#### **5.1 PRODUCTION**

 Jet A fuels because these chemicals are not required to be reported under Section 313 of the Emergency No information is available in the TRI database on facilities that manufacture or process JP-5, JP-8, and Planning and Community Right-to-Know Act (Title III of the Superfund Amendments and Reauthorization Act of 1986) (EPA 2005).

 oil had been used to manufacture jet fuels, but this is no longer economically feasible (Chevron 2006). Figure 4-1 provides a general schematic for the straight-run production of jet fuels from crude oil. Heated crude oil is introduced into an atmospheric pressure distillation unit and the liquefied petroleum gasses (propane and butane) are boiled off from the top of the distillation column and eventually recondensed by a condenser unit. Middle distillates such as kerosene and diesel are drawn off the distillation column and treated by various processes that remove or reduce undesirable components before becoming jet fuels using a catalyst and an alkaline solution. The disulfides are noncorrosive and may be left in the final product or removed by additional treatment to lower the sulfur content of the resultant jet fuel. containing compounds from the distilled kerosene. Jet fuel manufactured by a particular refinery may be derived exclusively from straight-run processing or it may be a blend of straight-run, hydroprocessed, As discussed in Chapter 4, most jet fuels are derived from petroleum. During the 1970s and 1980s, shale (API 2010b; Chevron 2006). The sweetening process removes corrosive mercaptans from the kerosene fraction by the mercapton oxidation (Merox) process in which mercaptans are converted to disulfides Hydroprocessing employs hydrogen and an appropriate catalyst to remove olefins, sulfur, and nitrogenand/or hydrocracked product (as depicted in Figure 4-1); however, the finished product must meet all of the performance and regulatory requirements of the specific fuel as discussed in Chapter 4.

 Concern that diminishing oil supplies could disrupt production of jet fuels from traditional petroleum been used to develop synthetic jet fuels from feedstocks other than petroleum (Chevron 2006; FAA with catalysts to produce a variety of hydrocarbons. These hydrocarbons are then blended to produce a highly paraffinic synthetic jet fuel that contains virtually no sulfur, nitrogen, or aromatic compounds. The benefits and disadvantages of producing jet fuels using the Fischer-Tropsch process and other methods sources has prompted research into alternative production methods. The Fischer-Tropsch process has 2009). In this process, Syngas (synthesis gas), a mixture of carbon monoxide and hydrogen, is reacted compared to traditional manufacturing methods using petroleum feedstock have been reviewed in a

technical report produced by the Rand Corporation and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) (FAA 2009).

 data were derived from the EPA Inventory Update Reporting (IUR) system (EPA 2010) and the newly (http://www.epa.gov/oppt/cdr/), approximately  $2.07x10^{11}$  pounds (93,725,241 tonnes) of kerosene was information (CBI) and therefore, the actual production volume is expected to be greater than what is Domestic production, import, and export data for kerosene is summarized in Tables 5-1 and 5-2. These developed Chemical Data Reporting (CDR) database (EPA 2012a). According to the CDR website manufactured in 2012; however, several companies claimed this information as confidential business indicated in Table 5-1 (EPA 2012a).

 While the demand for kerosene has gradually declined over the previous 4 decades, demand for jet fuels and to simply divert a portion of the product for marketing as kerosene (IARC 1989). In the United States, production of jet fuels, including both kerosene-type (JP-5 and JP-8) and wide-cut fuels, increased consumption of jet fuels in the United States in 2010 and 2011 was 1.43 and 1.42 million barrels per day, respectively, for an annual consumption rate of 521,950,000 barrels consumed in 2010 and 518,300,000 has steadily increased. As a result, many refiners have chosen to produce Jet A-1 as their basic product from 37,636,000 tonnes (293,560,800 barrels) in 1970 to 56,939,000 tonnes (444,124,200 barrels) in 1985 (IARC 1989). In the countries of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), production increased from 57,659,000 tonnes (449,740,200 barrels) to 90,280,000 tonnes (704,184,000 barrels) during the same time period (IARC 1989). According to the Department of Energy, the barrels consumed in 2011 (EIA 2013c). The consumption rate is projected to increase to 1.52 million barrels per day (554,800,000 barrels annually) by 2020, 1.60 million barrels per day (584,000,000 barrels annually) by 2030, and 1.66 million barrels per day (605,900,000 barrels annually) by 2040 (EIA 2013c).

 Data regarding the weekly production of jet fuels by U.S. refineries since 2010 are provided in Tables 5-3 (commercial jet fuels) and 5-4 (military jet fuels) from the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA 2014a).

#### **5.2 IMPORT/EXPORT**

 Imports of distillate fuels have varied from year to year since the 1970s. Since 1975, imports of distillate jet fuels such as jet fuel no. 1 into the United States have been low compared to the amount of distillate jet fuels produced in the United States (API 1991). Imports of kerosene fluctuated between 1975 and 1984









aData obtained from the EPA Chemical Data Reporting database (EPA 2012a).

CBI = confidential business information

# **Table 5-2. Non-confidential 2006 Inventory Update Reporting Records by Chemical, Including Manufacturing, Processing, and Use Information forKerosene (Petroleum); CAS Registry No. 8008-20-6; Aggregated National Production Volume: ≥1 Billion Pounds**



# **National Production Volume: ≥1 Billion PoundsTable 5-2. Non-confidential 2006 Inventory Update Reporting Records by Chemical, Including Manufacturing, Processing, and Use Information forKerosene (Petroleum); CAS Registry No. 8008-20-6; Aggregated**



# **National Production Volume: ≥1 Billion PoundsTable 5-2. Non-confidential 2006 Inventory Update Reporting Records by Chemical, Including Manufacturing, Processing, and Use Information forKerosene (Petroleum); CAS Registry No. 8008-20-6; Aggregated**



# **National Production Volume: ≥1 Billion PoundsTable 5-2. Non-confidential 2006 Inventory Update Reporting Records by Chemical, Including Manufacturing, Processing, and Use Information forKerosene (Petroleum); CAS Registry No. 8008-20-6; Aggregated**



# **Table 5-2. Non-confidential 2006 Inventory Update Reporting Records by Chemical, Including Manufacturing, Processing, and Use Information forKerosene (Petroleum); CAS Registry No. 8008-20-6; Aggregated National Production Volume: ≥1 Billion Pounds**



### **National Production Volume: ≥1 Billion Pounds Table 5-2. Non-confidential 2006 Inventory Update Reporting Records by Chemical, Including Manufacturing, Processing, and Use Information forKerosene (Petroleum); CAS Registry No. 8008-20-6; Aggregated**



aPost Office abbreviations used.

CAS = Chemical Abstracts Service; N/A = not applicable

Source: EPA 2010



# **Table 5-3. Weekly U.S. Production of Commercial Kerosene-Type Jet Fuel (Thousand Barrels per Day) Since 2010a**



### **Table 5-3. Weekly U.S. Production of Commercial Kerosene-Type Jet Fuel (Thousand Barrels per Day) Since 2010a**

aData obtained from EIA (2014a).



#### **Table 5-4. Weekly U.S. Production of Military Kerosene-Type Jet Fuel (Thousand Barrels per Day) Since 2010a**



### **Table 5-4. Weekly U.S. Production of Military Kerosene-Type Jet Fuel (Thousand Barrels per Day) Since 2010a**

aData obtained from EIA (2014b).

 jet fuels since 2000 as reported by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA 2014b). and then showed a steady increase from 1985 to 1987, attaining an annual maximum of 6,935,000 barrels in 1987. Between 1988 and 1990, imports of kerosene decreased to a low of 1,825,000 barrels (API 1991). Table 5-1 shows that approximately 2,399,093 tonnes of kerosene (18,712,925 barrels) were imported into the United States in 2012; however, several companies claimed these data as CBI and did not report any import volumes publically. Table 5-5 shows the weekly import volume of kerosene-type

 (API 1991), an increase of approximately 400%. Table 5-1 shows that approximately 1,609,977 tonnes claimed these data as CBI and did not report any export volumes publically. Table 5-6 provides the U.S. Kerosene exportation between 1987 and 1989 remained relatively constant with a yearly export average of approximately 547,500 barrels. However, by 1990, the annual export of kerosene was 2,190,000 barrels (12,557,821 barrels) of kerosene were exported from the United States in 2012; however, several companies exports of kerosene-type jet fuels since 1981 as reported by EIA (2014c).

#### **5.3 USE**

 developments allowed jet engines to dominate as power sources for aircraft by the 1960s. JP-1 was the 1969; Edwards 2003). Heavier losses in JP-4 fueled aircraft in Vietnam (versus JP-5) caused the U.S. Air but contains additive packages that may not be required for commercial jet fuels. Recent studies in the (Jet A + the additive package) in 2014 for use in the continental United States (Air Force 2013). Thus, Aviation turbine fuels were not used until the 1930s when the first turbojet engine was developed. Jet-powered aircraft had only limited use in World War II, but further military and commercial first U.S. specification for jet fuel (AN-F-32A, 1944). JP-1 was a kerosene fuel with a maximum freeze point of -60°C and a minimum flash point of 43°C established for operability and safety (Air Force 1987). The flash and freeze points establish boundaries on the minimum and maximum size, respectively, of the hydrocarbon molecules in jet fuel. As fuel specifications evolved, trading off producibility and cost versus performance and safety, the U.S. Air Force settled on JP-4 (MIL-F-5624A, a gasoline-kerosene mix) in the 1950s–1970s, the Navy has used JP-5 (a minimum 60°C flash point kerosene also listed in MIL-F-5624) shipboard since the 1950s, and commercial aviation has used Jet A/Jet A-1 (ASTM D1655, minimum 38°C flash point) since its rapid growth in the 1960s (Air Force 1987b; Dukek and Winans Force to convert to JP-8 in 1980s. As discussed in Chapter 4, JP-8 is the military equivalent to Jet A-1, United States have indicated that use of Jet A with its -40<sup>o</sup>C maximum freeze point was an acceptable and cost-effective alternative to JP-8, so the Air Force is scheduled to complete the conversion to F-24 setting aside the military additive package, jet fuels world-wide consist almost entirely of the very similar











aData obtained from EIA (2014b).



#### **Table 5-6. Monthly U.S. Exports of Kerosene-Type Jet Fuel (Thousand Barrels per Month) Since 1981a**

aData obtained from EIA (2014c).

 Jet A and Jet A-1, which essentially only differ in freeze point. The composition of these two fuels is very similar, as can be seen in fuel property collections such as the World Fuel Sampling Program DLA-Energy. For example, in 2012, the PQIS database reported on thousands of samples of Jet A, JP-8, respectively—much smaller variations than those present within each class of itself. The weighted mean aromatic content of the three fuels were 17.3, 17.1, and 17.6 vol%, respectively—again, much smaller (Hadaller and Johnson 2006) and the annual Petroleum Quality Information Service (PQIS) reports by and Jet A-1. The weighted mean freeze points of Jet A/JP-8/Jet A-1 were -49.8, -51.3, and -52.7°C, variations than seen within each fuel. Thus, for all intents and purposes, Jet A, JP-8, F-24, and Jet A-1 can be treated as the same fuel in terms of composition and fuel properties, aside from the presence of the military additive package in JP-8 and F-24.

#### **5.4 DISPOSAL**

 Vapors generated in tank truck loading of jet fuels can be disposed of by the installation of a vapor recovery system (NIOSH 1989). Runoff of jet fuels from loading and unloading aircraft operations can be separated by an on-site oil/water separation system.

 Several methods have been investigated for the disposal of jet fuels spilled onto soil from normal aircraft pull large amounts of air through soil contaminated with jet fuels (Elliot and DePaoli 1990). The vacuum pulls out the soil gas, and the jet fuel contaminants volatilize as a result of disrupted equilibrium. with jet fuels has also been investigated (OHM/TADS 1985). Other methods include absorption (straw, nonseparable particles (Butt et al. 1988). Soil contaminated with jet fuel no. 1 was found to have a operations or from accidental spills. One method, in situ soil venting, involves using vacuum blowers to Incineration of free-product extracted from contaminated media is another method of disposal proposed for soils and water contaminated with jet fuels (OHM/TADS 1985). Incineration of soils contaminated polyurethane foam, activated carbon, and peat have been used as absorbents), gelling agents, combustion promoters, dispersants, and mechanical systems (OHM/TADS 1985). Biodegradation has also been suggested as a means of disposal for spills onto soil (OHM/TADS 1985). Hydrocarbon-degrading bacteria have been shown to degrade petroleum products into smaller units and eventually into growth response of  $10^6$  colony-forming units per mL in 7 out of 21 types of bacteria isolated for sample study (Butt et al. 1988). For more information on biodegradation, refer to Chapter 5.

 law. Hazardous wastes are subject to the handling, transport, treatment, storage, and disposal regulations Wastes containing Jet A, JP-5, and JP-8 are considered hazardous if they meet certain criteria specified by

 governing the treatment and disposal of wastes containing JP-5, JP-8, and Jet A fuels are detailed in as promulgated under the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (IRPTC 1985). Regulations Chapter 7.