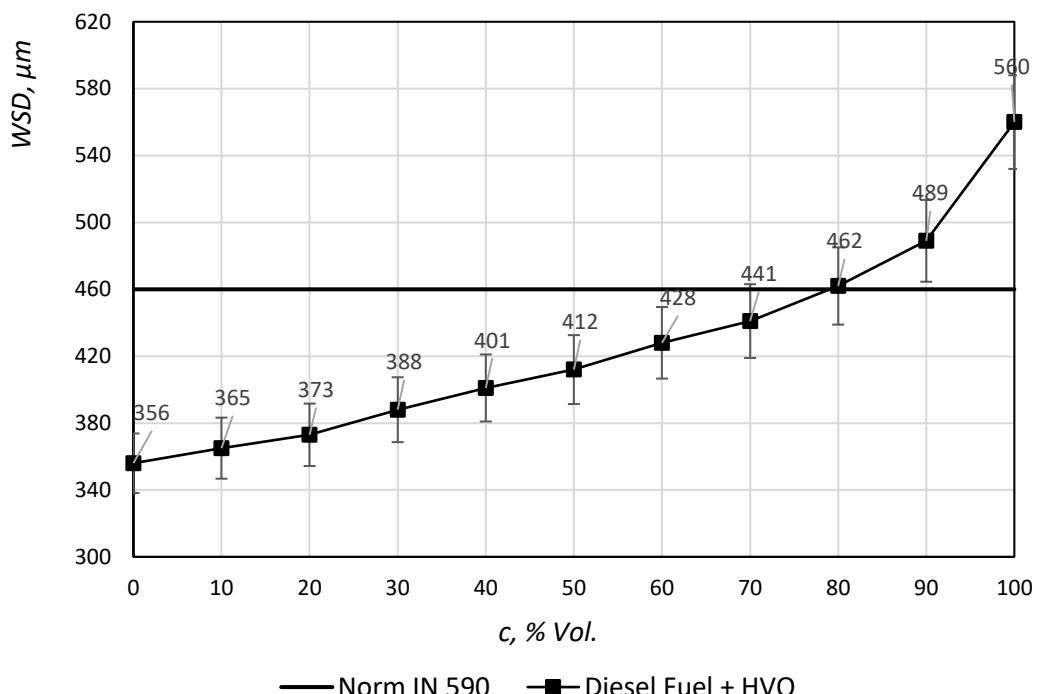


Figure 6. Lubrication of diesel with addition of HVO

On y-axis is lubricity (WSD – Wear Scar Diameter) in μm . HVO has very low lubricity, therefore up to 80% of volume must be added as maximum. Once the concentration reaches 80% and more, the mixture of the fuel does not match the EN standard – see Figure 6. It will lead to seizure of the fuel part of the machine.

An aromatic-free hydrocarbon composition results in a lower lubricity of the fuel. Lubrication of hydrotreated oils corresponds to sulfur-free winter grade diesel or GTL. It is essential that lubricant additives are added to these fuels to meet the requirements of EN 12156-1 (HFRR High Frequency Reciprocating Rig, corrected abrasion area diameter at 60°C < 460mm). It is possible to apply commonly used lubricants for diesel with similar dosage. When using this fuel at higher concentrations, it is assumed that a further test for lubrication verification will be added.

The hydrotreated oil can also be supplied with lubricating additives for use in pure form, or as an additive. It is, however, common to supply for example HVO without these additives, if the fuel is designated as a component of the mixture. The lubricity of the resulting fuel must then be controlled and must be increased, to cover the HVO in the mixture. From the point of view of lubricity, this is the only parameter where FAME is better and in itself can replace the additive in all hydrocarbon fuels. The lubricating ability can be improved by adding the appropriate additive or a small addition of FAME content. The expanded uncertainty of the result is $\pm 5\%$.

Also, the distillation curve is different from diesel fuel and FAME. Distillation properties show how the fuel evaporates when injected into the combustion chamber of the diesel engine. Low boilers are important for the engine's start-up, and the fraction of heavier boiling points at higher temperatures can cause problems in fuel being incompletely burned and increasing the proportion

of harmful emissions in the engine exhaust. Standard diesel fuel has a boiling range of approximately 180°C to 360°C.

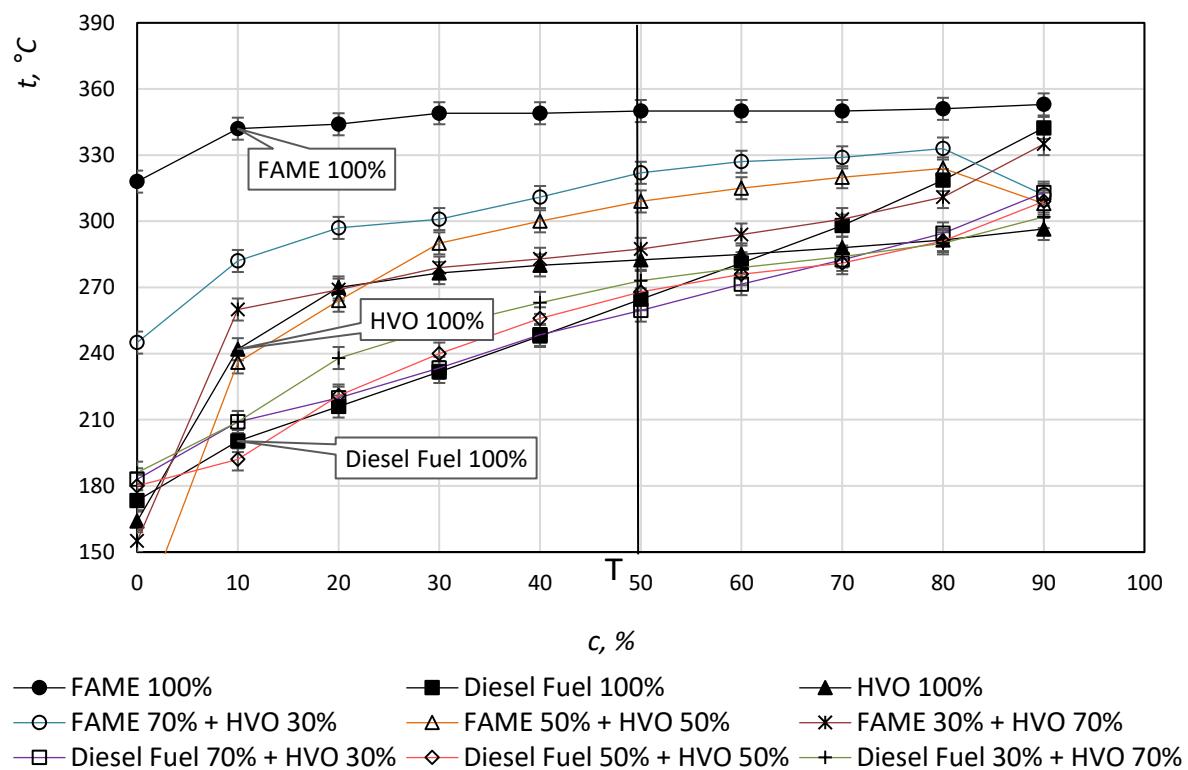


Figure 7. Distillation curves of FAME, diesel fuel, HVO and their mixtures.

Determination of the distillation curve by means of a distillation test is a test that must always be carried out when assessing the quality of the fuel. The distillation curve expresses the volume percentage of the fuel that is distilled to a certain distillation temperature. T50 is the temperature at which 50% of the fuel is distilled. At this point the amount of air is bound for perfect combustion. For HVO and diesel, there is no need to worry about combustion air as the temperature in T50 has not increased significantly, the value is shown in the picture.

It is clear from Figure 7 that HVO does not affect the beginning of oil distillation. The presence of "light components" is not compromised, so that the moving parts of the fuel system cannot be damaged, as the result is a degradation in fuel lubricity. The addition of HVO results in a flattening of the distillation curve. Distillation indicates a lower proportion of high boiling heavy fractional fractions, thereby reducing carbonization shares and reducing exhaust emissions. Higher concentrations of HVO can be expected to affect engine performance.

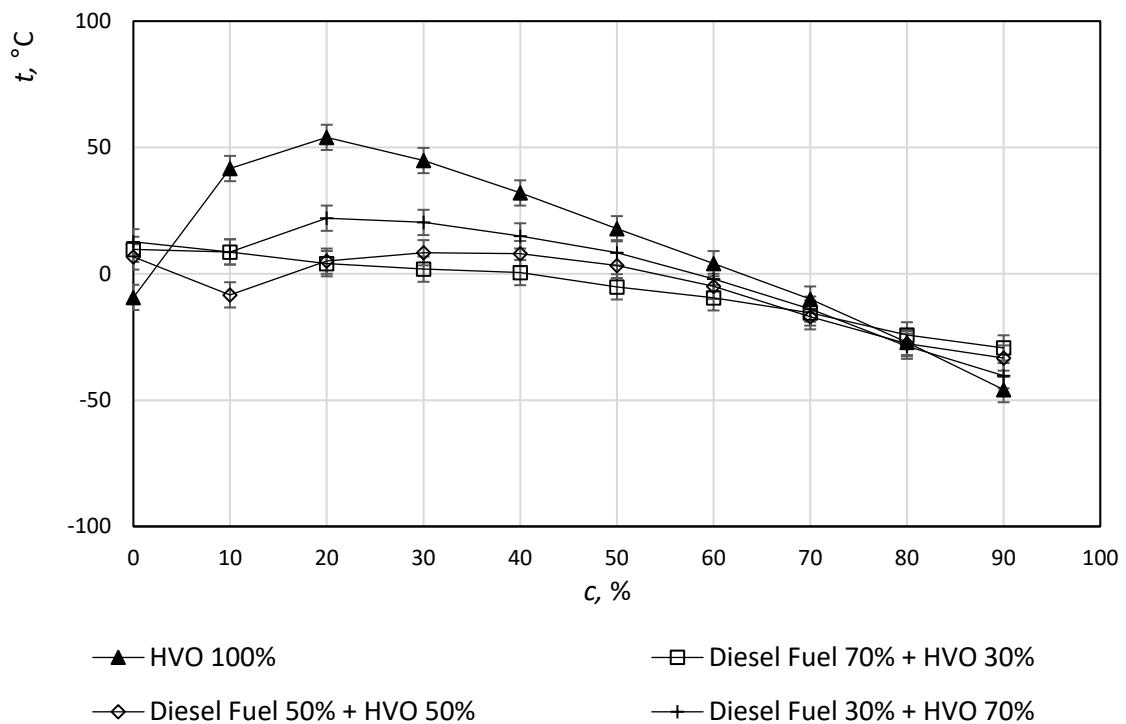


Figure 8. Changes in the mixed fuel distillation curve as compared to pure mineral diesel on the x-axis

Figure 8 shows the difference of values due to the HVO admixtures. The addition of HVO to diesel fuel positively affects the loss of filterability (CFPP – Cold Filter Plugging Point). Standard CSN EN 590 sets the temperature -20°C as the maximum value for F-class winter diesel, 14 is marked with a thick horizontal line.

The cloud point (CP = TVP – the paraffin removal temperature) is the temperature at which paraffins are first starting to be excluded from fuel, but it is not a mandatory indicator.

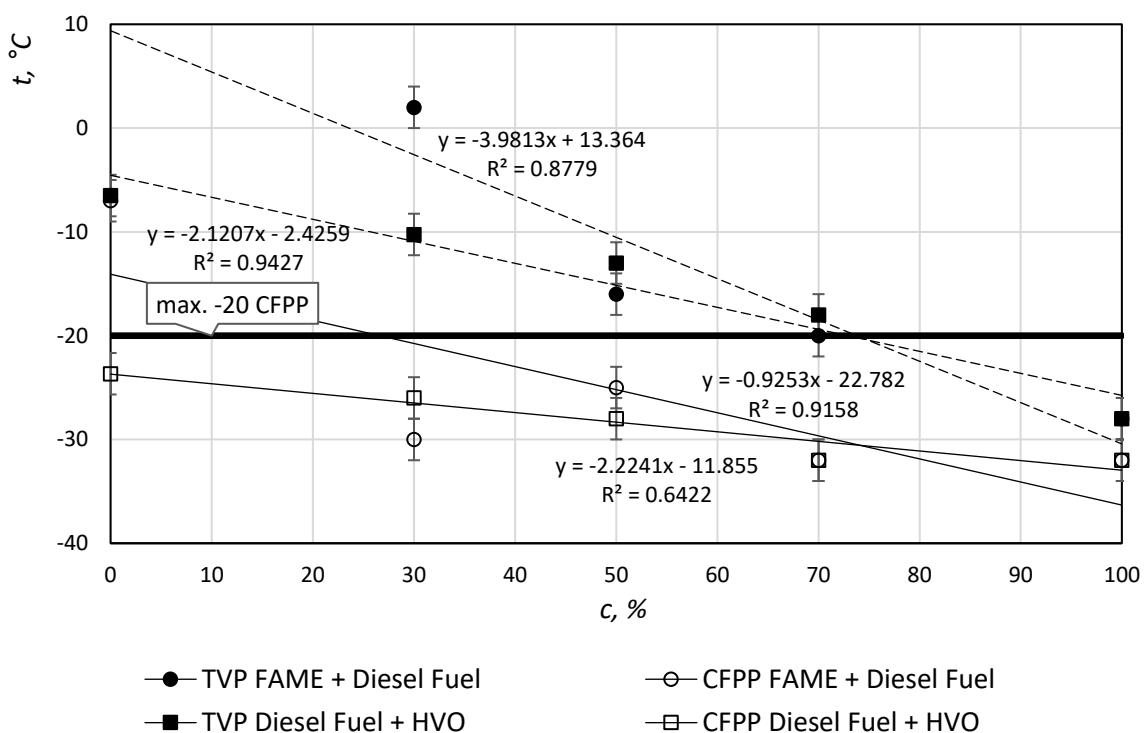


Figure 9. CFPP and TVP (= CP) of mineral diesel fuel and FAME with HVO

Figure 9 illustrates the decrease of temperature with increasing addition of HVO. In the case of 100 % HVO, the CP value is practically the same as the CFPP value. HVO addition to diesel fuel favors low temperature properties, which are even in case of a mixture HVO 30 6 degrees below the winter diesel fuel EN Class F. ČSN EN 590 also sets the CFPP for arctic climate (for 1st class to -26°C, for 2nd class it is -32°C), both of which exceed Diesel + HVO 70-100.

At temperatures above the cloud point, the hydrotreated oil is colorless, clear as water. It has no characteristic aroma typical of other fuels. It does not contain any visible dirt at temperatures above the cloud point. The cloud point causes the creation of scum characteristic for diesel.

The flash point is the lowest temperature at which the flammable substance produces so many flammable vapors at atmospheric pressure that they blend briefly with the air in a short-term approach to a precisely defined open fog, but do not continue to burn.

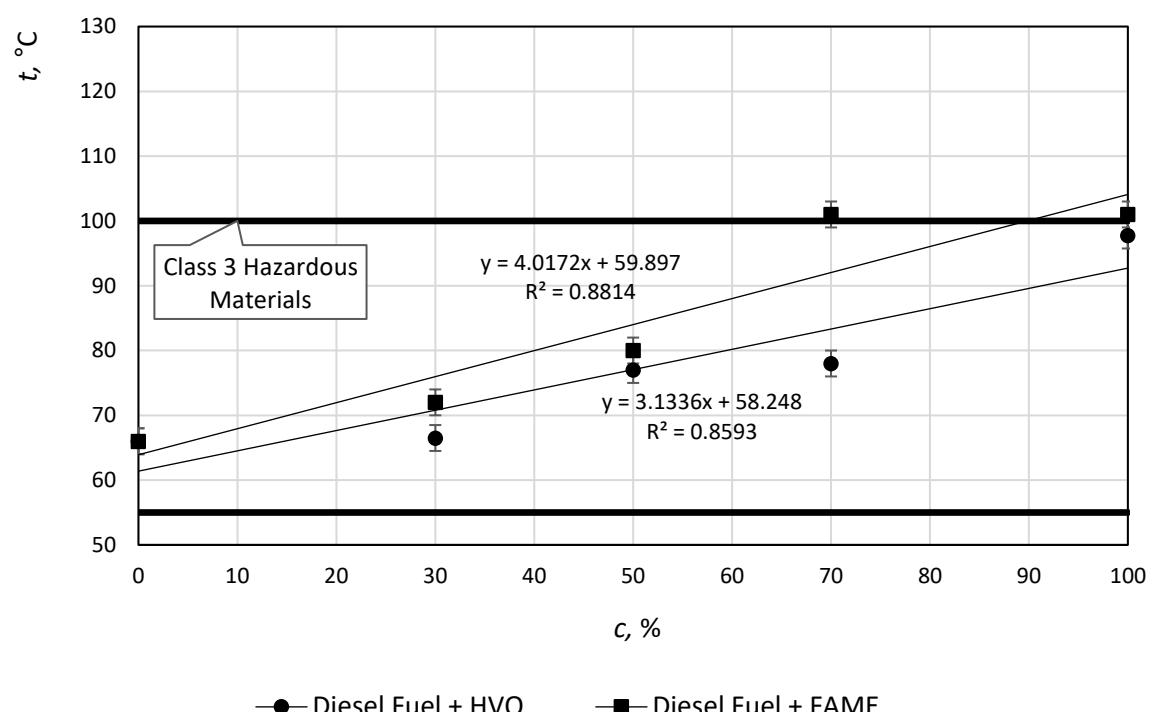
**Figure 10.** Flash points of diesel fuel with HVO and FAME

Figure 10 shows the temperature increase of the flashpoint with increasing HVO content. The temperature range III of hazard class, in which the measured temperatures of all HVO mixtures are located, is defined here. However, in the case of a flashpoint value, these values do not affect the work of the diesel engine.

The cetane number indicates the reactivity of diesel fuel in terms of its diesel characteristics. The higher the fuel gets, the better it is, the higher the cetane number is, the more regular and better is its combustion, as well as the engine running and noise. Because of the relative difficulty of the cetane number test, the cetane index, which can be determined based on the calculation from the results of the laboratory density and distillation tests, has been introduced as a characteristic of ignition capability. According to ČSN EN 590, the cetane number is at least 51 units, the cetane index is 46 units.

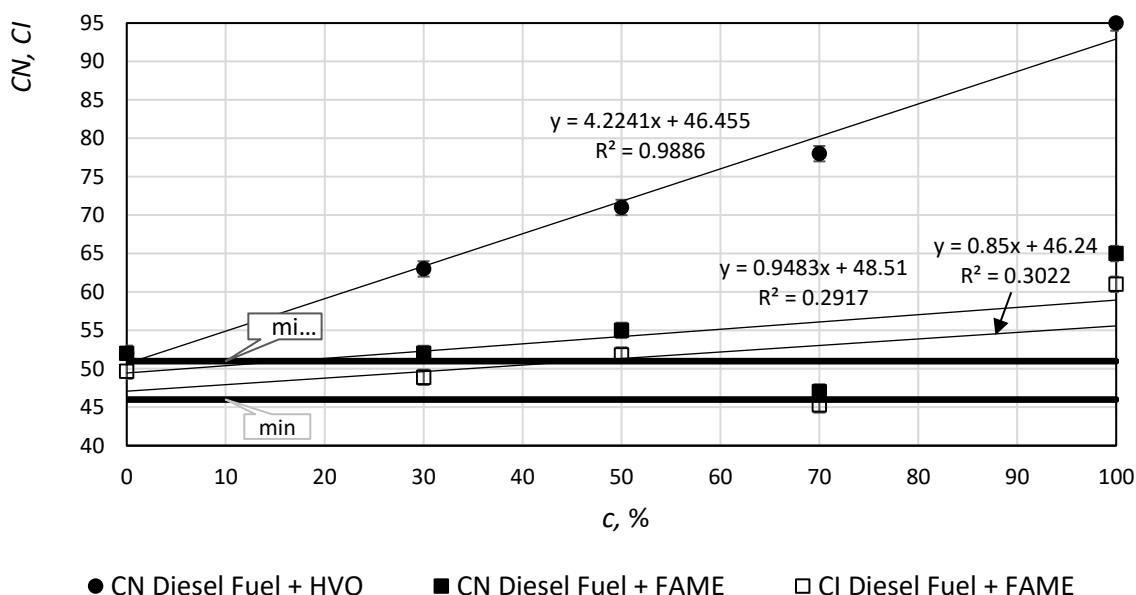


Figure 11. Cetane numbers and diesel engine indexes with HVO and FAME

Figure 11 shows the increasing trend lines of cetane number and cetane index with increasing HVO content. The cetane number of hydrotreated vegetable oils ranges from 75 to 95 units due to the composition (n-paraffins and isoparaffins). In mixed fuels, there is a linear increase in the cetane number, corresponding to the proportion of components. Hydrotreated oil is a suitable additive for increasing cetane number due to the nature of the fuel, where its effect is more effective than the use of conventional additives. For measuring the cetane number on the test engine, the hydrotreated oil must be mixed with a fuel with a known and low cetane number, such that the cetane number of the resulting mixture is below 70 units within the measuring range. Then the cetane number of the hydrotreated vegetable oil is determined by linear extrapolation. The calculation of the cetane index is for standard diesel and its use in hydrotreated oils is not appropriate.

The limit value for the cetane number according to ČSN EN 590 is highlighted in the graph with a horizontal line, for the cetane index, 46 is also highlighted by the horizontal line. The extrapolated cetane number is high because of the very high content of n- and isoparaffins in HVO, the value of the HVO 30 mixture already means a much higher cetane number than min. value in ČSN EN 590.

In the measurement in this work were compared mineral diesel oil without bio-component, 100% pure HVO and the concentration of their mixtures prepared in ratios based on the possibility of comparison of the results of own measurements with the results of measurements already published in the literature. The individual measurement procedures were performed according to applicable valid standards and were repeated three times to avoid any measurement error. The density measurement results of mixtures with increasing HVO concentration had an expected decreasing trend, which should have a negative effect on the calorific value (energy content per kg). According to the HVO manual, this drop is due to the lower permitted water content and the pure paraffinic character of HVO fuel, which mineral diesel does not have, but due to its higher hydrogen content, HVO has a higher calorific value at lower density.

Since hydrotreated oil consists only of hydrocarbons, traditional methods for fossil diesel, but not FAME, are also suitable for determining fuel stability. This applies especially to methods "Rancimat" according to ČSN EN 15751, which is intended for the pure diesel fuel and FAME containing 2-7 % (V/V) of FAME. This method is not suitable for a pure hydrotreated oil, not even as an additive in diesel fuel. The stability of hydrotreated oils is at the standard level of diesel fuel and there should be no risks except for long-term vehicle shutdown or storage.

The sulfur content of the hydrotreated oil is based on the production process and it is < 1 mg.kg⁻¹. As the standard oil logistics system is used for hydrotreated oil, the sulfur content due to

contamination may be higher, and then the normalized value is $\leq 5.0 \text{ mg.kg}^{-1}$. Addition of hydrotreated oils can also positively reduce the sulfur content, for example in diesel, where the value exceeds the relevant standard ČSN EN 590.

The ash content in hydrotreated oils is very low (<0.001%). Also, the content of P, Ca and Mg is well below the detection limits of analytical methods (<1 mg.kg⁻¹).

Hydrotreated oil is, like fossil hydrocarbons, nonpolar, while water is polar. Water solubility is thus similar to traditional diesel fuel, or even lower. Therefore, the issue of water requires no further action in the field of logistics as well as for diesel.

The issue of microbial growth is primarily about FAME, which also promotes microbial growth in diesel fuel blends. FAME is biodegradable and tends to increase the water content of diesel fuel. Unlike FAME, the presence of hydrotreated oil mixed with diesel fuel does not require any further action. However, monitoring of the quality indicator is useful because the microbes can proliferate even in the pure fossil fuel during long term storage in the presence of free water. Higher temperatures, especially in the summer, can increase microbial growth, mainly if mineral salts are present in the water phase. At lower temperatures, growth of microorganisms slows down.

The hydrocarbon composition of HVO corresponds approximately to the hydrocarbons of which diesel fuel is composed. HVO has its composition closer to diesel oil than to FAME mixture, which is an advantage for the use of HVO as a substitute for FAME.

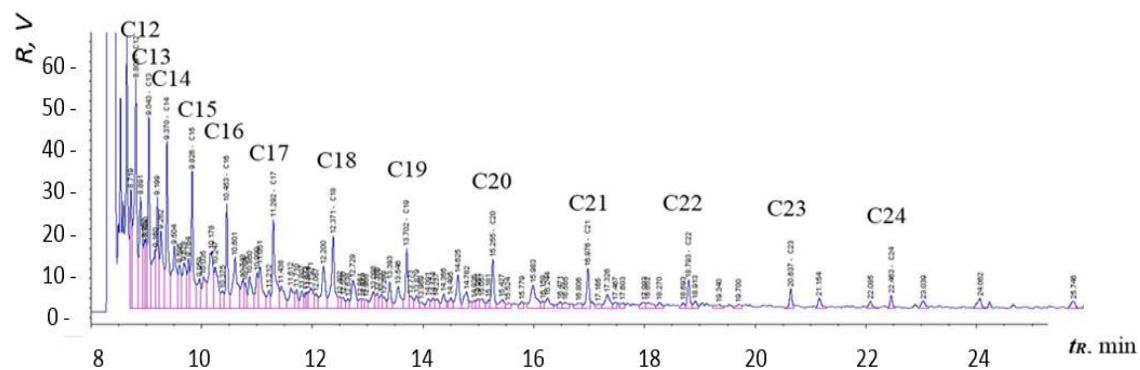


Figure 12. Chromatogram of 100% diesel fuel with identified (labeled) n-alkanes

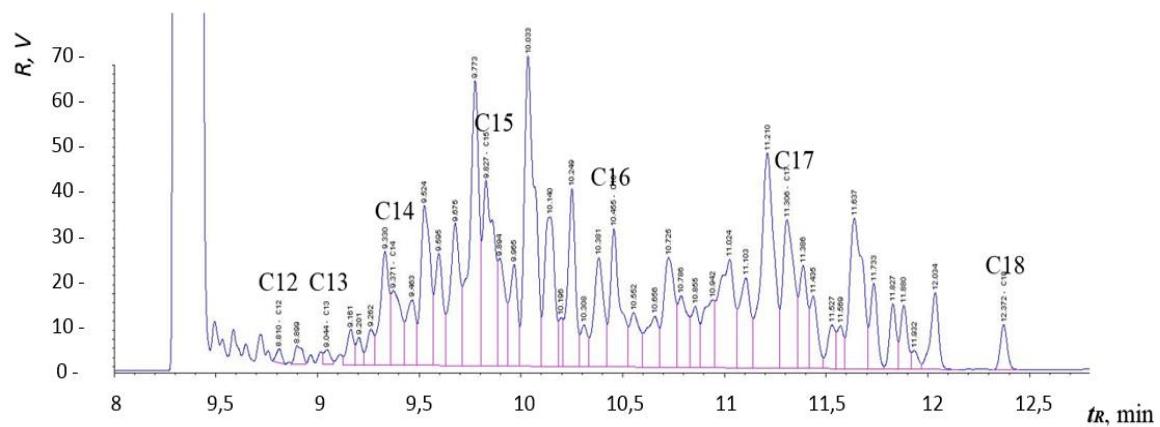


Figure 13. Chromatogram of 100% HVO with identified (labeled) n-alkanes

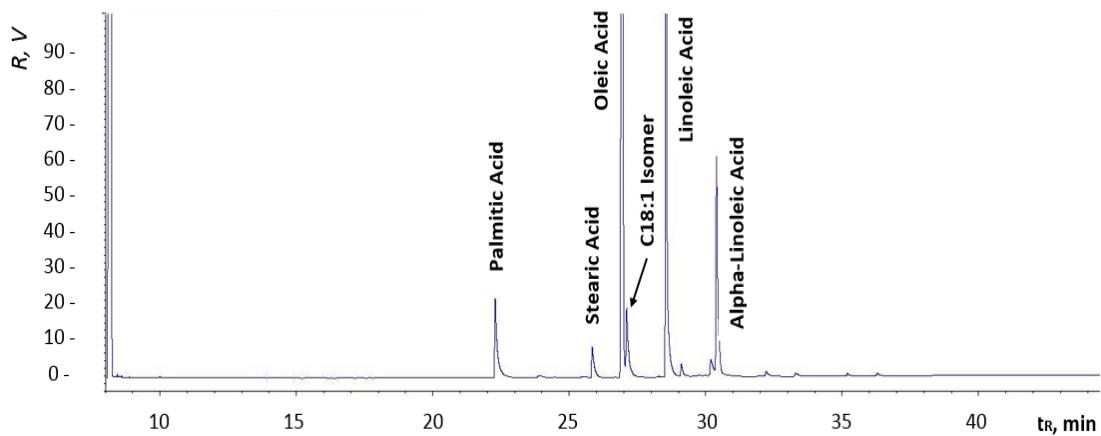


Figure 14. Chromatogram of 100% FAME with identified main components (methyl esters)

R is detector response in Volts; t_R is retention time in minutes. Figures 12 – 14 are chromatograms of fuel samples (Diesel Fuel, HVO and FAME). In Figure 12, we can see the composition of analyzed diesel fuel with labeled n-alkanes, which represent major constituents of the sample. Similarly, Figure 13 shows the composition of hydrocarbon compounds in HVO. Chromatogram in Figure 14 allowed us to specify the presence of major components (methyl esters) in FAME, the peaks are well separated. All components labeled in chromatograms were identified according to retention times of analytical standards, which are specified in the section Materials and methods.

Chromatographic results amongst individual samples may vary, depending on the refinery they come from. Generally, the final composition of the fuel depends on the season, the country of the origin, the class of fuel and others.

The statistical analysis was then conducted to obtain general equation of density and viscosity for independent variable concentration. Analysis was done for mixture of diesel and HVO and mixture of FAME and HVO. For the needs of the article, statistical tool R and the built-in library lm() were used.

As a first analysis, a linear regression analysis was calculated to predict density of diesel and HVO mixture based on concentration. A significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 3) = 1411$, $p < 0.01$, $N = 20$), with R^2 of 0.9972. The model predicted density in form of equation (1). Assumptions of linear regression were verified by gvlma library. All assumptions were accepted: Global Stats ($p = 0.5704$), Heteroscedasticity ($p = 0.9905$), Skewness ($p = 0.2229$), Kurtosis ($p = 0.9911$) and Link Function ($p = 0.2302$).

$$\rho = 0.52147c + 780.97672 \quad (1)$$

Complementary linear regression was calculated to predict viscosity of diesel and HVO mixture based on concentration. A significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 3) = 49.97$, $p < 0.01$, $N = 20$), with R^2 of 0.9245. The model predicted viscosity in form of equation (2). All assumptions were accepted: Global Stats ($p = 0.5884$), Heteroscedasticity ($p = 0.8937$), Skewness ($p = 0.7208$), Kurtosis ($p = 0.4098$) and Link Function ($p = 0.1579$).

$$\nu = -0.003875c + 2.89085 \quad (2)$$

As a second analysis, a linear regression analysis was calculated to predict density of FAME and HVO mixture based on concentration. A significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 3) = 94.09$, $p < 0.01$, $N = 20$), with R^2 of 0.9588. The model predicted density in form of equation (3). Assumptions of linear regression were verified by gvlma library. All assumptions were accepted: Global Stats ($p = 0.5035$), Heteroscedasticity ($p = 0.8260$), Skewness ($p = 0.4299$), Kurtosis ($p = 0.1330$) and Link Function ($p = 0.5241$).

$$\rho = 0.7478c + 785.6795 \quad (3)$$

Complementary linear regression was calculated to predict viscosity of FAME and HVO mixture based on concentration. A significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 3) = 88.94$, $p < 0.01$, $N = 20$), with R^2 of 0.9674. The model predicted viscosity in form of equation (4). All assumptions were accepted: Global Stats ($p = 0.8565$), Heteroscedasticity ($p = 0.6979$), Skewness ($p = 0.5792$), Kurtosis ($p = 0.4987$) and Link Function ($p = 0.5205$).

$$v = 0.011987c + 2.887347 \quad (4)$$

4. Discussion

The experiment shows that the hydrotreatment process is an alternative to the production of biofuels for the esterification process to eliminate the undesirable effects, as described in [16] and [19]. These include in particular increased NO_x content, emissions, fuel storage problems, engine oil wear, and so on. HVO are also characterized by high cetane numbers, as confirmed by the measured results [16]. The characteristics for diesel compared to HVO were practically the same, as illustrated by Sugiyama article [17]. Experiments and proven measurements show that HVO impurities have a positive effect on the characteristics of diesel engines.

Characteristics to be monitored include, above all, the lubricity to provide the lubricating ability of the moving parts of the fuel system and the cetane number. The graphs show, in accordance with [19], that the recommended HVO impurities will be around 50% in order to be consistent with the diesel fuel characteristics.

According to the article [36], low density and low sulfur content has an effect on lower lubricity, which can be improved by the application of conventional lubricating additives as is the case with today's low-grade mineral diesel fuel. The kinematic viscosity of all HVO mixtures meets the standard parameters. The distillation curve determines that by addition of HVO to mineral diesel fuel, its process is flattened. Which, according to article [37], has a positive effect on the reduction of carbonation deposits and exhaust emissions. The HVO Manual [35] indicates CFPP up to -40°C . This value has not been confirmed by its own measurement. The lowest measured CFPP was -36°C in 100% HVO. This is even 11°C less than that found in article [16]. Even with this mismatch, all blends have a positive effect on the CFPP drop and are well below the F-class for diesel fuels, the CFPP reported by ČSN EN 590 max. -20°C . The results of the flash point measurement have an increasing tendency as well as in all the articles to compare the measured values. This has a positive effect on reducing the risk of fuel explosion during handling and storage under standard conditions. The measured high values of the cetane number and the calculated cetane index value increase with the HVO content in the mineral oil mixture. The values of the cetane number and cetane index set out in this work correspond to the already high values of these figures in articles [16,36–38] and the HVO guidelines [35].

The properties of hydrotreated oils are much more similar to high quality sulfur-free diesel or synthetic GTL diesel fuel than to FAME.

In the production of fuels, components with n-hydrocarbons and branched hydrocarbons are suitably combined to achieve suitable fuel properties (cetane number, pour point). Biodiesel produced by hydrotreating of vegetable oil consists of C_{17} and C_{18} n-hydrocarbons with a high cetane number but has poor low temperature properties due to a melting point between 20 and 28°C . Improvement of these parameters can be achieved by adding a second proportion of highly isomeric hydrocarbons.

During long-term storage, pure hydrotreated oils as well as mixtures containing them, behave like traditional diesel fuels. Hydrotreated oils do not contain any hazardous impurities, such as saturated monoglycerides present in FAME. There is therefore no risk of clotting above the cloud point. However, as with standard diesel, this phenomenon may occur due to the presence of paraffins in the fossil fuel or hydrotreated oil during long-term storage at temperatures below the cloud point.

5. Conclusions

Due to the pressure of the European Union to reduce the total amount of greenhouse gases produced into the atmosphere, there is a need to reduce greenhouse gas emissions even in transport, one of which is to increase the share of biofuels in mineral diesel over 7%. By using other types of biofuels than fatty acid methyl esters, which are – due to their undesirable low oxidation stability necessary for long-term storage, higher temperature of cold filter plugging point (CFPP), which prevents winter operation, high boiling point and the associated cold starts with inadequate combustion – inappropriate.

A much better biofuel is HVO, whose hydrocarbon character can be compared to high quality mineral diesel with a very high cetane number and a very low temperature of cold filter plugging point (CFPP). As confirmed by the actual measurement, HVO does not have the above-mentioned drawbacks as fatty acid methyl esters. HVO can be mixed into mineral diesel fuel without limitation. Its presence in mineral oil blends improves engine performance and reduces fuel consumption, exhaust emissions, and cold filter plugging point (CFPP), so it can also be used in aviation turbine engines. The properties of hydrotreated oils are much more similar to high quality sulfur-free diesel or synthetic GTL diesel fuel than to FAME.

By adding HVO can be achieved lowering of NO_x and particular matter emission, which has positive impact on environment. This is a suitable way how to accomplish emissions below the limits of newly introducing ban for highly-polluting, older diesel vehicles for example in Germany. HVO has naturally high cetane number, which is very useful for increasing lower cetane fuels, which could be also conducive to other alternative fuels for lowering emissions as well as have sufficient fuel properties.

The production technology of this biofuel is intergenerational in its own way, as raw materials, both food and waste, can be used for its production without significantly changing the hydrotreatment conditions. It is also beneficial for this technology that it can be operated, after minor modifications, directly in existing refineries.

Author Contributions: Petr Zeman, Vladimír Hönig, Martin Kotek, Jan Táborský, Michal Obergruber, Jakub Mařík, Veronika Hartová and Martin Pechout designed methodology; Petr Zeman, Vladimír Hönig, Martin Kotek, Jan Táborský, Michal Obergruber, Jakub Mařík, Veronika Hartová and Martin Pechout performed the calculation and analyzed the data; Petr Zeman, Vladimír Hönig, Martin Kotek, Jan Táborský, Michal Obergruber, Jakub Mařík, Veronika Hartová and Martin Pechout wrote the paper.

Acknowledgments: This work was supported by grants of the Grant Agency of Czech University of Life Sciences Prague IGA 2018: 31150/1312/3113 – Analysis of the influence of biofuels on the operating parameters of combustion engines and IGA 2017: 31150/1312/3116 – The Examination of the Influence of Blended Biofuels on Operating Parameters of CI Engines.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. *Being wise with waste: the EU's approach to waste management*; European Commission, Ed.; Publ. Off. of the European Union: Luxembourg, 2010; ISBN 978-92-79-14297-0.
2. Masi, F.; Bresciani, R.; Rizzo, A.; Edathoot, A.; Patwardhan, N.; Panse, D.; Langergraber, G. Green walls for greywater treatment and recycling in dense urban areas: a case-study in Pune. *Journal of Water, Sanitation and Hygiene for Development* **2016**, *6*, 342–347. DOI: 10.2166/washdev.2016.019
3. Rizzo, A.; Boano, F.; Revelli, R.; Ridolfi, L. Role of water flow in modeling methane emissions from flooded paddy soils. *Advances in Water Resources* **2013**, *52*, 261–274. DOI: 10.1016/j.advwatres.2012.11.016
4. Kučerová, V.; Lagaňa, R.; Výbohová, E.; Hýrošová, T. The Effect of Chemical Changes during Heat Treatment on the Color and Mechanical Properties of Fir Wood. *BioResources* **2016**, *11*. DOI: 10.15376/biores.11.4.9079-9094
5. Výbohová, E.; Kučerová, V.; Andor, T.; Balážová, Ž.; Veľková, V. The Effect of Heat Treatment on the Chemical Composition of Ash Wood. *BioResources* **2018**, *13*. DOI: 10.15376/biores.13.4.8394-8408

6. Clark, J.S.; Prochazka, P.; Yiridoe, E.K.; Prochazkova, K. PVYn and Potato Wart Disease Outbreaks in Prince Edward Island: Policy Response and Analysis. *Canadian Journal of Agricultural Economics/Revue canadienne d'agroéconomie* **2007**, *55*, 527–534. DOI: 10.1111/j.1744-7976.2007.00107.x
7. Hrcka, R.; Kučerová, V.; Hýrošová, T. Correlations between Oak Wood Properties. *BioResources* **2018**, *13*. DOI: 10.15376/biores.13.4.8885-8898
8. Hönig, V.; Linhart, Z.; Procházka, P. Biobutanol from local bio-wastes. *Agrarian Perspectives XXVI. Competitiveness of European Agriculture and Food Sectors, Proceedings of the 26th International Conference, 13–15 September 2017 Prague, Czech Republic* **2017**, 102–108.
9. Corral Bobadilla, M.; Lostado Lorza, R.; Escribano García, R.; Somovilla Gómez, F.; Vergara González, E. An Improvement in Biodiesel Production from Waste Cooking Oil by Applying Thought Multi-Response Surface Methodology Using Desirability Functions. *Energies* **2017**, *10*, 130. DOI: 10.3390/en10010130
10. Corral Bobadilla, M.; Fernández Martínez, R.; Lostado Lorza, R.; Somovilla Gómez, F.; Vergara González, E. Optimizing Biodiesel Production from Waste Cooking Oil Using Genetic Algorithm-Based Support Vector Machines. *Energies* **2018**, *11*, 2995. DOI: 10.3390/en11112995
11. Pražníkar, J. Particulate matter time-series and Köppen-Geiger climate classes in North America and Europe. *Atmospheric Environment* **2017**, *150*, 136–145. DOI: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2016.11.056
12. Žibert, J.; Cedilník, J.; Pražníkar, J. Particulate matter (PM10) patterns in Europe: An exploratory data analysis using non-negative matrix factorization. *Atmospheric Environment* **2016**, *132*, 217–228. DOI: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2016.03.005
13. Krause, J.; Špička, J. Economic Analysis of Chemical Industry (in Czech). *Chemické listy* **2013**, *107*, 573–578.
14. Procházka, P.; Hönig, V. Economic Analysis of Diesel-Fuel Replacement by Crude Palm Oil in Indonesian Power Plants. *Energies* **2018**, *11*, 504. DOI: 10.3390/en11030504
15. Su, C.-H.; Nguyen, H.; Pham, U.; Nguyen, M.; Juan, H.-Y. Biodiesel Production from a Novel Nonedible Feedstock, Soursop (*Annona muricata* L.) Seed Oil. *Energies* **2018**, *11*, 2562. DOI: 10.3390/en11102562
16. Aatola, H.; Larmi, M.; Sarjovaara, T.; Mikkonen, S. Hydrotreated Vegetable Oil (HVO) as a Renewable Diesel Fuel: Trade-off between NO_x, Particulate Emission, and Fuel Consumption of a Heavy Duty Engine. *SAE International Journal of Engines* **2008**, *1*, 1251–1262. DOI: 10.4271/2008-01-2500
17. Sugiyama, K.; Goto, I.; Kitano, K.; Mogi, K.; Honkanen, M. Effects of Hydrotreated Vegetable Oil (HVO) as Renewable Diesel Fuel on Combustion and Exhaust Emissions in Diesel Engine. *SAE International Journal of Fuels and Lubricants* **2011**, *5*, 205–217. DOI: 10.4271/2011-01-1954
18. Pešek, M.; Samková, E.; Špička, J. Fatty acids and composition of their important groups in milk fat of Czech Pied cattle. *Czech Journal of Animal Science* **2011**, *51*, 181–188. DOI: 10.17221/3927-CJAS
19. Lapuerta, M.; Villajos, M.; Agudelo, J.R.; Boehman, A.L. Key properties and blending strategies of hydrotreated vegetable oil as biofuel for diesel engines. *Fuel Processing Technology* **2011**, *92*, 2406–2411. DOI: 10.1016/j.fuproc.2011.09.003
20. Balakos, M.W.; Hernandez, E.E. Catalyst characteristics and performance in edible oil hydrogenation. *Catalysis Today* **1997**, *35*, 415–425. DOI: 10.1016/S0920-5861(96)00212-X
21. Mezera, J.; Němec, R.; Špička, J. Support of strengthening the cooperation and efficiency factors accelerating innovation processes in the food industry. *Agricultural Economics* **2014**, *60*, 295–300.
22. Ali, M.F.; El Ali, B.M.; Speight, J.G. *Handbook of industrial chemistry: organic chemicals*; McGraw-Hill handbooks; McGraw-Hill: New York, 2005; ISBN 978-0-07-141037-3.

23. Ancheyta Juárez, J.; Trejo, F.; Rana, M.S. *Asphaltenes: chemical transformation during hydroprocessing of heavy oils*; 2017; ISBN 978-1-138-19895-1.
24. Sotelo-Boyas, R.; Trejo-Zarraga, F.; Jesus Hernandez-Loyo, F. de Hydroconversion of Triglycerides into Green Liquid Fuels. In *Hydrogenation*; Karam, I., Ed.; InTech, 2012 ISBN 978-953-51-0785-9.
25. Lestari, S.; Mäki-Arvela, P.; Bernas, H.; Simakova, O.; Sjöholm, R.; Beltramini, J.; Lu, G.Q.M.; Myllyoja, J.; Simakova, I.; Murzin, D.Y. Catalytic Deoxygenation of Stearic Acid in a Continuous Reactor over a Mesoporous Carbon-Supported Pd Catalyst. *Energy & Fuels* **2009**, *23*, 3842–3845. DOI: 10.1021/ef900110t
26. Kovács, S.; Kasza, T.; Thernesz, A.; Horváth, I.W.; Hancsók, J. Fuel production by hydrotreating of triglycerides on NiMo/Al₂O₃/F catalyst. *Chemical Engineering Journal* **2011**, *176–177*, 237–243. DOI: 10.1016/j.cej.2011.05.110
27. Sotelo-Boyás, R.; Liu, Y.; Minowa, T. Renewable Diesel Production from the Hydrotreating of Rapeseed Oil with Pt/Zeolite and NiMo/Al₂O₃ Catalysts. *Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research* **2011**, *50*, 2791–2799. DOI: 10.1021/ie100824d
28. Nasikin, M.; Susanto, B.H.; Hirsaman, M.A.; Wijanarko, A. Biogasoline from palm oil by simultaneous cracking and hydrogenation reaction over nimo/zeolite catalyst. *World Applied Sciences Journal* **2008**, *5*, 74–79.
29. Choudhary, T.V.; Phillips, C.B. Renewable fuels via catalytic hydrodeoxygenation. *Applied Catalysis A: General* **2011**, *397*, 1–12. DOI: 10.1016/j.apcata.2011.02.025
30. Bezergianni, S.; Kalogianni, A.; Vasalos, I.A. Hydrocracking of vacuum gas oil-vegetable oil mixtures for biofuels production. *Bioresource Technology* **2009**, *100*, 3036–3042. DOI: 10.1016/j.biortech.2009.01.018
31. Hönig, V.; Linhart, Z.; Procházka, P. Hydrotreated Vegetable Oil (HVO) for local bio-wastes. *Agrarian Perspectives XXVI. Competitiveness of European Agriculture and Food Sectors, Proceedings of the 26th International Conference, 13–15 September 2017 Prague, Czech Republic* **2017**, 109–115.
32. EN 15940: *Automotive fuels - Paraffinic diesel fuel from synthesis or hydrotreatment - Requirements and test methods*; CEN;
33. EN 590. 2013: *Automotive fuels – Diesel – Requirements and test methods*; CEN;
34. ASTM D975: *Standard Specification for Diesel Fuel Oils*; ASTM;
35. Neste Corporation Neste Renewable Diesel Handbook Available online: https://www.neste.com/sites/default/files/attachments/neste_renewable_diesel_handbook.pdf (accessed on Mar 27, 2017).
36. Šimáček, P.; Vrtiška, D.; Mužíková, Z.; Pospíšil, M. Motor Fuels Produced by Hydrotreating of Vegetable Oils and Animal Fats (in Czech). *Chem. Listy* **2017**, *111*, 206–212.
37. Hönig, V.; Táborský, J.; Linhart, Z. Use of blend of hydrotreated vegetable oil with biobutanol for applications in diesel engines. In *Proceedings of the Engineering For Rural Development*; 2015; pp. 324–329.
38. Váčová, V.; Vozka, P. Processing of vegetable oils to diesel fuel (in Czech). *Paliva* **2015**, *7*, 66–73.