

Effect of Oxygenated Turpentine and Alpha-Pinene on Diesel Fuel Physicochemical Properties

Syazwana Sapee¹, Ahmad Fitri Yusop¹, Asep Kadarohman², Ratnaningsih Eko Sardjono²

¹Faculty of Mechanical and Automotive Engineering Technology, Universiti Malaysia Pahang Al Sultan Abdullah, 26600, Malaysia

²Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Mathematics and Science, Indonesia University of Education, Indonesia

Corresponding Author: syazwana.sapee@gmail.com

Abstract

The increasing demand for alternative fuels has led to extensive research on bio-additives to enhance fuel performance and reduce environmental impact. This study examines the implications of turpentine and alpha-pinene, in both pure and oxygenated forms, on the physicochemical properties of diesel fuel. The fuel properties analysed include density, kinematic viscosity, calorific value, and cetane number. The results indicate that adding bio-additives significantly alters the fuel's characteristics. The density of the test fuels increased compared to diesel (857.72 kg/m³), with the highest density observed in alpha-pinene diesel at 877.06 kg/m³. Kinematic viscosity decreased with the addition of bio-additives, with oxygenated alpha-pinene diesel showing the lowest value of 2.83 mm²/s, compared to 3.32 mm²/s for diesel. The calorific value of turpentine-oxygenated diesel was the highest at 44.94 MJ/kg, while alpha-pinene oxidation had the lowest at 41.09 MJ/kg. The cetane number decreased in most test fuels, with the lowest value found in turpentine diesel at 63.78, while APD had the highest cetane number of 69.46, surpassing diesel (67.3). Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis revealed significant compositional changes due to oxygenation, with the α -pinene content decreasing from 61.81% to 32.68%, and the emergence of new oxygenated compounds, such as α -pinene oxide (6.15%) and trans-verbenol (6.66%). These findings suggest that turpentine and alpha-pinene bio-additives influence fuel properties differently, with turpentine-oxygenated diesel exhibiting the highest calorific value and alpha-pinene-diesel showing the best cetane number. Further research is required to evaluate their impact on engine performance and emissions.

Article Info

Received: 23 April 2025

Revised: 05 June 2025

Accepted: 10 June 2025

Available online: 25 July 2025

Keywords

Bio-additives

Turpentine

Alpha-pinene

Diesel fuel

Physicochemical properties

1. Introduction

In recent decades, global energy security and environmental sustainability challenges have driven intensive research into developing more environmentally friendly alternative fuels. The high dependence on fossil fuels has accelerated the exploitation of non-renewable natural resources, contributing to increased greenhouse gas emissions and air pollution. Therefore, searching for cleaner and more efficient fuel solutions has become urgent in the transportation and industrial sectors. One

promising approach is the use of bio-additives derived from renewable biomass sources, such as turpentine and alpha-pinene. These bio-additives can enhance the combustion quality of diesel fuel while mitigating its negative environmental impacts. However, further research is needed to fully understand their effects on the physicochemical properties of fuels and diesel engine performance, ensuring their effectiveness and feasibility in practical applications.

Renewable energy is increasingly becoming a significant focus in alternative fuel research, significantly reducing dependence on fossil fuels and reducing greenhouse gas emissions (Bahagia, Nizar, Yasin, Rosdi, & Faisal, 2025; Gani et al., 2025; Holechek, Geli, Sawalhah, & Valdez, 2022). One approach that has garnered attention is the use of bio-additives based on turpentine and alpha-pinene in diesel fuel blends. These materials are known to possess unique chemical properties, such as high volatility and oxygen content, which contribute to combustion efficiency (Irhamni, Kurnianingtyas, Muhtadin, Bahagia, & Yusop, 2025; Kohse-Höinghaus, 2021; Muhtadin, Rosdi, Faisal, Erdiwansyah, & Mahyudin, 2025). Several previous studies have shown that bio-additive-based fuel blends can improve energy efficiency and reduce unavoidable pollutant emissions, although their effects on combustion characteristics and engine performance are still a topic that needs further study (Ghazali, Rosdi, Erdiwansyah, & Mamat, 2025; Iqbal, Rosdi, Muhtadin, Erdiwansyah, & Faisal, 2025; Jalaludin, Kamarulzaman, Sudrajad, Rosdi, & Erdiwansyah, 2025). In the past few decades, various studies have been conducted to evaluate the impact of bio-additives on fuels' physical and chemical properties. For example, turpentine has a higher density and viscosity compared to pure diesel, so that it can affect the fuel atomization pattern in the combustion chamber (Alenezi et al., 2021; S. M. M. Rosdi, Erdiwansyah, Ghazali, & Mamat, 2025; Rosli, Xiaoxia, & Shuai, 2025; Xiaoxia, Lin, & Salleh, 2025). Increasing the turpentine content in the fuel mixture can reduce viscosity and increase evaporation efficiency, which in turn affects combustion characteristics (Almardhiyah, Mahidin, Fauzi, Abnisa, & Khairil, 2025; Jeevanantham et al., 2020; Muzakki & Putro, 2025; NOOR, Arif, & Rusirawan, 2025). However, several other studies have shown that the use of bio-additives in diesel fuel can reduce the cetane number and affect the ignition time of the fuel (Alenezi, Erdiwansyah, Mamat, Norkhizan, & Najafi, 2020; Biodun, Fayomi, & Okeniyi, 2022; Pranoto, Rusiyanto, & Fitriyana, 2025).

This study examines the characteristics of bio-additive-based blended fuels, especially turpentine and alpha-pinene, in pure form and after undergoing oxygenation. Analysis was carried out on various physicochemical properties of the fuel, including density, viscosity, calorific value, and cetane number. This parameter plays a vital role in determining engine performance and combustion efficiency, so a more in-depth evaluation can provide insight into the potential of bio-additives in alternative fuel applications (Alli & Kotha, 2023; Erdiwansyah, Mamat, Sani, Sudhakar, et al., 2019; Mufti, Irhamni, & Darnas, 2025; S. M. Rosdi, Maghfirah, Erdiwansyah, Syafrizal, & Muhibbuddin, 2025). The results showed that adding bio-additives to diesel fuel caused significant changes in fuel characteristics. For example, the calorific value of the fuel mixture with turpentine increased compared to pure diesel, indicating that bio-additives can contribute to fuel energy efficiency (Fitriyana, Rusiyanto, & Maawa, 2025; Kurniawan, Setyaningsih, & Setiaprada, 2021; Muhibbuddin, Hamidi, & Fitriyana, 2025). On the other hand, the cetane number of the blended fuel tends to be lower than that of diesel, which can affect the ignition characteristics of the fuel in a diesel engine (Erdiwansyah et al., 2024; Erdiwansyah, Mamat, Sani, & Sudhakar, 2019; Khalisha, Caesarina, & Fakhrana, 2025; Labeckas, Slavinskas, & Kanapkienė, 2017).

Additionally, this study observed changes in the chemical composition of turpentine before and after the oxygenation process using gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) techniques. The analysis revealed that the oxygenation process generated new oxygenated compounds, which could enhance the reactivity of the fuel during combustion. This aligns with previous studies, which have shown that adding oxygenating compounds to fuel can improve combustion efficiency and reduce unavoidable exhaust emissions, such as unburned hydrocarbons and carbon monoxide (Liu et al., 2021). This study aims to comprehensively evaluate the effect of adding turpentine and alpha-pinene on the physicochemical characteristics of fuel and their implications for engine performance and exhaust emissions. The novelty of this study lies in the in-depth analysis of the effect of oxygenation on the chemical composition of bio-additives, which has not been widely explored in previous studies. Thus,

this study makes a new contribution to the development of bio-additive-based fuels, which have the potential to improve combustion efficiency and reduce environmental impacts.

2. Experimental engine test setup

This section outlines the methodologies employed to evaluate the performance, combustion characteristics, and exhaust emissions of the test fuels in a diesel engine. It details the experimental engine test setup, including engine specifications, installed systems, key equipment, measurement techniques, and instruments utilised for data collection. A thorough explanation of sensor integration and the data acquisition system is provided. The section also includes a schematic representation of the experimental engine setup, specifications, components, and measurement approaches. The engine test rig was assembled as depicted in the schematic diagram in **Fig. 1**. The experiment was carried out at the Engine Performance Laboratory, Faculty of Mechanical and Automotive Engineering Technology, Universiti Malaysia Pahang, Pekan, Pahang.

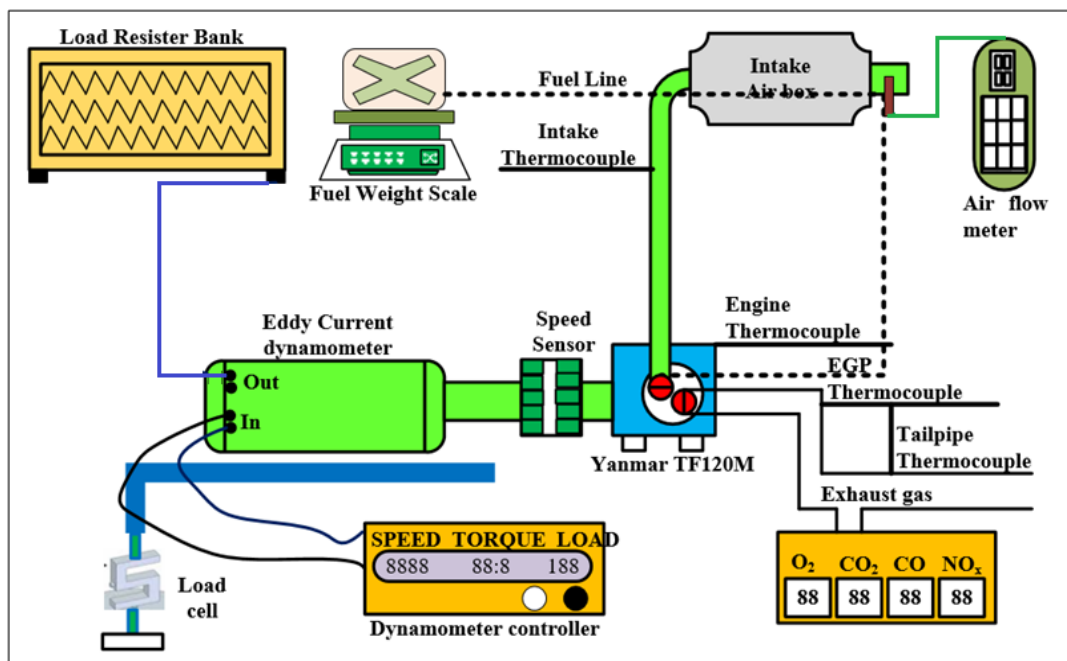


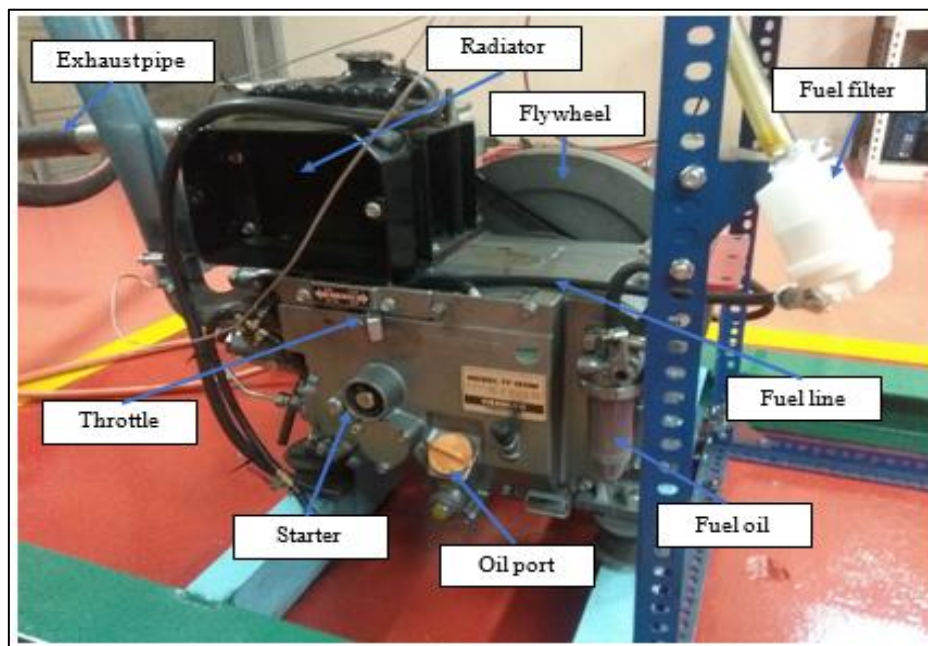
Fig. 1. Diagrammatic representation of the diesel engine test setup

Table 1 presents the specifications of the Yanmar TF120M diesel engine, a horizontal, four-stroke, single-cylinder engine that operates with a direct injection system. This engine was manufactured in 2016 with a capacity of 0.638 litres and has a bore × stroke size of 92 mm × 96 mm. In terms of performance, this engine produces a continuous output power of 7.82 kW at 2,400 rpm, while its rated output power reaches 8.94 kW at the same speed. Additionally, within 1 hour of operation, the engine can produce 12.0 hp (9.0 kW) at 2,400 rpm, with a rated continuous power of 10.5 hp (7.8 kW) at the same speed. The maximum torque of this engine is 43.35 N m at 1,800 rpm. The fuel consumption efficiency of the engine is indicated by the figure of 169 gr/hp.h in its specific fuel consumption specifications. The engine ignition system employs a manual (hand) starting method, featuring water-cooled cooling and a naturally aspirated system. This engine has a compression ratio of 17.7 and a fuel injection angle of 17° before TDC. The Power Take-Off (PTO) position is located on the flywheel side, with the crankshaft's direction of rotation counterclockwise when viewed from the flywheel side. These specifications indicate that the Yanmar TF120M engine is designed for reliable and efficient performance in agricultural or small industrial applications.

Table 1: Specification of Yanmar TF120M diesel engine

Description	Specification
Engine model	YANMAR TF120M
Engine year	2016
Engine type	Horizontal, four-cycle, four-stroke, diesel engine
Number of cylinders	1
Continuous power output (kW)	7.82 kW at 2,400 rpm
Rated power output (kW)	8.94 kW at 2,400 rpm
Bore × Stroke (mm)	92 × 96
Displacement (L)	0.638
Maximum torque (kgf · m/rpm)	43.35 N · m / 1,800 rpm
At 1-hr. rated output (hp/rpm, kW)	12.0 hp / 2,400 rpm (9.0 kW)
Rated continuous output (hp/rpm, kW)	10.5 hp / 2,400 rpm (7.8 kW)
Specific fuel consumption (gr/hp.h)	169 gr/hp.h
Injection timing	17°bTDC
Compression ratio	17.7
Combustion system	Direct injection
Aspiration	Natural aspiration
Cooling system	Water-cooled
Starting system	Manual (hand) starting.
Position of PTO	Flywheel side
The direction of crankshaft rotation	Counterclockwise viewed from the flywheel.

Fig. 2 illustrates the primary components of the Yanmar TF120M diesel engine, which comprise several essential elements for engine operation. The exhaust pipe functions to remove combustion gases from the combustion chamber. The radiator plays a role in the engine cooling system by helping to reduce the engine temperature during operation. The flywheel is a device that stores kinetic energy and helps maintain a stable engine speed. The fuel filter removes dirt and particles from the fuel before it enters the combustion system, while the fuel line transports fuel from the tank to the engine. Fuel oil is the fuel used in this engine to generate power. The throttle controls the amount of fuel entering the combustion chamber, affecting the engine's speed and power. The starter is a component used to start the engine, while the oil port is where oil is filled to lubricate the engine's internal components, reducing friction and increasing engine life. These parts work together to ensure the engine operates efficiently and optimally.

**Fig. 2.** Yanmar TF120M engine parts

3. Result & Discussion

Analysis of the physicochemical properties of test fuels

The test fuels are diesel blended with four different bio-additive types: turpentine, alpha-pinene, oxygenated turpentine, and oxygenated alpha-pinene. The properties of each blended fuel are presented in this chapter. The physicochemical properties of all test fuels (diesel (D), turpentine-diesel (TD), alpha pinene-diesel (APD), oxygenated turpentine-diesel (OTD), and oxygenated alpha pinene-diesel (OAPD)) play a crucial role in determining engine performance, combustion, and emission characteristics. Therefore, these properties must be evaluated first before further study on the test fuels. These properties are essential for understanding the character of each test fuel before associating it with any findings, such as engine characteristics. The analysed physicochemical properties include density, viscosity, calorific value, and cetane number. All measurements of fuel properties were conducted following ASTM standards.

Bio-additive chemical composition observation

Table 2 shows the measured fuel parameters of the test fuels. The measured fuel properties were compared with the baseline and ASTM D975 fuel standard specification for diesel fuel oils. The standard was referred to avoid the complication of fuel usage in a diesel engine. The chemical contents in diesel, turpentine, and oxygenated turpentine were detected, quantified, and identified using gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS). The results were compared to the baseline diesel fuel. Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry was employed to obtain detailed information on the fuel's chemical composition. Each chemical compound discovered in the fuel is represented by a peak produced by the gas chromatogram. The number of peaks in the fuel samples reflects the number of chemical compositions that have been isolated. The individual peaks' position shows each chemical composition's retention time. Table presents the chemical constituents' composition of diesel, turpentine, and oxygenated turpentine. Figure 4.1 shows a chromatogram of diesel fuel, turpentine, and oxygenated turpentine, illustrating the chemical components and composition. Details of the chromatogram peak report for turpentine and oxygenated turpentine, using mass spectrum data, are attached in Appendix G and Appendix H, respectively.

Table 2. Chemical constituents' composition of diesel, turpentine, and oxygenated turpentine fuels

Compound	Molecular Formula	Diesel (wt.%)	Turpentine (wt.%)	Oxygenated Turpentine (wt.%)
Pentadecane	C ₁₅ H ₃₂	5.27	-	-
2,6,10,14-Tetramethylpentadecane (pristane)	C ₁₉ H ₄₀	2.44	-	-
Hexadecane (n-cetane)	C ₁₆ H ₃₄	10.67	-	-
n-Octadecane	C ₁₈ H ₃₈	7.47	-	-
n-Nonadecane	C ₁₉ H ₄₀	5.37	-	-
n-Heneicosane	C ₂₁ H ₄₄	4.84	-	-
n-Docosane	C ₂₂ H ₄₆	4.81	-	-
n-Tricosane	C ₂₃ H ₄₈	4.07	-	-
α-Pinene	C ₁₀ H ₁₆	-	61.81	32.68
Camphene	C ₁₀ H ₁₆	-	2.25	2.94
β-Pinene	C ₁₀ H ₁₆	-	4.80	4.44
δ-3 Carene	C ₁₀ H ₁₆	-	19.70	5.77
dl-Limonene	C ₁₀ H ₁₆	-	3.58	1.93
α-Terpinolene	C ₁₀ H ₁₆	-	2.49	-
α-Pinene oxide	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	-	-	6.15
α-Campholene aldehyde	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	-	-	3.59

Compound	Molecular Formula	Diesel (wt.%)	Turpentine (wt.%)	Oxygenated Turpentine (wt.%)
Trans-verbenol	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	-	-	6.66
Verbenone	C ₁₀ H ₁₄ O	-	-	3.11
Patchoulane	C ₁₅ H ₂₆	-	-	8.29

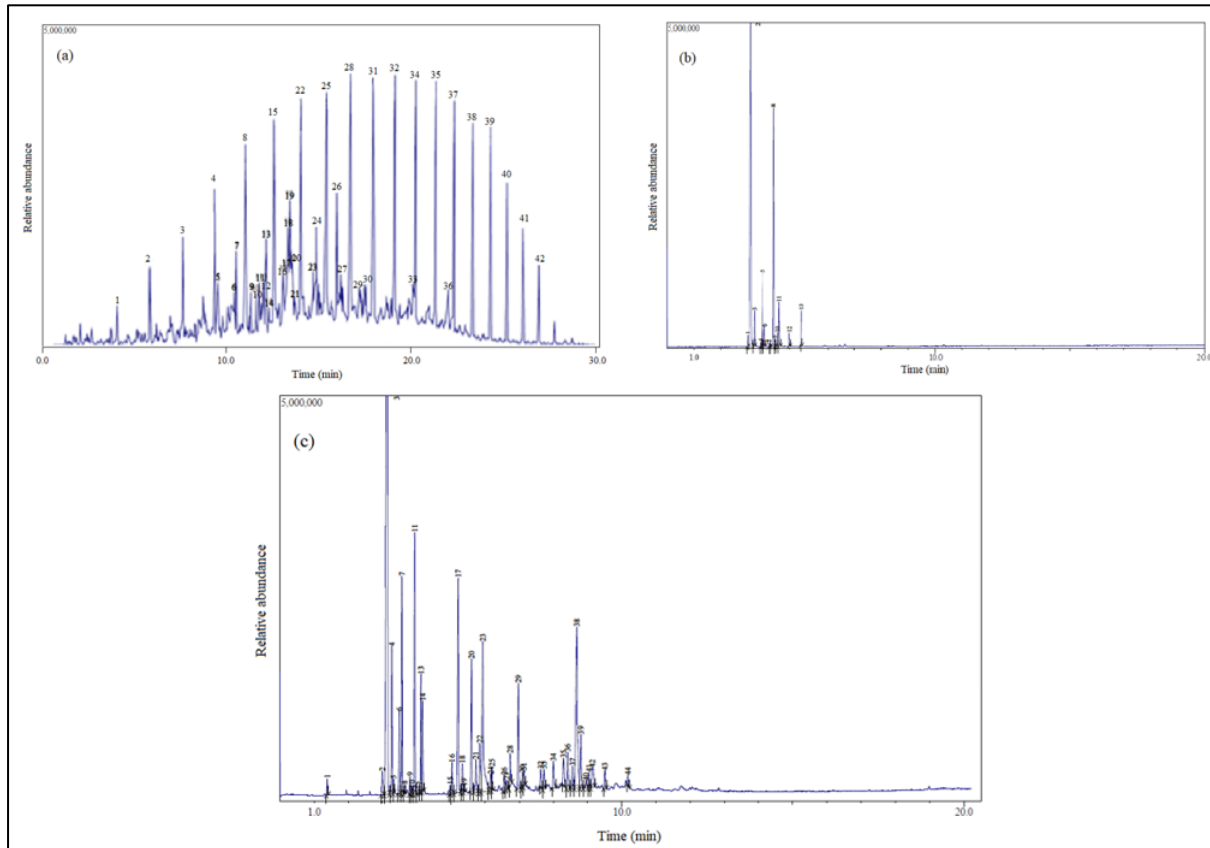


Fig. 3. Gas chromatogram of (a) diesel fuel, (b) turpentine, and (c) oxygenated turpentine

Referring to **Fig. 3** (a–c), the chemical compositions of diesel fuel were traced at the beginning of the retention period until the procedure was nearly complete in 30 min. On the other hand, the situation for turpentine and oxygenated turpentine is quite different. As for turpentine, chemical compositions were traced at the beginning of the retention period, and the procedure was nearly complete at the retention time of 4.993 min. Meanwhile, the chemical composition of oxygenated turpentine was analysed at the beginning of the retention period (1.385 min), and the procedure was nearly complete by the retention time of 10.175 min. The results showed that the chemical compositions of turpentine and oxygenated turpentine were identified at the start of the retention period.

In contrast, the chemical compositions of diesel fuel were detected during the retention period. Thus, the early detection of the chemical compositions of turpentine and oxygenated turpentine reveals that both fuels contain chemical compounds with high volatility. On the other hand, the late detection of the chemical compounds of diesel fuel suggests that diesel fuel contains chemical compounds with low volatility. The volatility of the chemical compound directly influences the flash point of the fuel. This finding is consistent with the mass spectrometer observation of diesel fuel, which is attributed to its low molecular weight components; thus, diesel fuel is more volatile than turpentine and oxygenated turpentine.

Fig. 3(a) shows that diesel fuel comprises saturated hydrocarbons (HCs), such as regular paraffin and cycloparaffins. The primary components of diesel fuel include hexadecane (n-cetane), pristane

(2,6,10,14-tetramethylpentadecane), and paraffin (Rosner & Organisation, 1996). Turpentine, on the other hand, contains at least 12 compounds, as shown in **Fig. 3** (b), with the most abundant being α -pinene (61.61%), δ -care (19.70%), β -pinene (4.8%), limonene (3.58%), and camphene (2.25%), with retention times of 3.127 min, 3.950 min, 3.568 min, 4.712 min, and 3.267 min, respectively. These findings are consistent with prior research (Jonsson, Hallquist, & Ljungström, 2006). The oxidation process has significantly altered the chemical composition of turpentine. **Table 2** shows the chemical components of oxygenated turpentine, where GC-MS discovered at least 44 compounds, as presented in **Fig. 3** (c). The oxidation of turpentine produces a range of new compounds with varied compositions. The composition of key turpentine components was significantly reduced after oxidation. For instance, α -pinene (32.68%; reduced from previously 61.61%), δ -care (5.77%; reduced from previously 19.70%), β -pinene (4.44%, reduced from previously 4.8%), and limonene (1.93%; reduced from previously 3.58%). New oxygenated compounds with significant compositions, such as α -pinene oxide, patchoulane, trans-verbenol, verbenone, and α -champhor aldehyde, were discovered with retention times of 5.213 min, 8.684 min, 5.932 min, 6.974 min, and 5.604 min, respectively. More oxygen-related functional groups, such as hydroxyl (-OH), aldehyde (-HC=O), and ketone (-C=O), are present in oxygenated products. These findings demonstrated the effectiveness of specific turpentine oxidation processes, and the major oxygenated molecules derived from the oxidation of α -pinene and δ -carene are the two most essential elements of turpentine.

In general, the energy content of a fuel may be predicted based on the HC chain length. An increased HC chain length results in higher energy density, higher boiling points, and lower volatility (Bacha, Freel, Gibbs, Gibbs, & Hemighaus, 2007). In contrast, fuel containing common alkane HCs provides the best ignition quality, which improves with increasing chain length. The diesel fuel was primarily composed of paraffin (alkane) and aromatic families, as indicated by the gas chromatography results in **Table 2**. Diesel fuel has an outstanding ignition quality due to the presence of the alkane family. Moreover, the aromatic family's presence contributes to the diesel fuel's high energy content per unit volume (Pulkrabek, 2000). Meanwhile, the properties of turpentine and oxygenated turpentine are predicted to have poorer ignition quality and energy content due to the lack of alkane and aromatic components.

Furthermore, the number of atoms in the molecular structure significantly impacts the fuel's boiling temperature. The boiling temperature increases as the number of atoms in the molecular structure increases. As a result, fuels with fewer atoms in their molecular structure are more volatile (Ganesan, 1994). When comparing the chemical composition of diesel fuel with turpentine and oxygenated turpentine, it was discovered that the significant alkane HC in diesel fuel has a carbon (C) atom count of 14–32. Meanwhile, turpentine and oxygenated turpentine were primarily composed of α -pinene and δ -carene, both of which contain 10 carbon atoms. Therefore, the lower number of atoms in both fuels causes them to boil at lower temperatures, making them more volatile.

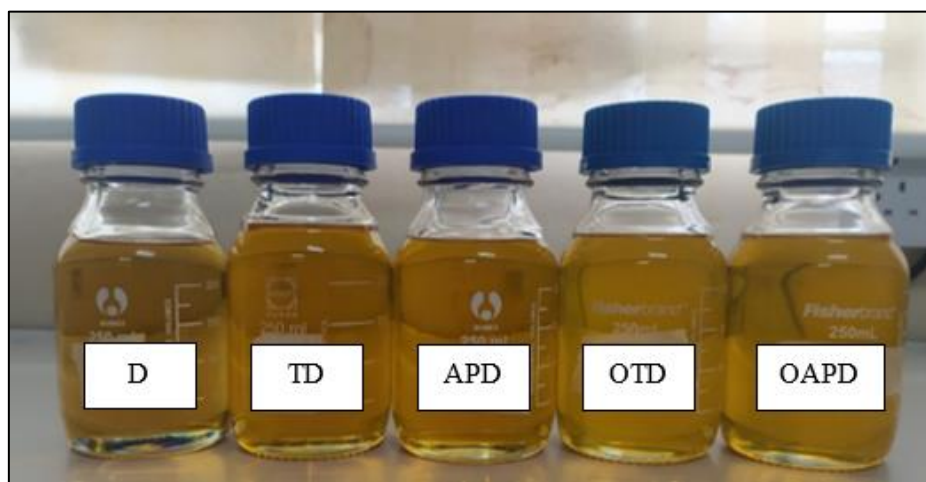


Fig. 4. Samples of test fuels

In contrast, due to the larger number of atoms in the molecular structure of diesel fuel, its boiling temperature and volatility are expected to be higher. Additionally, the hydrogen-to-carbon (H₂/C) ratio is directly related to the calorific value. Hydrogen has a higher calorific value than carbon. The calorific value typically increases as the number of H₂ to C atoms increases (Ganesan, 2012). According to the findings in **Table 2**, diesel fuel has a higher proportion of H₂ to C atoms than turpentine and oxygenated turpentine. Hence, the calorific value of diesel fuel is higher than that of turpentine and oxygenated turpentine. **Fig. 4** shows the samples of test fuels after blending with diesel fuel. After mixing, one of the most critical processes is stability analysis. The analysis must be performed before further testing of the test fuels. The long-term stability of the bio-additives blended with diesel fuel can be accomplished by using a suitable procedure to prepare test fuels.

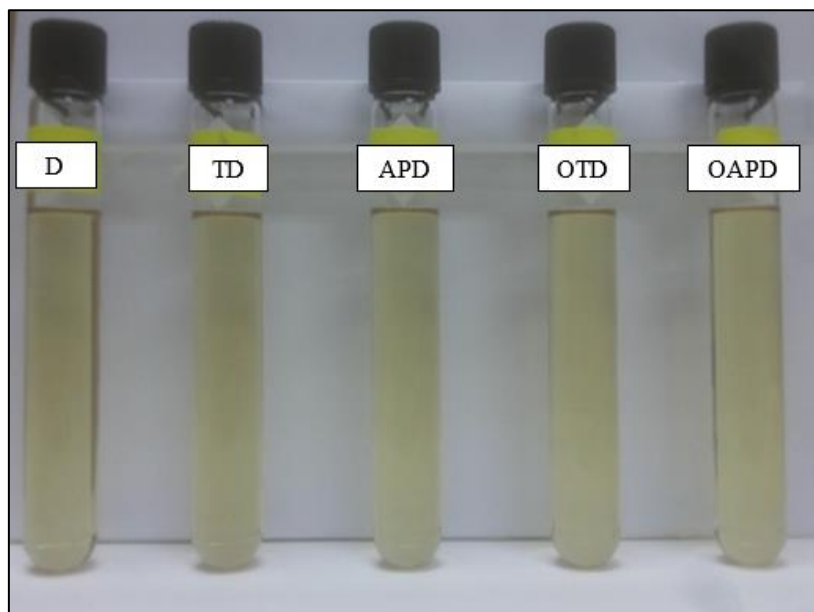


Fig. 5. Test fuels in conical plastic tubes for stability test

A visual separation method was used in this study, as shown in **Fig. 5**. The Visual separation method was performed by taking pictures over a period while waiting for the additives to settle to the bottom or the top of the test tube without disturbance. The appearance of any separating layer was continuously monitored. After blending, observations were recorded for up to 30 days. The samples were well-blended if the additives were soluble in diesel fuel. This is because bio additives are soluble in diesel. After 30 days of stability analysis, there was no separating layer for all the test fuels. Additionally, the specific gravity of the test fuels was monitored and recorded every 3 days for 30 days. All the test fuels were ensured to obtain constant specific gravity before further testing.

Density

Fig. 6 presents the effect of additives and oxygenated additives on the density of test fuels. As shown in **Table 3**, the density of the test fuels used in this study ranged from 857.72 kg/m³ to 877.06 kg/m³. The lowest density is D (857.72 kg/m³). The density of test fuels increased compared to D for TD, OTD, APD, and OAPD with the values of 866.79 kg/m³ (1.06%), 867.92 kg/m³ (1.19%), 877.06 kg/m³ (2.25%), and 866.62 kg/m³ (1.04%), respectively. Adding additives increased the density of test fuels. This is because the density of turpentine and alpha-pinene oil is higher than that of diesel. Notably, APD has the maximum density, which is 2.25% higher than the density of diesel. The density of OTD increased slightly while the density of OAPD decreased when oxygenated, with a 1.19% increment and a 1.04% decrement, respectively. These data support the idea that various additives can alter the density of diesel fuel. This is primarily due to the higher density of additives in diesel fuel, ranging from 0.47% to 1.4% (Jeevanantham et al., 2020). According to previous research, increased density affected advanced injection timing, resulting in considerable degradation of engine performance and increased

exhaust emissions (Torres-Jimenez et al., 2011). However, this constraint can be overcome by minor modifications of injection timing at the engine (Kegl, 2006).

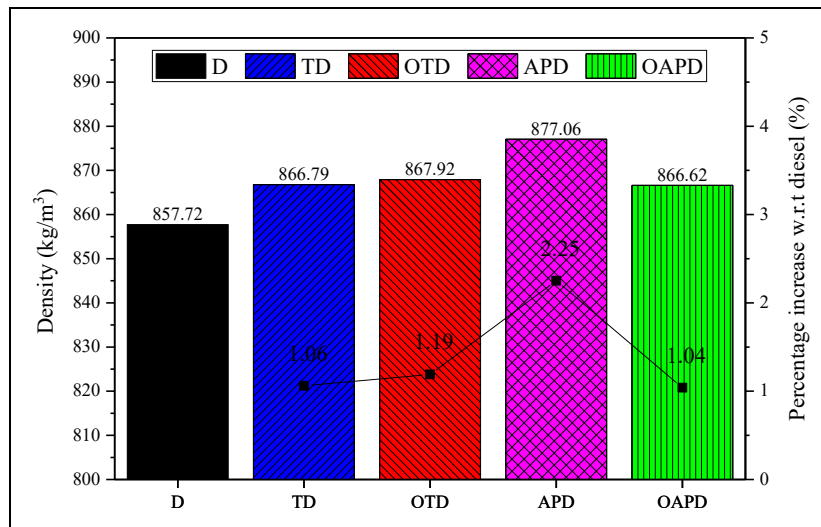


Fig. 6. Effect of additives and oxygenated additives on the density of test fuels

Kinematic viscosity

Fig. 7 shows the effect of additives and oxygenated additives on the kinematic viscosities of test fuels at 40°C. The kinematic viscosity of additive-diesel fuel blends ranged from 2.83 mm²/s to 3.32 mm²/s. D has the highest kinematic viscosity, while OAPD has the lowest. From Fig. 7, D has the highest viscosity of 3.32 mm²/s, followed by OTD, TD, APD, and OAPD with viscosities of 3.18 mm²/s, 3.08 mm²/s, 2.94 mm²/s, and 2.83 mm²/s, respectively. Furthermore, when compared to diesel fuel, the viscosity difference between diesel fuel with TD, OTD, APD, and OAPD is 7.23%, 4.22%, 11.45%, and 14.76%, respectively. Notably, diesel fuels with additive blends have a lower viscosity than diesel. This is due to the lower viscosity of pure additive oil compared to diesel fuel; hence, the viscosity of the test fuels decreases. Many studies have proved the significant role of fuel viscosity in injection systems.

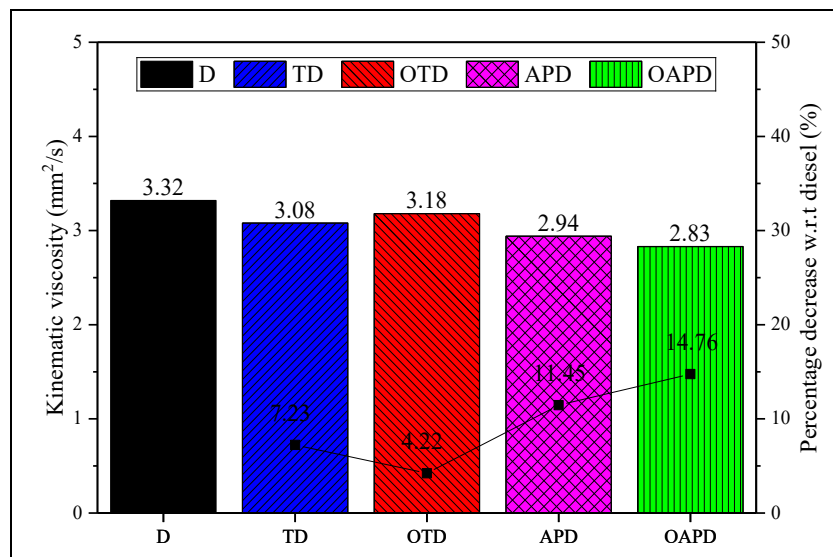


Fig. 7. Effect of additives and oxygenated additives on the kinematic viscosity of test fuels

Higher viscosity fuels have inferior atomisation and affect the fuel injector, resulting in incomplete combustion, low engine performance, severe engine damage, and the deposit of solid, unburnt particles. However, low-viscosity fuels do not effectively lubricate the pump and injector, and excessively low

viscosity may reduce fuel delivery due to leakage. Therefore, optimal viscosity is required. Hence, ASTM D975 limits the acceptable range of fuel viscosity to between 1.3 m²/s and 4.5 m²/s. Fuel viscosity also affects the combustion chamber's atomisation process and spray pattern. As the viscosity decreases, it is expected that fuel atomisation is enhanced when additives are added to diesel fuel, resulting in a direct improvement in engine power output. Low fuel viscosity leads to smaller droplet size in spray, thus increasing the droplet surface area, enhancing evaporation, and improving combustion. The kinematic viscosity of the test fuels is similar to that reported in a previous study, where the kinematic viscosity of diesel fuel-turpentine blends decreased with the addition of turpentine to diesel (Dubey & Gupta, 2016). The kinematic viscosity of the oxygenated additive-diesel fuel blends is similar to that of the diesel fuel (Yoshimoto, Kinoshita, Shanbu, & Ohmura, 2013).

Calorific value

Fig. 8 illustrates the impact of additives and oxygenated additives on the calorific value of the test fuels. OTD has the highest calorific value (44.94 MJ/kg), while OAPD has the lowest (41.09 MJ/kg). OAPD has the lowest calorific value (41.09 MJ/kg), followed by D, TD, APD, and OTD with the calorific values of 42.43 MJ/kg, 42.63 MJ/kg, 42.71 MJ/kg, and 44.94 MJ/kg, respectively. Furthermore, the calorific value difference between diesel fuel with TD, OTD, APD, and OAPD is 0.47%, 5.92%, 0.66%, and -3.16%, respectively. It is noted that the calorific value of additive-diesel blends is higher than that of diesel fuel. Thus, adding additives to blended fuels increases the calorific value of the fuel blends compared to diesel. This is primarily due to the higher calorific value of additive oil, which is significantly higher than diesel fuel by 4.0–5.4% (Jeevanantham et al., 2020; Raman, Sivasankaralingam, Dibble, & Sarathy, 2016). The findings are consistent with those of previous researchers (Dubey & Gupta, 2018; Loganathan & Manoharan, 2017), who found that adding turpentine to fuel blends improves the calorific value. Additionally, oxygenated fuel exhibits an improvement in calorific value. This aligns with OTD's calorific value data, which significantly increased to 5%. In contrast, the calorific value of OAPD decreased. This is due to the reactivity of alpha-pinene being oxygenated, as explained by the researchers who studied the oxidation and degradation of pinene (Liu et al., 2021).

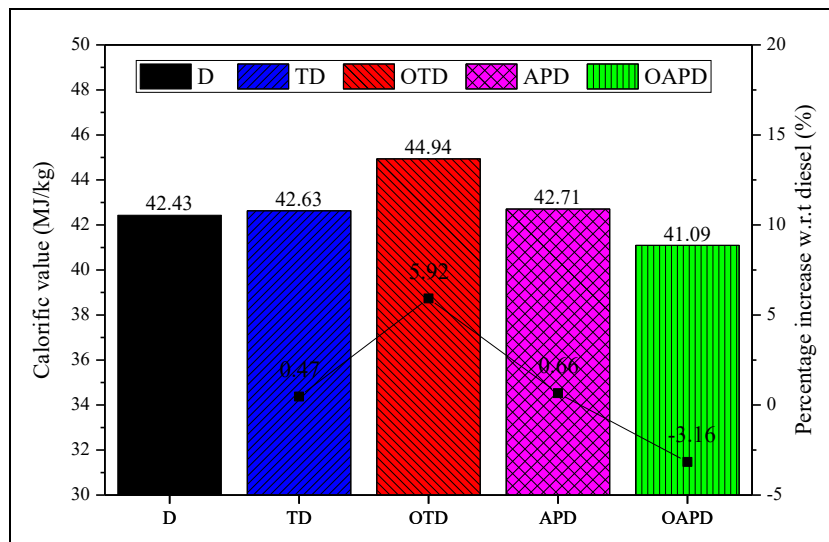


Fig. 8. Effect of additives and oxygenated additives on the calorific value of test fuels

Cetane number

Fig. 9 shows the effect of additives and oxygenated additives on the cetane number of test fuels. It reveals that the cetane number of test fuels ranged from 63.78 to 69.46. The cetane numbers of D, TD, OTD, APD, and OAPD are 67.3, 63.78, 64.17, 69.46, and 66.01, respectively. Most test fuels with additives showed lower cetane numbers than diesel. The percentages of reduction in cetane number concerning D for TD, OTD, APD, and OAPD are 5.23%, 4.65%, -3.20%, and 1.92%, respectively. This is due to the lower cetane number of turpentine (38) than the cetane number of diesel (53)

(Jeevanantham et al., 2020). However, it is notable that APD has the highest cetane number of 69.46, which is greater than diesel fuel with a cetane number of 67.3. The significant component in the alpha-pinene composition is responsible for the higher cetane number. According to Jose and Anand (Jose & Anand, 2016), most biofuels have higher cetane numbers than diesel fuel because biofuels are mostly made up of long-chain HC groups. Furthermore, the increased content of saturated fatty acids and oxygen (O₂) in the fuel composition leads to a higher cetane number for biofuels (Bhuiya et al., 2016; Mosarof et al., 2015). Because APD has a higher cetane number, less fuel is consumed during premix combustion and more fuel is burned during diffusion combustion. This circumstance causes the pressure rate to rise in the cylinder and slow down, potentially resulting in a lower in-cylinder temperature.

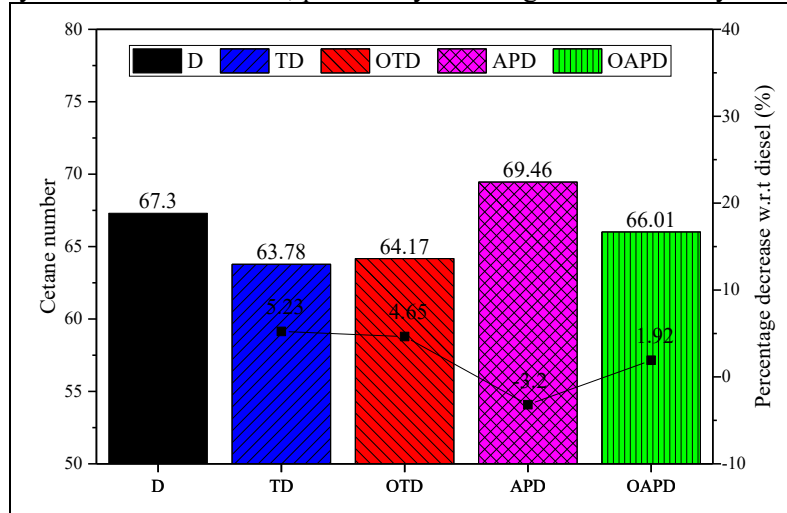


Fig. 9. Effect of additives and oxygenated additives on the cetane number of test fuels

The physicochemical properties of fuel play a crucial role in determining engine combustion, performance, and emissions. Therefore, these physicochemical properties must be determined first before further studying the mixed fuels. These parameters are crucial in understanding the character of each test fuel before associating it with any findings, such as engine characteristics. Identifying the effect of adding pure alpha-pinene oil and oxygenated oil to fuel blends is significant for describing the trend in fuel properties. Density, viscosity, calorific value, and cetane number are all test fuel properties evaluated in this study. All measurements of fuel quality were conducted following ASTM standards. Table 3 presents the measured fuel physicochemical properties of the test fuels.

Table 3. The physicochemical properties of test fuels

Property	ASTM D975		D	TD	OTD	APD	OAPD
	Test No.	Limits					
Density @ 15 °C (kg/m ³)	ASTM D4052	-	857.72	866.79	867.92	877.06	866.62
Kinematic viscosity @ 40 °C (mm ² /s)	ASTM D445	1.9 – 4.1	3.32	3.08	3.18	2.94	2.83
Calorific value (MJ/kg)	ASTM D240	-	42.43	42.63	44.94	42.71	41.09
Cetane number	ASTM D613	Min. 40	67.3	63.78	64.17	69.46	66.01

4. Conclusion

This study evaluated the effect of bio-additives, including turpentine and alpha-pinene, both in their pure form and after undergoing the oxygenation process, on the physicochemical properties of diesel fuel. The results showed that adding bio-additives significantly affected the fuel's density, viscosity, calorific value, and cetane number. The density of the blended fuel increased compared to pure diesel (857.72 kg/m³), with the highest value in the alpha pinene-diesel blend of 877.06 kg/m³. This increase in density indicates a change in fuel composition that can affect atomization and combustion in the engine. In terms of viscosity, adding bio-additives decreased the viscosity value of the fuel compared to pure diesel (3.32 mm²/s). The blend with oxygenated alpha-pinene had the lowest viscosity of 2.83 mm²/s, while the blend with oxygenated turpentine showed a viscosity of 3.18 mm²/s. This decrease in viscosity can enhance the quality of fuel atomization, leading to more efficient combustion.

The calorific value of the blended fuels increased in some formulations compared to pure diesel (42.43 MJ/kg). The oxygenated turpentine blend had the highest calorific value of 44.94 MJ/kg, indicating the potential for increasing fuel energy efficiency. In contrast, the oxygenated alpha-pinene blend had the lowest calorific value of 41.09 MJ/kg, indicating that the oxygenation process can affect the energy content of the fuel differently depending on the type of bio-additive used.

Cetane number analysis showed that most of the bio-additive blends experienced a decrease in cetane number compared to pure diesel (67.3). The turpentine-diesel blend had the lowest cetane number of 63.78, while the alpha pinene-diesel blend had the highest cetane number of 69.46, which exceeded pure diesel's cetane number. This increase in cetane number suggests that specific formulations of bio-additives can enhance the ignition performance of the fuel in diesel engines. Additionally, gas chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis revealed significant changes in chemical composition following oxygenation. The main compounds in turpentine, such as α -pinene (61.81%) and δ -carene (19.70%), were reduced to 32.68% and 5.77% after oxygenation, while new compounds such as α -pinene-oxide (6.15%) and trans-verbenol (6.66%) appeared after oxygenation. These changes indicate that oxygenation can increase the oxygen content of bio-additives, potentially improving combustion efficiency and reducing exhaust emissions. Overall, this study demonstrates that turpentine and alpha-pinene bio-additives can be utilised as components in diesel fuel, with varying effects on the fuel's physicochemical properties. Turpentine oxygenation has the highest calorific value, which has the potential to improve energy efficiency. In contrast, alpha pinene-diesel exhibits the highest cetane number, which can enhance combustion efficiency. These findings provide new insights into the development of bio-additive-based fuels, although further research is needed to fully evaluate their impacts on engine performance and exhaust emissions.

Acknowledgement

The author would like to acknowledge the financial support in the form of a research grant by the Ministry of Science & Technology under the research grant number 000223

References

- Alenezi, R. A., Erdiwansyah, Mamat, R., Norkhizan, A. M., & Najafi, G. (2020). The Effect of Fusel-Biodiesel Blends on the Emissions and Performance of a Single-Cylinder Diesel Engine. *Fuel*, 279, 118438. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2020.118438>
- Alenezi, R. A., Norkhizan, A. M., Mamat, R., Erdiwansyah, Najafi, G., & Mazlan, M. (2021). Investigating the contribution of carbon nanotubes and diesel-biodiesel blends to emission and combustion characteristics of diesel engine. *Fuel*, 285, 119046. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2020.119046>
- Alli, A. K., & Kotha, M. M. (2023). Significance of fuel additives on the performance and emission characteristics of diesel engine with biodiesel fuel: a review. *International Journal of Ambient Energy*, 44(1), 1990–2004.
- Almardhiyah, F., Mahidin, M., Fauzi, F., Abnisa, F., & Khairil, K. (2025). Optimization of Aceh Low-

- Rank Coal Upgrading Process with Combination of Heating Media to Reduce Water Content through Response Surface Method. *International Journal of Science & Advanced Technology (IJSAT)*, 1(1), 29–37.
- Bacha, J., Freel, J., Gibbs, A., Gibbs, L., & Hemighaus, G. (2007). Diesel fuels technical review. Chevron Production Company, San Ramon, CA., USA.
- Bahagia, B., Nizar, M., Yasin, M. H. M., Rosdi, S. M., & Faisal, M. (2025). Advancements in Communication and Information Technologies for Smart Energy Systems and Renewable Energy Transition: A Review. *International Journal of Engineering and Technology (IJET)*, 1(1), 1–29.
- Bhuiya, M. M. K., Rasul, M. G., Khan, M. M. K., Ashwath, N., Azad, A. K., & Hazrat, M. A. (2016). Prospects of 2nd generation biodiesel as a sustainable fuel–Part 2: Properties, performance and emission characteristics. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 55, 1129–1146.
- Biodun, B. M., Fayomi, O. S. I., & Okeniyi, O. J. (2022). Comparative Analysis and Performance Characteristics of Bio-Additives Induced Fuel Blend. *Key Engineering Materials*, 936, 117–124.
- Dubey, P., & Gupta, R. (2016). Study of the performance and emission characteristics for a dual fuel powered single cylinder diesel engine. *International Journal of Automotive and Mechanical Engineering*, 13(2), 3373–3388. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.15282/ijame.13.2.2016.7.0279>
- Dubey, P., & Gupta, R. (2018). Influences of dual bio-fuel (Jatropha biodiesel and turpentine oil) on single cylinder variable compression ratio diesel engine. *Renewable Energy*, 115, 1294–1302. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2017.09.055>
- Erdiwansyah, Gani, A., Mamat, R., Bahagia, Nizar, M., Yana, S., ... Rosdi, S. M. (2024). Prospects for renewable energy sources from biomass waste in Indonesia. *Case Studies in Chemical and Environmental Engineering*, 10, 100880. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cscee.2024.100880>
- Erdiwansyah, Mamat, R., Sani, M. S. M., & Sudhakar, K. (2019). Renewable energy in Southeast Asia: Policies and recommendations. *Science of The Total Environment*. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.03.273>
- Erdiwansyah, Mamat, R., Sani, M. S. M., Sudhakar, K., Kadarohman, A., & Sardjono, R. E. (2019). An overview of Higher alcohol and biodiesel as alternative fuels in engines. *Energy Reports*, 5, 467–479. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.egyr.2019.04.009>
- Fitriyana, D. F., Rusiyanto, R., & Maawa, W. (2025). Renewable Energy Application Research Using VOSviewer software: Bibliometric Analysis. *International Journal of Science & Advanced Technology (IJSAT)*, 1(1), 92–107.
- Ganesan, V. (1994). *Engine Internal Combustion*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Ganesan, V. (2012). *Internal combustion engines*. McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt Ltd.
- Gani, A., Saisa, S., Muhtadin, M., Bahagia, B., Erdiwansyah, E., & Lisafitri, Y. (2025). Optimisation of home grid-connected photovoltaic systems: performance analysis and energy implications. *International Journal of Engineering and Technology (IJET)*, 1(1), 63–74.
- Ghazali, M. F., Rosdi, S. M., Erdiwansyah, & Mamat, R. (2025). Effect of the ethanol-fusel oil mixture on combustion stability, efficiency, and engine performance. *Results in Engineering*, 25, 104273. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rineng.2025.104273>
- Holechek, J. L., Geli, H. M. E., Sawalhah, M. N., & Valdez, R. (2022). A global assessment: can renewable energy replace fossil fuels by 2050? *Sustainability*, 14(8), 4792.
- Iqbal, I., Rosdi, S. M., Muhtadin, M., Erdiwansyah, E., & Faisal, M. (2025). Optimisation of combustion parameters in turbocharged engines using computational fluid dynamics modelling. *International Journal of Simulation, Optimization & Modelling*, 1(1), 63–69.
- Irhamni, I., Kurnianingtyas, E., Muhtadin, M., Bahagia, B., & Yusop, A. F. (2025). Bibliometric Analysis of Renewable Energy Research Trends Using VOSviewer: Network Mapping and Topic Evolution. *International Journal of Engineering and Technology (IJET)*, 1(1), 75–82.
- Jalaludin, H. A., Kamarulzaman, M. K., Sudrajad, A., Rosdi, S. M., & Erdiwansyah, E. (2025). Engine Performance Analysis Based on Speed and Throttle Through Simulation. *International Journal of Simulation, Optimization & Modelling*, 1(1), 86–93.
- Jeevanantham, A. K., Madhusudan Reddy, D., Goyal, N., Bansal, D., Kumar, G., Kumar, A., ... Ashok, B. (2020). Experimental study on the effect of cetane improver with turpentine oil on CI engine

- characteristics. *Fuel*, 262(November 2019), 116551. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2019.116551>
- Jonsson, Å. M., Hallquist, M., & Ljungström, E. (2006). Impact of humidity on the ozone initiated oxidation of limonene, Δ^3 -carene, and α -pinene. *Environmental Science & Technology*, 40(1), 188–194.
- Jose, T. K., & Anand, K. (2016). Effects of biodiesel composition on its long term storage stability. *Fuel*, 177, 190–196.
- Kegl, B. (2006). Experimental investigation of optimal timing of the diesel engine injection pump using biodiesel fuel. *Energy & Fuels*, 20(4), 1460–1470.
- Khalisha, N., Caisarina, I., & Fakhrana, S. Z. (2025). Mobility Patterns of Rural Communities in Traveling from The Origin Area to the Destination. *International Journal of Science & Advanced Technology (IJSAT)*, 1(1), 108–119.
- Kohse-Höinghaus, K. (2021). Combustion in the future: The importance of chemistry. *Proceedings of the Combustion Institute*, 38(1), 1–56.
- Kurniawan, A., Setyaningsih, D., & Setiaprada, H. (2021). Study on the utilization of essential oil as an additive for pure plant oil in single cylinder diesel engine. In *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science* (Vol. 749, p. 12051). IOP Publishing.
- Labeckas, G., Slavinskas, S., & Kanapkienė, I. (2017). The individual effects of cetane number, oxygen content or fuel properties on the ignition delay, combustion characteristics, and cyclic variation of a turbocharged CRDI diesel engine—Part 1. *Energy Conversion and Management*, 148, 1003–1027.
- Liu, P., Liu, X., Saburi, T., Kubota, S., Huang, P., & Wada, Y. (2021). Thermal stability and oxidation characteristics of α -pinene, β -pinene and α -pinene/ β -pinene mixture. *RSC Advances*, 11(33), 20529–20540. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1039/d1ra02235k>
- Loganathan, K., & Manoharan, C. (2017). Evaluation of performance and emission features of jatropa biodiesel-turpentine blend as green fuel. *Thermal Science*, 21(1), 615–625. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.2298/TSCI160625271L>
- Mosarof, M. H., Kalam, M. A., Masjuki, H. H., Ashraful, A. M., Rashed, M. M., Imdadul, H. K., & Monirul, I. M. (2015). Implementation of palm biodiesel based on economic aspects, performance, emission, and wear characteristics. *Energy Conversion and Management*, 105, 617–629.
- Mufti, A. A., Irhamni, I., & Darnas, Y. (2025). Exploration of predictive models in optimising renewable energy integration in grid systems. *International Journal of Science & Advanced Technology (IJSAT)*, 1(1), 47–61.
- Muhibbuddin, M., Hamidi, M. A., & Fitriyana, D. F. (2025). Bibliometric Analysis of Renewable Energy Technologies Using VOSviewer: Mapping Innovations and Applications. *International Journal of Science & Advanced Technology (IJSAT)*, 1(1), 81–91.
- Muhtadin, M., Rosdi, S. M., Faisal, M., Erdiwansyah, E., & Mahyudin, M. (2025). Analysis of NO_x, HC, and CO Emission Prediction in Internal Combustion Engines by Statistical Regression and ANOVA Methods. *International Journal of Simulation, Optimization & Modelling*, 1(1), 94–102.
- Muzakki, M. I., & Putro, R. K. H. (2025). Greenhouse Gas Emission Inventory at Benowo Landfill Using IPCC Method. *International Journal of Science & Advanced Technology (IJSAT)*, 1(1), 18–28.
- NOOR, C. H. E. W. A. N. M., Arif, F., & Rusirawan, D. (2025). Optimising Engine Performance and Emission Characteristics Through Advanced Simulation Techniques. *International Journal of Simulation, Optimization & Modelling*, 1(1), 10–20.
- Pranoto, H., Rusiyanto, R., & Fitriyana, D. F. (2025). Sustainable Wastewater Management in Sumedang: Design, Treatment Technologies, and Resource Recovery. *International Journal of Science & Advanced Technology (IJSAT)*, 1(1), 38–46.
- Pulkrabek, W. W. (2000). *Engineering fundamentals of the internal combustion engine*. Prentice hall of India.
- Raman, V., Sivasankaralingam, V., Dibble, R., & Sarathy, S. M. (2016). *α -Pinene-A High Energy Density Biofuel for SI Engine Applications*. Retrieved from SAE Technical Paper:
- Rosdi, S. M. M., Erdiwansyah, Ghazali, M. F., & Mamat, R. (2025). Evaluation of engine performance

- and emissions using blends of gasoline, ethanol, and fusel oil. *Case Studies in Chemical and Environmental Engineering*, 11, 101065. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cscee.2024.101065>
- Rosdi, S. M., Maghfirah, G., Erdiwansyah, E., Syafrizal, S., & Muhibbuddin, M. (2025). Bibliometric Study of Renewable Energy Technology Development: Application of VOSviewer in Identifying Global Trends. *International Journal of Science & Advanced Technology (IJSAT)*, 1(1), 71–80.
- Rosli, M. A., Xiaoxia, J., & Shuai, Z. (2025). Machine Learning-Driven Optimisation of Aerodynamic Designs for High-Performance Vehicles. *International Journal of Simulation, Optimization & Modelling*, 1(1), 43–53.
- Rosner, G., & Organization, W. H. (1996). *Diesel fuel and exhaust emissions*. World Health Organization.
- Torres-Jimenez, E., Jerman, M. S., Gregorc, A., Lisec, I., Dorado, M. P., & Kegl, B. (2011). Physical and chemical properties of ethanol–diesel fuel blends. *Fuel*, 90(2), 795–802.
- Xiaoxia, J., Lin, D., & Salleh, M. Z. (2025). Mathematical Modelling and Optimisation of Supply Chain Networks Under Uncertain Demand Scenarios. *International Journal of Simulation, Optimization & Modelling*, 1(1), 54–62.
- Yoshimoto, Y., Kinoshita, E., Shanbu, L., & Ohmura, T. (2013). Influence of 1-butanol addition on diesel combustion with palm oil methyl ester/gas oil blends. *Energy*, 61, 44–51. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2012.11.039>