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# **Utilizing Kaolin-Based Geopolymer Catalysts for Improved Doura Vacuum Residue**

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#### 1. **Introduction**

The Geopolymer is an inorganic polymer material made from constituents of the raw materials (aluminosilicatesource) and the activator in liquid form such as alkali or acid for activation reactions [1], [2], [3]. Geopolymer is created via an exothermic chemical reaction involving aluminosilicate and alkali [4]. The geopolymer, initially introduced by scientist Joseph Davidovits was discovered in 1972 as an environmentally friendly and innovative

substitute for cement [5]. The geopolymers have three-dimensional frameworks consisting of silicon-oxygen tetrahedra and aluminum-oxygen tetrahedra that are connected alternately by sharing all oxygen atoms. Geopolymers possess an amorphous to semi-crystalline structure, contrasting the well-defined, crystalline nature of zeolites. While both share similar chemical compositions based on tetrahedral units of silicon and aluminum, the key distinction lies in their crystal structure. Geopolymers' variability stems from this amorphous nature, enabling tailored properties for specific applications, while zeolites' crystallinity offers uniform structures and defined pore sizes ideal for separation and adsorption processes [6].

The factors controlling the internal structure of geopolymers are the ratio of silicon to aluminum (Si/Al) and the types and quantity of activators used, the source and grading of aggregates, the duration and temperature of hardening/curing, the particle size, and heat treatment [7], [8]. Geopolymer foam structures possess ion exchange making them ideal for a new class of catalysis applications by increasing to active sit [9].

The petroleum industry (oil and gas) is very important and is considered the backbone of the Iraqi economy and the primary source of government revenue [10]. The crude oil is naturally liquid and has a mixture of complexes of hydrocarbons and non-hydrocarbons with different concentrations, which include impurity compounds of sulfur, oxygen, nitrogen, vanadium, copper, iron, nickel, sodium, zinc, and metals. Water is also found in petroleum [11], [12].

The vacuum residue is the lowest-value product from petroleum refining, which if not converted is mostly used for the production of road pavement bitumen and heavy fuel oil [13]. Vacuum residue (VR) can be defined as the heaviest distillation product or defined as carbon rejected from crude petroleum fraction through the refining process. VR has a low hydrogen to carbon (H/C) ratio, high viscosity (wax installation) with API gravity between 10 and 20°at room temperature, with black color VR including two fractions: extra heavy hydrocarbons and very high molecular weight like resins and asphalting. Vacuum residue was produced from the bottom of the vacuum distillation unit of the crude oil; however, crude oil origin yields 10–15% (VR). These VRs contain high impurities such as vanadium, nickel, calcium, iron, silica, compounds of oxygen, nitrogen, and sulfur. These VR can be classified into four organic fractions resins, aromatics, saturates, and asphaltenes [14]. In recent decades, researchers have emphasized the development of refining techniques based on cheaply available feedstocks, such as coal, grade petroleum oil, or wax [15],[16].

The catalyst's goals for the upgradation of heavy oils and VR are to decrease viscosity and boiling point, demetallation, desulfurization, level of other impurities, and increase the H/C ratio with high commercial values [17]. Cracking is defined as the process of breaking up large hydrocarbon molecules into small molecules. Catalysts are utilized to reduce pressures and temperatures [18], [19]. Cracking is one of the principal ways in which crude oil is converted into useful fuels such as motor gasoline, jet fuel, and home heating oil [20].

In (2022) K. S. AlKhafaji et al.'s study, they synthesized an economical catalyst using kaolin clay supported with alumina. The catalyst was compared with a conventional bi-functional catalyst in the Hydrodesulfurization (HDS) operation. Under specific conditions: a reaction temperature of 375°C, pressure at 40 bar, Liquid Hourly Space Velocity (LHSV) of 1 hr<sup>-1</sup>, and an H<sub>2</sub>/hydrocarbon (HC) ratio of 200 vol. ratio, the efficiency was determined to be 62.2%, with a substantial 90% hydrodesulfurization achieved [21]. L. Vieira et al.'s (2018) designed geopolymer from metakaolin for catalyst application with a high specific surface area. The ratio of Si/K was 2.46, and Si/Al was 1.37, resulting in an amorphous structure. The geopolymer exhibited a specific surface area of 75 m<sup>2</sup>/g and a pores volume of 0.28 cm<sup>3</sup>/g. The pores displayed a size distribution between 7 and 20 nm, resembling zeolites in terms of ion exchange and accommodation of metal ions. This suggests the geopolymer's potential for applications involving ion exchange and metal ion interactions similar to zeolitic materials [22].

This work aims to develop new catalysts made from geopolymers, to match the effectiveness of zeolites. The prepared geopolymer catalysts will be investigated in a fixed-bed reactor to see how well they convert oil into gasoline and other hydroarbones. Gas chromatography will be utilized to analyze the yield and composition of the resulting hyrocarbones, comparing it to standard gasoline. This comparison will help assess how efficient the geopolymer catalysts are at converting oil and the quality of the gasoline they produce.

# **2. Experimental work**

## 2.1 Materials Used

The kaolin used in this work is a natural clay found in Iraq's Wadi Al-Sufi Anbar region, as the main raw material. Both alkaline solutions; Potassium hydroxide (KOH) and sodium silicate (Na2SiO3), were obtained from Thomas Baker Chemicals in Mumbai, India, to activate the material through a process called geopolymerization. Hydrogen peroxide (H2O2), a foaming agent, was supplied by Fine-Chem Ltd., India. Finally, hydrochloric acid (HCl), obtained from Thomas Baker Chemicals, India, was used to etch the geopolymer samples after they were formed.

### 2.2 Feed Used

The used heavy oil residue in this work was extracted from the Al-Doura petroleum refinery in Baghdad, Iraq, which displayed characteristics of a waxy texture, black color, and a composition rich in heavy hydrocarbons with elevated molecular weights. This specific residue, referred to as Doura Vacuum Residual (VR), is depicted in Figure 1.



**Figure 1**: Crud residue from Dura refinery.

# 2.3. Preparation for Pre-Geopolymerization

The kaolinite raw materials employed, both white and red variants, underwent chemical characterization through atomic absorption (AA240FS) and chemical analysis using xy-sampler chromatography following ASTM C 573 standards. Subsequently, the raw materials were crushed into a powder and sieved through a mesh with a  $\leq 80\mu$ m aperture. Figure 2 illustrates the raw materials utilized in this process.



**Figure 2**: Kaolin used; a) White kaolin, and b) Red kaolin

The procedure entails transforming kaolin into metakaolin by subjecting it to electric furnace firing at 750°C for a duration of 2 hours. This process was carried out at the laboratories of the National Center for Construction in Baghdad [23]. Geopolymer preparation involves combining Metakaolin (MK) with varying percentages of red and white metakaolin, as outlined in Table 1. Alkaline substances, such as KOH (14M) and water glass

(Na2SiO3), were added in a 1:1 ratio to facilitate the formation of geopolymer precursors, with water glass serving a dual role by regulating the chemical composition and acting as a mineralizing agent [24].

The experimental process commenced by blending 15g of metakaolin in a glass cylinder using an electric blender for 15 minutes. Subsequently, a diluted hydrogen peroxide (H2O2) solution (1%) was introduced as a foaming agent to generate H2 and O2. Following an additional 30 minutes of continuous mixing, the mixture was poured into a plastic mold  $(1\times1\times2 \text{ cm}^3)$ . After solidifying at room temperature for a day, the samples were cured in an oven at 100°C overnight. Figure 4 illustrates the various stages of geopolymer preparation. The schematic diagram for all the processes is shown in Fig 3.

Type		Red Metakaolin %   White Metakaolin %
G1	60%	40%
G <sub>2</sub>	40%	60%

**Table 1**: Mixing design of the prepared geopolymer



**Figure 3**: The schematic diagram of current work.



**Figure 4**: Geopolymer preparation procedure

#### 2.4. Acidic treatment

The obtained geopolymer was finely ground into a powder and then treated with HCl (2M) to gain G1\* and G2\*. This acid treatment lasted for 48 hours, after which the geopolymer underwent extensive rinsing with distilled water and was left to dry at room temperature overnight. Subsequently, the dried geopolymer was subjected to firing at 750°C for a duration of 2 hours. The step-by-step process of catalyst preparation is depicted in Figure 5 [25], [26]. The geopolymer catalysts, notably, undergo a post-treatment involving dealumination and desilication using HCl. This process serves to increase the surface area and improve the distribution of electronic charge among the active sites [27].



**Figure 5**: Catalyst preparation procedure

#### 2.5. Cracking Unit

This experiment uses a custom-built reactor (shown in Figure 6) to convert heavy residue from the Doura Refinery into lighter, more valuable products. This process is important because it takes thick, unusable oil and makes it more useful.

The reactor is like a metal tube (stainless steel) with a heater to control the temperature. It has valves, a pressure gauge, and a thermometer inside to carefully watch what's happening during the experiment. The key part is the geopolymer, which sits in the middle, packed tightly inside a small metal container to work best. The reactor is wrapped in glass wool to keep the heat in, and a plastic tube connects the container to a glass system where the finished product collects. The pressure gauge at the reactor's top monitors pressure conditions throughout the cracking process. VR is introduced into the reactor, and as internal temperature rises, heavy oil molecules reach boiling points, ascending within the cylinder and entering the catalyst tube containing geopolymer. The cracking process occurs, yielding smaller hydrocarbon molecules.

Real-time temperature monitoring and control are facilitated by the internal sensor during cracking, producing valuable products like gasoline and diesel fuel. After completion, the condensed products are collected through the glass system for separation based on boiling points.

In summary, this reactor configuration proves efficient for VR cracking, converting heavy crude oil into valuable products. Temperature and pressure monitoring devices ensure optimal conditions, and insulation materials contribute to process efficiency.



**Figure 6**: Fixed bed reactor device consisting of 1- Water pump, 2- Coldwater, 3- Condenser, 4- Fixed bed, 5- Collect liq. ,6- gauge pressure, 7- Autoclave, 8- Heater, 9- Thermocouple, 10- Power supply, 11- Fiberglass, 12- Bed reactor, 13- Geopolymer catalysts.

#### 3. Characterization of the Geopolymer

Comprehensive characterization of geopolymer samples involved multiple techniques, including XRD, XRF, BET, and FTIR. Phase identification through X-ray diffraction employed the Shimadzu XRD 600 model with analytical software. Chemical composition analysis utilized the XRF Spectrometer (XEPOS spectrometer, SPECTRO XEPOS spectrometer, Analytical instruments 4 kW /PW100) with a Rh X-ray tube. Time-gated FTIR spectroscopy was applied to geopolymer samples both before and after treatment with HCl.

Specific surface areas and pore volumes were determined using the Micromeritics ASAP 2020 device via nitrogen physisorption at -196°C. The BET method calculated surface areas, and samples were vacuum degassed at 100°C for 1200 minutes prior to adsorption. The analysis exhibited an inaccuracy of  $\pm 5$  m<sup>2</sup>/g.

- 4. Results and Discussion
- 4.1 Chemical analysis of kaolin

Table 2 presents the chemical composition of the kaolin utilized in this study. The analysis reveals the primary components as alumina, silica, and iron oxide. Both white and red kaolin exhibit a silica content approximately twice that of alumina. Specifically, white kaolin has a silica content exceeding red kaolin by approximately 12%. However, red kaolin is enriched with a higher concentration of iron oxide compared to white kaolin.



**Table 2**: Chemical analysis of Iraqi local kaolin.

Table 3 outlines the results of XRF analysis for the geopolymer before HCl treatment, while Table 4 displays the outcomes after treatment. The Si/Al ratio undergoes noticeable changes, especially post HCl treatment, indicating induced dealumination of aluminum during the process. G1 exhibits different behavior compared to G2 under HCl treatment. Additionally, a decrease in iron content is observed, impacting both mechanical and

chemical characteristics. In Table 4, after treatment with 2M HCl, G2 experiences significant dealumination and desilication, while G1 sees the removal of iron oxide, resulting in a clear impact on the overall Si/Al ratio. This reduction in iron content influences both the internal structure and chemical activity. G1, in particular, shows a substantial reduction in iron and an impact on achieving a higher Si/Al ratio. Summarizing the leaching experiments, the resistance of geopolymers to acidic attack strongly depends on the Si/Al ratio. Structural differences among geopolymers were confirmed to influence stability against acidic attack [28]. The minor rise in the concentration of certain elements is attributed to their high resistance to acid, while the overall mass experiences a decrease in the presence of acid.

Geopolymer	$Si\%$	Al%	Fe%	K%	Na%	Ca%	Ti%	Rest %
G1	39.8	4.25	44.85		1.5		6.18	0.9
G <sub>2</sub>		6.78	16.5	36.36		6.2		

**Table 3**: XRF for geopolymers before treatment

Geopolymer	$Si\%$	$\vert$ Al%	Fe%	$K\%$	Na%			$\vert$ Ca% $\vert$ Ti% Rest%
G <sub>1</sub>	54.5	6.07	25.99	2.4	2.3	$0.8\,$	7.6	1.33
G <sub>2</sub>	23.65	4.14	$31.17$ 28.15		1.3	8.91		0.58

**Table 4**: XRF for geopolymers after HCl treatment

#### 4.2 X-Ray Diffraction

XRD analysis confirmed the amorphous nature of the geopolymer, as expected [29]. However, examination of samples with different mixing ratios (Figures 7 and 8) revealed some unexpected crystalline phases.

Using "X'Pert High Score Plus", the following observations were made: Sample G1 (Figure 7) exhibited a broad hump at 26.4° 2θ, indicative of a zeolite-like phase (reference code 01-083-2369), specifically a cubic phase with peaks at 10.03°, 20.6°, 26.39°, 49.9°, 59.8°, and 67.89° 2θ. Minor phases of quartz (SiO2), mullite (3Al2O3 2SiO2 or 2Al2O3SiO2), and hematite (Fe2O3) were also detected [30], [31]. X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis of the 60% red geopolymer treated with acid (G1) revealed the presence of a zeolite-like phase according to reference code (01-083-2369). This phase exhibits a cubic structure with peaks at 10.02°, 16.535°, 20.3°, 26.37°, 32.9°, 36.3°, 39.42°, 45.5°, 49.7°, 59.38°, 59.6°, 62.3°, 63.8°, 67.7°, and 75.3° 2θ.

An additional minor cubic phase identified as Zeolite X, syn, according to reference code (01-071-1012), was also detected with a peak at 13.3° 2θ.

Furthermore, the XRD analysis revealed an increase in crystallinity of the geopolymer after acid treatment. The degree of crystallinity increased from 19.9% for the untreated G1 sample to 35.19% for the sample treated with acid  $(G1^*)$ .



**Figure7**: XRD Patterns of G1 and G1\*

XRD analysis of the 60% white kaolin geopolymer (G2) identified a cubic zeolite-like phase according to reference code (01-083-2369) (Figure 8). This phase displayed peaks at 2θ values of 20.7°, 24.26°, 26.33°, 39.35°, 41.49°, 54.3°, 60°, 64.3°, 68.2°, and 72.2°. Interestingly, XRD analysis of the acid-treated 60% white kaolin geopolymer (G2) revealed the same\* major cubic zeolite-like phase (reference code 01-083-2369), but with additional peaks at 2θ values of 33.39°, 35.8°, 49.9°, 75.4°, 79.8°, and 81.2° (Figure 8). This suggests that acid treatment promoted the formation of a more crystalline zeolite-like phase in G2\*.

Furthermore, XRD analysis indicated an increase in the degree of crystallinity for both geopolymers after acid treatment. The crystallinity increased from 23.9% for the untreated G2 sample to 35.8% for the acid-treated G2\* sample. This observation aligns with the presence of additional peaks in the XRD pattern of G2\*.



**Figure 8**: XRD Patterns of G2 and G2\*

Acid treatment of geopolymer (G1 & G2) to be (G1\* & G2\*) resulted in a shift in the amorphous hump in the XRD patterns towards lower angles. This shift reveals the formation of a new, potentially amorphous phase [32]. However, the degree of crystallinity remained relatively low, indicating the limited conversion of the geopolymer into zeolite phases [33].

In spite of the low crystallinity, research [33] found the presence of crystalline structures and several zeolite types within the modified geopolymers. This suggests that the acid treatment may have accelerated the condensation of free Si-OH groups during the hydrothermal process, partially transforming the geopolymer into zeolite-like structures. Additional studies by Zhang et al. [34], provide further evidence for this mechanism.

4.3 Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy FTIR analyses

the functional groups present in geopolymers was investigated by FTIR analysis. The samples were synthesized from varying red and white kaolin types. Samples were prepared as KBr pellets and scanned in the 4000-450 cm-1 range. The focus was to identify changes in chemical structure by tracking key functional groups in the IR spectra.

All specimens revealed characteristic bands of aluminosilicate materials, indicating the presence of Al-O, Si-O, and other related bonds (Figures 9 and 10). Specifically: G1 and G2 spectra showcased a broad band at 1054 cm-1, attributed to the asymmetric stretching of Si-O-Si bonds. A band at 796-850 cm-1 corresponded to the bending of Si-O-Si bonds [35], [36], [37]. The main peak at 1052 cm-1 suggested Si-O-Si and/or Si-O-Al bonds, while the peak around 780 cm-1 indicated Al-O vibrations in Al2O3 structures [38].

The band at 870 cm-1 potentially pointed to Al-O symmetric stretching in tetrahedral coordination, further supporting geopolymer formation.

Additional peaks at 1085 cm-1 confirmed Si-O-Si stretching and O-Si-O bending modes, while peaks at 3445 and 1634 cm-1 suggested the presence of water and silanol groups based on cited literature. Notably, these peaks were sharper and more intense due to changes in chemical composition and increased acidity. Bands at 3406, 1652, 1541, and 1459 cm-1 corresponded to OH stretching vibrations and H-O-H bonds of free water [39], [40].

In conclusion, FTIR analysis confirmed the presence of geopolymers and provided insights into their specific functional groups. The observed changes in peak intensities and locations suggest altered chemical composition and increased acidity upon modification.



**Figure 9:** FTIR of geopolymer G1, G1<sup>\*</sup> (without treatment, and after treatment).

The G2 spectrum exhibits a broad band in the  $950-615$  cm<sup>-1</sup> range, while G2 shows a narrower band ranging from 888-653 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Both spectra present a peak at  $1054 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  shifted to  $1060 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in G2\*, suggesting a change in the Si/Al ratio due to dealumination caused by acid treatment. These bands are typically attributed to the asymmetric stretching of Si-O-Si and/or Si-O-Al bonds.

Additionally, the G2 spectrum displays a broader band encompassing Si-O-Si bending and Al-O vibrations in Al2O3 structures (950-653 cm<sup>-1</sup>) compared to G2 (888-653 cm<sup>-1</sup>). This further supports the notion of altered Si/Al composition due to acid treatment. Notably, several peaks become sharper and exhibit increased intensity in both spectra, likely reflecting changes in chemical composition and increased acidity [36], [37], [38].

Both G2 and G2\* spectra showcase bands at 3566, 1716, 1541, and 1457 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which can be assigned to OH stretching vibrations and H-O-H bonds associated with free water  $[40]$ , [41]. Furthermore, the band at 3641 cm<sup>-1</sup> in both spectra could be attributed to H-bonded vicinal silanols and bridging hydroxyls (Brønsted OH) according to reference [32].

In summary, the FTIR analysis reveals distinctive differences between G2 and G2 spectra, indicating changes in the Si/Al ratio and functional groups induced by acid treatment. The observed peak shifts, band narrowing, and intensity variations provide valuable insights into the structural modifications experienced by the geopolymer upon acid treatment.



**Figure 10**: FTIR of geopolymer G2, and G2\*

FTIR analysis complemented the XRD results, and observed peaks were assigned to specific bands: 460 cm-1 (Si-O-Si and O-Si-O bonds). The number of acid sites in geopolymers has been found by FTIR spectroscopy to increase in all geopolymers (G1, G1\*, G2, G2\*).

However, the Acidity of zeolite significantly depends on the Si/Al ratio, and in this case, if the Si is in the zeolite framework, how it will affect the acidity and catalytic activity?

After treatment the Si/Al ratio increases, and the total molar ratios of Al IV and Al V increase, which affects the Brønsted acid site density in the geopolymer [36], [38]. The metastable aluminum (AlIV and AlV) aluminum atoms are incorporated into the proximity to silanol groups, this local structure of the silanol groups close to aluminum behaves as a "pseudo-bridging silanol" model, these metastable aluminum (AlIV and AlV) atoms could induce an electron density transfer from neighboring silanol groups, which can enhance the acid strength of neighboring silanol groups and to form Brønsted acid sites which aligns with the previous studies [42]. That is, there is a correlation between the total Al IV-Al V molar composition and the total Brønsted acidic sites density Brønsted and Lewis acid sites samples were discriminated by FT-IR from peaks at 1540 and 1450 cm−1, which aligns with the findings of previous studies [43], [44], [45]. Also 1445 cm-1 (Lewis acid sites), 1547 cm-1 (Brønsted acid sites) at 1490 cm-1 [46].

Also, three principal vibrational bands at 2307–2311, 2272, and 2261 cm−1, were assigned to adsorption on Lewis and Brønsted acid sites. This characterization suggests that the Brønsted acidity increases through the introduction of OH groups on the metallic nodes during the hydrothermal synthesis [47], [48].

#### 4.4 Brunauer Emmett Teller BET analyses

The surface area of the geopolymers prepared in this study was determined using the Brunauer Emmett Teller (BET) method. Notably, there was a substantial change in surface area after acid treatment, and this change varied according to the Si/Al ratio, as illustrated in the BET results prove the large effect of HCl on the surface geopolymers leaching that clear in the Figure 11 the Initial value of surface area was, G1 and G2 demonstrated surface areas of 9.5 and 6 m<sup>2</sup>/g, respectively. However, after treatment, the surface areas increased to 38.24 and 28.56 m<sup>2</sup>/g, as and these increase vary with iron content (iron large effect with acid)[49].

The pore volume of G1 increased after treatment, as depicted in Figure 12, revealing the significant effect of iron content on the range of HCl treatment. In contrast, the pore volume showed a different effect with G2. Specifically, these results suggest that minor variations in surface area were observed with different catalyst mixtures. However, upon acid treatment, the samples exhibited a substantial increase in BET surface areas, particularly with increased iron content compared to previous reports. The HCl leaching caused an exchange of Al3+, Fe3+, and Mg2+ with H+ ions, leading to a surface area increase of more than four times the activated state [41]. Indeed, the use of acid treatment, such as HCl, on zeolite typically results in the removal of aluminum, a process known as dealumination. This dealumination process is employed to introduce porosity into zeolites, thereby modifying their structure and properties [50].

The observed increase in specific surface area can be attributed to significant dealumination within the geopolymer. Conversely, the increase in the Si/Al ratio, consistent with XRF results, resulting from aluminum leaching, led to enhanced porosity and specific surface area in the samples. Furthermore, acid leaching influenced pore size distribution, primarily enhancing mesoporous characteristics in the geopolymers [51]. Importantly, the impact of acid leaching on specific surface area and pore size distribution was more pronounced than that induced by calcination.



**Figure 11**: surface area of geopolymer G1, and G2 a) before treatment, b) after treatment.





4.5 Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC–MS).

Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) is employed in this study for the quantification and identification of individual components within oil samples. The AGILENT 7890A GC and AGILENT 5975C MS operating in EI mode with a Mass Spectrometer detector are utilized. The Mass Spectrometer scan range is set at 50-500, with an electron energy (EM) of 70 eV and a temperature of  $260^{\circ}$ C.

GC-MS is used to analyze the final liquid products derived from Vacuum Residual (VR) using various Geopolymer catalyst types. The products are categorized into fractions based on the number of carbon atoms to assess the Geopolymer catalysts' performance comprehensively.

The chemical composition of Doura Vacuum Residual (VR) determined by GC-MS is presented in Table 5 encompassing a range from C12 to C32. These components, consisting of heavy hydrocarbons with high molecular weights, are transformed into more viable products through the cracking process facilitated by the cost-effective Geopolymer catalyst.

The liquid products obtained from the G1, G1 $^*$ , G2, and G2 $^*$  catalysts are detailed in tables 6,7,8,9 displaying a wide carbon range (C5-C24). Notably, Dodecane (C12H26) is observed at a high concentration, with a value of 4.01. This compound is influenced by the active Fe2O3 species present in the original red kaolin [42]. The G1 geopolymer catalyst yields 33% for gasoline (C5-C10) and 53.42% for kerosene and jet fuel (C10-C16) products, showcasing its novel role as a catalyst. Similarly, the G2 catalyst produces liquid products with a broad carbon range (C8-C24), with 1-Tridecene (C13H26) as a prominent compound, reaching a concentration of 6.52 catalytically. Notably, the G2 catalyst yields a higher quantity of gasoline (C5-C10) at 23% and kerosene and jet fuel (C10-C16) at 59.74%. Figures 16 illustrate the compounds identified. The figure 13 shows oil yield from cracking prosses light oil have (gasoline, deasil, kerosine) the carbons rang was from (C5-C16) for use geopolymers catalysts G1, G1\*, G2, and G2\*. The highest yield was G1\* (60% red and 40 white kaolin treated with HCl). This result due to Si/Al ratio, high degree of crystallinity and Zeolite phase in all this factor gives it good performance through cracking process.



**Figure 13**: VR cracking yield by geopolymer catalyst

**Table 5**: The compounds identified through Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) analysis of

Vacuum Residual (VR) from Doura Refinery			
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G1









**Table 7**: The compounds identified through Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) analysis of used

G1\***.**









**Table8**: The compounds identified through Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) analysis of used



G2**.**









# G2\***.**



#### **5. Conclusions**

Kaolin-based geopolymers were evaluated as heterogeneous catalysts for cracking Iraqi vacuum residual. The primary aim of this research was to synthesize an economically feasible and environmentally friendly geopolymer catalyst from kaolin and increase activity by ion exchange use HCl leaching, investigate its properties, and assess its effectiveness in vacuum residual cracking. Initially, conventional geopolymers were prepared using two types of kaolin, classified based on iron content (red and white). Subsequently, conventional geopolymers were treated with HCl to enhance catalyst activity in a fixed-bed reactor at temperatures ranging from 410°C, with a reaction time of 15-30 minutes.

Researchers developed several geopolymer catalysts and tested them for cracking heavy oil into useful products. They found that catalysts with more iron were better at making gasoline and kerosene, while those with less iron were better at removing sulfur. In summary, the novel results from Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) confirmed that geopolymers serve as friendly and inexpensive cracking catalysts. Overall, the study suggests geopolymers are promising as cracking catalysts, and further optimization could lead to even more efficient and targeted fuel production.

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