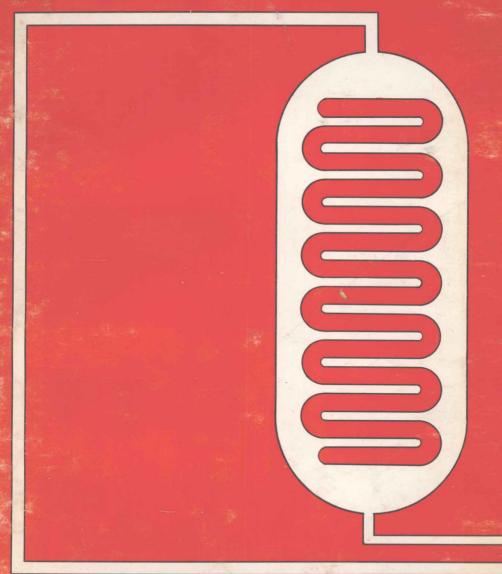
Thermal Hydrocarbon Chemistry

Alex G. Oblad, Hubert G. Davis, and R. Tracy Eddinger



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FOREWORD

Advances in Chemistry Series was founded in 1949 by the American Chemical Society as an outlet for symposia and collections of data in special areas of topical interest that could not be accommodated in the Society's journals. It provides a medium for symposia that would otherwise be fragmented, their papers distributed among several journals or not published at all. Papers are reviewed critically according to ACS editorial standards and receive the careful attention and processing characteristic of ACS publications. Volumes in the ADVANCES IN CHEMISTRY SERIES maintain the integrity of the symposia on which they are based; however, verbatim reproductions of previously published papers are not accepted. Papers may include reports of research as well as reviews since symposia may embrace both types of presentation.

PREFACE

Thermal reactions of hydrocarbons have been of great interest to chemists even before the petroleum industry began. Thermal cracking and reforming processes primarily for gasoline production dominated the industry through World War II, but have been replaced by catalytic processes in the ensuing years with the dominance of high octane gasoline and the high compression engine. The industry of producing chemicals from petroleum began when chemists in the 1920's produced alcohols from the ethylene and propylene formed in thermal cracking. From this start, thermal processes for making the main chemical building blocks: ethene, propene, butenes, butadiene, and aromatics (epbba) have grown in importance. Now a vast industry exists in many parts of the world based upon olefins and aromatics produced by thermal reactions of hydrocarbons. An array of other products, such as cokes and carbons, pitches and asphalts, are available as commercial items and all are produced by thermal means. Thermal reactions will play an important role in the production of hydrocarbons from shale, tar sands, coal, and lignite.

Interest in the chemistry of thermal reactions of hydrocarbons has persisted. The size of the U.S. manufacturing industry in chemicals from petroleum and the dollar volume of the products are enormous. It has recently been reported that the petrochemical output comprised nearly 23% of all manufacturing sales in the U.S. in 1976 and required over 16% of the total capital investment for that year. The Division of Petroleum Chemistry of the American Chemical Society, in its programs, has continued over the years to bring advances in this field to the attention of chemists, chemical engineers, and others interested in petroleum processing. This book contains papers from two division programs held at Anaheim, California in March, 1978: "Thermal Hydrocarbon Chemistry" and "Recent Advances in the Production and Utilization of Light Olefins."

Previous "Advances in Chemistry Series" have dealt with aspects of thermal hydrocarbon chemistry. Volume 97, "Refining Petroleum for Chemicals," edited by Leo J. Spillane was published in 1970. Symposium Series 32, "Industrial and Laboratory Pyrolyses," edited by Lyle F. Albright and Billy L. Crynes, was published in 1976.

The chapters in this volume are grouped in several sequences as follows: Chapters 1–6 relate to epbba production directly. Specific subjects covered are pyrolysis of alpha-olefins, butenes, paraffins, unsubsti-

tuted mono-, di-, and tricycloalkanes, virgin and hydrogenated gas oils, and feedstocks from processed shale oils.

Chapters 7–9 deal with the process aspects of pyrolysis to produce epbba. The first discusses the use of aerospace technology to simulate an unconventional process. The second discusses the results of recent attempts to develop computer models for large scale pyrolysis of hydrocarbons and the third discusses recent process and furnace design advances.

Chapters 10–12 cover important aspects of coke formation in metal tubular reactors during pyrolysis of hydrocarbons. Chapters 13 and 14 are concerned with coal and lignite pyrolysis. Chapters 15 and 16 deal with pitch formation from, respectively, heavy petroleum fraction and tar sand bitumen. Chapters 17 and 18 cover studies on the mechanisms of thermal alkylation and hydropyrolysis. Chapters 19 and 20 on oil shale deal with the properties of oil shale and shale oil as developed by techniques of microwave heating and thermal analysis.

This volume, although it covers a wide range of subjects in the general area of thermal hydrocarbon chemistry, contains the latest information on subject areas important to the petrochemical industry and to the science of pyrolysis. It is hoped that it will be a useful addition to this important area of science and technology. We want to thank all those who helped in arranging these symposia, and participated in them. Particular thanks go to J. W. Bunger for his help.

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Pyrolysis of Alpha-Olefins-A Mechanistic Study

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The products from the pyrolyses of four higher alpha-olefins have been accounted for by an empirical model involving three competing decomposition pathways: a molecular decomposition involving a six-membered ring transition state (which yields both propylene and an alpha-olefin with three less carbon atoms than the reactant) and two free radical chain pathways. One free radical channel involves hydrogen abstraction from, the second radical addition to the reactant olefin. The relative contributions of these three paths have been estimated from experimental data from the laboratory pyrolysis of higher alpha-olefins. The pyrolyses were carried out at low conversions in a quartz flow reactor at 475°-550°C.

The expansion of the petrochemical industry and the accompanying increase in the demand for ethylene, propylene, and butadiene has resulted in renewed interest and research into the pyrolytic reactions of hydrocarbons. Much of this activity has involved paraffin pyrolysis for two reasons: saturates make up most of any steam cracker feed and since the pioneering work of Rice 40 years ago, the basic features of paraffin cracking mechanisms have been known (1). The emergence of gas chromatography as a major analytical tool in the past 15 years has made it possible to confirm the basic utility of Rice's hypotheses (see, for example, Ref. 2).

By contrast, few studies have been made of the pyrolysis of alphaolefins. The large number of apparent primary reaction products and the complexity of the mechanism as well as the absence of olefins in cracking feedstocks all have inhibited research. Yet, it is well known that alpha-

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olefins are major primary products of paraffin cracking, and secondary reactions of alkenes must be important in moderate-to-high severity steam cracking to ethylene and in thermal cracking processes such as coking and visbreaking. Most of the prior olefin studies have involved propylene or butene cracking since these are the major primary olefinic products besides ethylene from gaseous and naphtha feedstocks (3,4). However, longer chain olefins play an important role in the cracking of gas oils, residual stocks, and whole crudes. Previous studies of higher alpha-olefins have included octadecene (5), heptene, dodecene, and tetradecene (6), and various isomers of tetradecene (7). These compounds crack to form shorter alpha-olefins, diolefins, methane, ethane, and hydrogen. Also, all of these researchers reported a surprisingly high yield of $C_{n-3}H_{2n-6}$ from from the cracking of C_nH_{2n} . A concerted molecular mechanism was proposed by Miller (5) to account for this product:

This retro-ene reaction is accepted as the primary mode of ester decomposition. For olefins, it has been investigated both directly (8) and via the reverse reaction, the ene reaction (9). The best estimates for 1-hexene and 1-heptene are that the reaction proceeds with an activation energy of about 54 kcal/mol and a preexponential factor of 10^{12} sec^{-1} .

It has been assumed that the remaining products are formed by some sort of free radical chain mechanism, but no generalized mechanism like that of Rice's for paraffin pyrolysis has been proposed. Tanaka et al. have been able to simulate product distributions for shorter olefins—up to hexene (10). We shall describe a model for higher alpha-olefin pyrolysis and use it to account for the products from the cracking of several olefins.

Experimental

All experiments were carried out in a simple flow system. A schematic diagram of the apparatus is shown in Figure 1. The quartz reactor (10 mm i.d.) was heated in a three-zone electric furnace which gave a flat (\pm 2°C) temperature profile over about 45 cm. Reactor temperatures were measured by a thermocouple which could be moved in a sheath attached to the outside of the reactor. Initially, the sheath was placed inside the reactor, but the inside temperatures agreed so closely with the reactor wall temperatures that the inner thermocouple was removed to minimize catalytic effects.

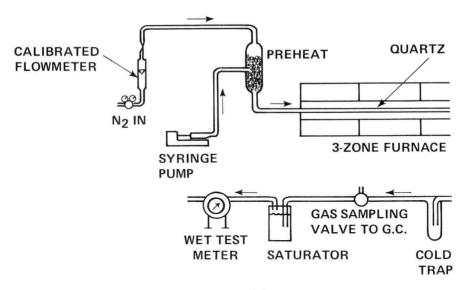


Figure 1. Diagram of flow apparatus

 $\rm N_2$ diluent was metered into the system through a calibrated flow-meter. Olefins were fed by a syringe pump to a preheater where they were vaporized and mixed with the diluent gas. The mixture flowed through the reactor tube, and unreacted hydrocarbon and liquid products condensed in two traps, one at room temperature and one at approximately $-50\,^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$. Gaseous products were sampled on-line and were analyzed by using gas chromatography. Total gas flow was measured by using a wet test meter. At the conclusion of an experiment, the liquid products were collected and analyzed by using gas chromatography. Initial product identification was made with gas chromatography—mass spectroscopy. The gas chromatography and programming rates used are summarized on Table I. Commercially available alpha-olefins were used

Table I. Gas Chromatographic Analysis

Analysis	Column	Detector	$Temperature\ Program$
H_2		thermal conduc- tivity	100°C isothermal
C ₁ –C ₅ hydro- carbons	0.19% pierie aeid on $80/100$ mesh carbopaek C 3 m \times $1/8$ in.	flame ionization	4 min at 30°C 30°-100°C @ 4°/min
Hydrocarbon liquids	20% SP2100 on 80/100 mesh chromosorb W AW-DMCS 10 ft \times 1/8 in.	flame ionization	4 min at 60°C 60°–300°C @ 4°/min

without further purification. Four olefins were studied: 1-nonene, 1-dodecene, 1-tetradecene, and 1-hexadecene. Gas chromatographic analysis showed the purity of all reagents to be at least 99%.

Results

Typical product distributions for the four olefins studied are shown in Table II. The major products are ethylene, propylene, methane, and ethane. Lesser amounts of higher alpha-olefin products also are observed. In these respects the product distribution from the cracking of an alphaolefin resembles that of the corresponding *n*-paraffin. However, there are several differences between olefin and paraffin cracking. The first is the presence of butadiene and smaller amounts of higher diolefins (mostly alpha-omega dienes) and cyclic olefins as primary products of olefin eracking. These products are not primary cracking products of paraffins. A second difference is the surprisingly large yield of $C_{n-3}H_{2n-6}$ from the cracking of C_nH_{2n}. This effect is most visible if we compare the olefin product yields from the cracking of an alpha-olefin and the corresponding paraffin. Figure 2 does this for hexadecene and hexadecane. The fluctuations in product olefin levels with carbon number are real and reproducible. reflecting mechanistic features and not experimental scatter. Figure 3 indicates this by comparing olefin product yields from the different compounds pyrolyzed.

Another difference between olefin and paraffin pyrolysis is the reaction order. Typically, higher n-paraffins crack according to first-order kinetics. Alpha-olefin pyrolysis is somewhat higher order. Figure 4 is a log-log plot of average dodecene cracking rate vs. average $C_{12}C_{24}$ pressure at 525°C. The decomposition is 1.33 order in dodecene. Table III gives the reaction orders (in $C_{12}H_{24}$) for the formation of individual products. Reaction order measurements for C_4 - C_6 products have been omitted because of small partial-pressure-dependent errors in the detection of these products, which make order measurements impossible. Note that ethylene, propylene, and nonene formation are of significantly lower order than those of the other products. Reasons for this will be discussed in the next section.

The rates of alpha-olefin decomposition measured in our laboratory are only slightly higher than those for corresponding paraffins. For example, at 500°C, hydrocarbon partial pressure of 0.18 atm, and approximately 20 seconds residence time, 6.2% hexadecene is cracked compared with 4.5% hexadecane. Figure 5 shows average rate constants for alpha-olefin cracking plotted vs. the size of the olefin being cracked, indicating only a slight increase in cracking rate with increasing molecular weight.

Table II. Product Distributions from Alpha-Olefin Pyrolysis

	Reactant			
•	C_9H_{18}	$C_{12}H_{24}$	$C_{14}H_{28}$	$C_{16}H_{32}$
Temperature (°C)	500	500	500	500
Initial hydrocarbon partial pres-	0.26	0.22	0.19	0.18
sure (atm)	10.0	0.7	10.0	0.0
Space time (sec)	18.0	9.7	19.8	9.2
Conversion (wt %)	6.4	2.8	5.8	3.1
Products (mol/100 mol cracked)	1.0			
$_{ m H_2}$	1.9			
$_{\mathrm{CH_{4}}}$	23.6	27.8	27.7	28.2
$_{2}^{\mathrm{H_{4}}}$	53.8	63.1	60.9	60.4
C_2H_6	14.5	19.8	19.7	18.6
C_3H_6	46.0	49.7	47.0	46.2
C_3H_8	2.9	3.7	3.5	3.7
$1-C_4H_8$	12.3	16.4	15.4	16.3
$1,3-C_4H_6$	8.6	9.3	7.6	8.7
C_5H_{10}	13.3	15.4	8.3	11.9
$^{\mathrm{C_5H_8}}_{\mathrm{C}}$	8.1	$\begin{array}{c} 1.7 \\ 11.3 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2.2 \\ 12.1 \end{array}$	$\frac{1.1}{13.3}$
$_{\rm C_6H_{12}}$	$\frac{22.4}{5.6}$	11.3 1.2	1.3	$\frac{13.3}{1.2}$
C_6H_{10} { $C_6 = =$ $MCP = + CH = $		$\frac{1.2}{3.8}$		$\frac{1.2}{3.9}$
$C_7H_{14} = + CH =$	5.3	6.7	$\frac{4.3}{12.3}$	9.6
$C_7H_{14} \\ C_7H_{12}$	$\frac{5.8}{6.4}$	3.3	4.9	3.0
$C_{8}^{711_{12}}$	5.8	8.5	9.0	8.0
C_{8}^{81116} $C_{8}^{H_{14}}$	$\frac{3.8}{4.3}$	$\frac{3.5}{3.1}$	0.7	$\frac{3.0}{2.7}$
C_{9}^{81114} $C_{9}H_{18}$	4.0	20.8	6.3	11.6
$C_{9}^{111_{18}}$	-	1.5	1.7	1.9
$C_{10}^{911}_{16}$ $C_{10}H_{20}$		$\frac{1.5}{4.4}$	9.3	10.2
C_{10}^{101120} C_{10}^{101120}		0.9	1.3	1.3
$C_{11}^{101118}H_{22}^{b}$		$\frac{0.5}{2.7}$	24.3	4.9
$C_{12}H_{24}$		2.1	4.7	8.0
C_{13}^{121124} C_{13}^{12}	_	_	2.5	24.6
$C_{14}H_{28}$	_		2.0	3.5
$C_{15}H_{30}$	_			1.5
C13-130				1.0

^a Methylcyclopentene and cyclohexene.

An Arrhenius plot of log rate constant vs. reciprocal temperature (Figure 6) indicates an activation energy of 61.9 ± 1.3 kcal/mol for dodecene cracking. This is similar to the activation energies measured for n-paraffin cracking and is somewhat higher than previously measured values for alpha-olefins (6).

 $^{^{}b}$ C_{11}^{+} diolefins were not separated from C_{11}^{+} olefins.

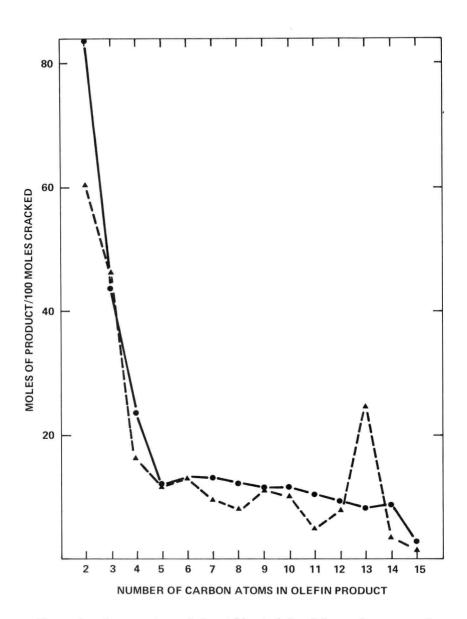


Figure 2. A comparison of the yields of alpha-olefin products from the pyrolysis of hexadecane and hexadecene at 500°C. (\bullet) From $C_{16}H_{34}$, (\triangle) from $C_{16}H_{32}$.

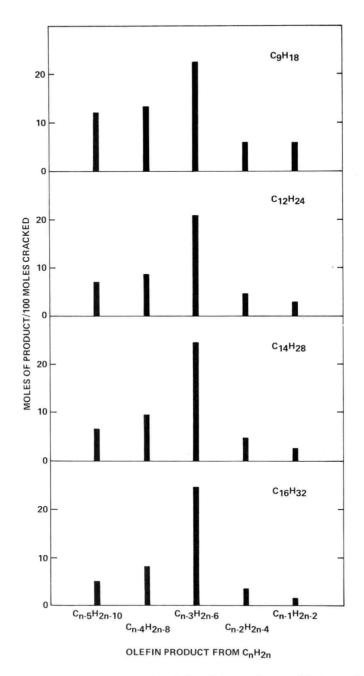


Figure 3. A comparison of the alpha-olefin product yields from the pyrolysis of four higher alpha-olefins at 500°C