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2 New frontiers in the catalytic synthesis of levulinic

³ acid: from sugars to raw and waste biomass as starting

4 feedstock

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- 11 Academic Editor: name
- 12 Received: date; Accepted: date; Published: date 13

14 Abstract: Levulinic acid (LA) is one of the top bio-based platform molecules which can be 15 converted into many valuable chemicals. It can be produced by acid catalysis from renewable 16 resources, such as sugars, lignocellulosic biomass and waste materials,-which are attractive 17 candidates due to their abundance and environmentally benign nature. The LA transition from 18 niche product to mass-produced chemical, however, requires its production from sustainable 19 biomass feedstocks at low costs, adopting environment-friendly techniques. This review is an 20 up-to-date discussion of the literature available on the several catalytic systems that have been 21 developed to produce LA from the different starting substrates. Special attention has been paid to 22 the recent advancements on starting materials, moving from simple sugars to raw and waste 23 biomass. This aspect is of paramount importance from a sustainability point of view, transforming 24 wastes needing to be disposed into starting materials for value-added products. This review also 25 discusses the strategies to exploit the solid residues always obtained in the LA production processes, 26 in order to attain a circular economy approach.

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Keywords: levulinic acid; acid catalysts; sugars; raw and waste biomass; water; organic solvents.

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31 **1. Introduction**

32 One of the greatest challenges that industry faces in the 21st century is the transition from a 33 fossil-fuel based economy to one based on renewable resources, driving the search of for new 34 alternative renewable feedstocks for the production of chemical building blocks [1-6]. In particular 35 this regard, the exploitation of lignocellulosic biomass is receiving an increasing attention due to its 36 renewability, abundance, low value and carbon-neutral balance. Among the target products, 37 levulinic acid (LA) is the main compound of biomass hydrolysis which has been classified by the 38 United States Department of Energy as one of the top-12 promising building blocks [7].-and LA 39 represents a valuable promising intermediate for the synthesis of several chemicals for applications 40 in fuel additives, fragrances, solvents, oil additives, pharmaceuticals, and plasticizers [8-13]. LA, 41 also known as 3-acetylpropionic acid, 4-oxovaleric acid, or 4-oxopentanoic acid, is a very interesting 42 platform chemical, because of its versatile chemistry, including one carbonyl, one carboxyl and α -H 43 in its inner structure, <u>looking likeremembering</u> a short chain and non-volatile fatty acid. Some
44 interesting data about-<u>its</u> physical properties of LA are reported in Table 1 [14-16].

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Table 1. Some physical properties of LA.							
Molecular weight (g/mol)	Refractive Index ¹	Density [kg m ⁻³] ¹	pKa	Melting Point [K]	Boiling Point [K]	Heat of formation ΔH <i>f</i> (kJ/mol)	Heat of vaporization $\Delta_{vap}H_m$ (kJ/mol)
116.2	1.4796	1140	4.5	306-308	518-519	-2417	74.4
	¹ Value at 293 °K.						

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By taking into account the chemical structure of LA, carboxylic and then carbonyl groups are very reactive electrophilic centers towards nucleophilic attack. Furthermore, from the point of view of the acidity properties, LA has higher dissociation constant than saturated acids, thus its corresponding acidity is stronger. Lastly, LA can be isomerized into the enolisomer, owing to the existence of <u>a</u> carbonyl group. Levulinic acid can be produced <u>by on</u> 3 different process routes. The first one is a 5-step route from the petrolchemical intermediate maleic anhydride, which was carried

out at low scale in the past [17]. Despite the good yields in LA (up to 80 mol %) and even at the lowoil price, today this multi-step process is not economically sustainable.

The second route involves the acid treatment of C₆ sugars such as glucose, fructose, mannose or galactose, which can also derive from hydrolysis of more complex carbohydrates of the biomass, such as cellulose, hemicellulose or starch as well as from mono and disaccharides [18]. In these cases, tThe hydrolysis proceeds via formation of 5-hydroxymethylfurfural (5-HMF) intermediate. In more detail, sStarting from glucose, the main reactions that occur are: i) glucose isomerization into fructose, ii) fructose dehydration into 5-HMF and iii) 5-HMF rehydration into LA. These reactions are reported in Figure 1.



Figure 1. Synthesis of LA starting from D-glucose.

67 Antal et al. proposed that 5-HMF is produced from fructose via cyclic intermediates [19]. Recent 68 studies have further confirmed that 5-HMF originates from the acid-catalyzed dehydration of 69 C₆-sugars in the furanose form [20,21]. The first step is the formation of 5-HMF by a triple 70 dehydration step. 5-HMF is an unstable molecule and tends easily to condenses, together with 71 sugars and sugar degradation products, into black insoluble charred materials often called referred 72 to as "humins" [22-25]. In an extensive review on the 5-HMF formation, Van Putten et al. have 73 showndemonstrated that the temperature and reaction conditions required for the dehydration of 74 glucose and other aldoses are significantly more severe than those for fructose., This evidence which 75 is tentatively explained by the need for glucose to first isomerize to fructose via the an enediol form 76 [26]. This isomerization is a Brgensted-base or Lewis-acid catalyszed reaction and thus proceeds 77 very slowly under the strong Broensted acid conditions generally used for the subsequent 78 dehydration of the fructose. As a result of those The harsher reaction conditions adopted for aldoses, 79 cause the formation of higher amounts of humins are formed. The rehydration of 5-HMF with two 80 molecules of water leads to LA and formic acid [27]. Regarding the thermodynamics of the process, 81 <u>the</u> dehydration of fructose to 5-HMF is highly endothermic (by up to 92.022 kJeal/mol), the glucose 82 to fructose isomerisation conversion is very weakly endothermic (8.42 kJcal/mol), whereas the other

<u>16.74</u> to <u>133.932</u> kJcal/mol) [28]. Elevated temperatures and aqueous reaction environments are also predicted to make the dehydration reaction steps thermodynamically more favorable. A proposed

86 rehydration mechanism of 5-HMF into LA <u>in acid environment[29]</u> is reported in Figure 2_[29].



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Figure 2. Detailed mechanism for the formation of LA from 5-HMF in acid medium.

90 Hydration of 5-HMF consists in the addition of a water molecule to the C-2–C-3 olefinic bond of 91 the furan ring, leading to an unstable tricarbonyl intermediate, which quickly decomposes to LA and 92 formic acid (HCOOH), in stoichiometric amount [22,30]. However, Flannelly et al. have recently 93 reported that formic acid is produced even in excess to LA respect to the stoichiometric amount 94 during the acid hydrolysis of hexose carbohydrates, thus highlighting the potentiality of this 95 co-product coming from LA synthesis [31]. In fact, formic acid is a valuable product in its own right 96 and can be used as a commodity in the chemical and textile industry, as a catalyst, a hydrogen 97 carrier and a road salting component [4, 32].

<u>As underlined previously, t</u>The major problem during the such-hydrothermal acid-catalyzed
 treatments of sugars is the formation of insoluble carbonaceous by products, named humins, which
 represent the main solid by-products of the reaction [33,34]. The formation of humins can lead to a
 considerable loss of the sugar feed, thereby strongly decreasing the efficiency and the economic
 viability of the entire process [35].

When raw lignocellulosic biomass is employed, acid depolymerization of hemicellulose fraction releases pentoses (xylose and arabinose), which are converted to furfural, while from the different hexoses (glucose, galactose and mannose) of the cellulose fraction,—levulinic acid is formed (Figure 3) [36]. In this case, the solid by-product will contain humins and also lignin residues.



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Figure 3: Reaction network of the acid-catalysed hydrolysis of cellulose and hemicellulose in lignocellulosic biomass.

113 Two different reaction regimes for the conversion of carbohydrates-containing biomass into 114 LA₄ that differ in the reaction conditions, but not essentially in the reaction pathway, can be 115 distinguished as follows: (i) the dilute acid treatment at high temperature and pressurized 116 atmosphere; and (ii) the treatment with highly concentrated acid at lower temperatures and normal 117 pressure.

118 The maximum theoretical ponderal yield of LAlevulinic acid, at complete reached when the 119 molar yield is complete, is 64.4 wt % from hexose sugars, 71.6 wt % from cellulose and 67.8 wt % 120 from sucrose, with the remaining being formic acid and water. However, tThe really obtained yields 121 are significantly lower. The appropriate optimization of the hydrolysis reaction should take into 122 account that the entire feedstock is not available to the conversion into LA, but only the hexose 123 fraction.

124 A completely different but very interesting route for the synthesis of LA is the direct conversion 125 of furfuryl alcohol, which is obtained by furfural hydrogenation [37]. This third alternative pathway

126 is depicted in Figure 4:



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Figure 4. C⁵ path to give levulinic acid.

130 The overall process involves 3-steps: *i*) an acid-catalyzed hydrolysis of hemicellulose polymer 131 and dehydration of the C₅ sugars to furfural [386, 397]; *ii*) the hydrogenation of furfural to furfuryl 132 alcohol; iii) the acid-catalysed hydrolysis of furfuryl alcohol to the desired LA [18,4038]. Yields in LA 133 are in the range 83–93 mol % [23]. A modification of the above synthetic strategy employs alcohols 134 rather thaninstead of water as the hydrolysing agent of the last step furfuryl alcohol-to-levulinic 135 acid, thus directly recovering levulinate esters, with yields in the range . This gives the

136 corresponding levulinate esters as the final product and yields have been reported to be in the range

137 95-98 mol %. The use of an alcoholic solvent can be extended also to the C₆ route, after 5-HMF 138 production, giving also in this case levulinate ester as the main product.

139 The C_5 pathway is attractive, but still too limited, due to the excessive formation of by-products 140 in the reaction medium [41]. The advantage of this route is that the esters have a lower boiling point, 141 thus allowing distillation as means of purification and more importantly are less prone to give 142 angelicalactone upon heating. . Furthermore This, the method starting both from furfural and 143 furfuryl alcohol is attractive and its feasibility of both methods mainly depends on the type and cost 144 of the possible feedstocks. Furfural prices typically-is in the range between 700\$/t_-and-1500\$/t_z 145 whilst-and furfuryl alcohol is 1500 \$/t or even higher. The high costs of these precursors This would 146 make the production of _the levulinic acid by the C5 path too expensive in respect to that he by the 147 simple hydrolysis routeC₆ one, the latter being currently the main one developed at industrial scale-148 Currently, The first researchers to realize the potential of levulinic acid as building block for a 149 wide range of chemicals were Manzer [42, 43], Werpy and Petersen [7] and Bozell [44]. levulinic 150 acid is adopted as specialty chemical in pharmaceutical, cosmetic, and food applications. As already 151 detailed earlier the market size for levulinic acid is very limited, and it is thus unlikely that these 152 would be able to absorb large quantities of levulinic acid, which are anticipated to enter the

153 marketplace. As such, ffurther conversion routes of levulinic acid areis essential to create new 154 outlet markets. It is eminent that these new routes will need to be developed in parallel to the 155 realization development of efficient levulinic biorefineries. The pioneering researchers to realize the 156 potential of levulinic acid as building block for a wide range of chemicals were Werpy and Petersen 157 [7] in 2004 and Bozell in 2010 [39]. Levulinic acid is considered to be a versatile biobased building 158 block to be further converted in solvents, plasticizers, fuels, value-added chemicals, monomers for 159 polymers, etc. [1, 45-50]. Examples of important chemicals from LA and their potential applications 160 are showed in Figure 55. Such valuable chemicals include γ -valerolactone, levulinate esters and also 161 angelica lactone, ketals, diphenolic acid and δ -amino levulinic acid [13,47,50-52], in addition to the 162 several important compounds obtained from their upgrading, such as 2-methyltetrahydrofuran, 163 hydrocarbon fuels, valerate esters and polymers [49].

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168 The development of new LA-derived products is continuously in progress, alongside LA 169 | production at larger scale. In this context, very recently the company GF–Biochemicals has 170 announced that the production in their plant of Caserta will be scaled from 1000 t/year up to 10,000 171 t/year, with a substantial growth in the LA market in next years.

172 Important targets for the next commercialization of LA are: i) the development of a selective 173 dehydration without side reactions, especially the reduction of the tarry humins/char 174 byee-products; ii) the use of cheap or, even better, negative-value biomasses, which significantly 175 reduce_write_off_the costs of LAlevulinic acid production; iii) the synthesis of new efficient catalysts
176 which to replace the traditional inorganic mineral ones, such as H₂SO₄, HCl, and H₃PO₄, which are
177 responsible for corrosion problems of the equipment; iv) the removal of impurities and other
178 by-products, which must be eliminated from the hydrolysis liquor before the recovery of the pure
179 LA.

180 This review provides an overview of the more interesting and recent and promising trends on 181 the production of LA from various starting substrates using homogeneous or heterogeneous catalyst 182 systems. The different production routes are critically commented, underlining the gaps to be filled 183 to attain high level of LA commercialization. Special attention has been paid to the recent 184 advancements in LA production approaches, moving from simple sugars to raw and waste 185 biomasses, also obtained from marine and fungal algal biomass. This is of paramount importance 186 from a sustainability point of view, transforming wastes needing to be disposed of into raw 187 materials for the synthesis of value-added products. In order to make easier the comparison among 188 the different employed methods for LA production, in this review LA yield has been determined on 189 the basis of weight of dry raw biomass as:

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yield of levulinic acid (YLA) wt % = Levulinic acid recovered (g)/ dry substrate (g) x 100.

191The hydrothermal conversion generates a significant amount of solid waste, which is called192"hydrochar". This waste stream is traditionally disposed in landfill, but can be directly exploited for193energy recovery within the same levulinic acid plant or, more advantageously, as feedstock to194upgrade into new bio-chemicals. In this review, some interesting and recent findings and195state-of-the-art in biochar exploitation will be introduced and discussed.

The available strategies to enhance the solid residues obtained in the LA production processes
 will be also outlined, underling as these fractions can be exploited. In order to make easier the
 comparison between the different employed methods for LA production, in this review LA yield has
 been determined on the basis of weight of dry raw biomass as: yield of levulinic acid wt % =
 Levulinic acid recovered (g)/ dry substrate (g) x 100.

- 202 2. Catalytic conversion of hexoses
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2.1 Homogeneous mineral acids and salts in water

205 C_6 sugars represent the ideal starting material for LA synthesis due to their water solubility, 206 high purity and simple supply. The most ancient methods for the chemical conversion of aqueous 207 solutions of sugars to LA use homogeneous mineral acid catalysts due to their high catalytic activity. 208 The widely employed mineral acid catalysts, such as HCl, H2SO4, HNO3, H3PO4, are selected due to 209 low cost, easy availability and their efficiency towards high LA yields. Their effectiveness depends 210 on concentration, strength of their primary dissociation constants, type and concentration of the 211 employed feedstock and, severity of the reaction, in term of temperature and/or time. All these 212 variables are strictly related but, unfortunately, all these acids lead to production of undesired 213 by products, thus decreasing the yield of LA. All the experiments reported in Table 2 have been 214 carried out in subcritical water, under an external pressure of an inert gas (generally nitrogen) or 215 adopting autogenous pressure, not externally applied, but deriving from high-pressure steam. This 216 last approach clearly involves energy consumption for water vaporization and causes a change of 217 composition of the starting biomass solution. Subcritical water is an environmentally innocuous, 218 non-toxic, and safe solvent. Besides, it has good transport properties (high diffusion coefficient and 219 thermal conductivity, and low viscosity) and the ionic product of subcritical water increases with 220 temperature and is greater by 1 to 2 orders of magnitude than at ambient temperatures, thus 221 promoting acid- and base-catalyzed reactions as biomass conversion [53].

A summary of recent works from the literature employing homogeneous mineral catalysts in water is provided in Table 2.

Table 2. C6 sugars conversion in water in the presence of homogeneous catalysts: reaction conditions.

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Exp.	Substrate and	Catalyst	Reaction Conditions	Y la	Ref.
	loading (wt %)				
1	fructose 1 wt %	HCl	240°C for 0.03 h	30 wt %	[<u>54</u> 42]
2	fructose 5 wt %	HCl	MW, 170°C for 0.5 h	31.8 wt %	[34]
3	fructose 5 wt %	H_2SO_4	MW, 170°C for 0.5 h	27.5 wt %	[34]
4	fructose 5 wt %	H_2SO_4	120°C for 24 h	62 % *	[<u>55</u> 4 3]
5	fructose 1 wt %	H ₃ PO ₄	240°C for 0.03 h	4.5 wt %	[<u>54</u> 4 2]
6	glucose 1.8 wt %	HCl	141°C for 1 h	29 wt %	[<u>56</u> 44]
7	glucose 10 wt %	HCl	160°C for 4 h	41 wt %	[27]
8	glucose 15 wt %	HCl	220°C for 1 h	37.2 wt %	[<u>57</u> 4 5]
9	glucose 6.3 wt %	HCl	98°C for 3 h	22 wt %	[<u>58</u> 4 6]
10	glucose 5 wt %	HCl	MW, 170°C for 0.5 h	31.4 wt %	[34]
11	glucose 5 wt %	H_2SO_4	MW, 170°C for 0.5 h	26.1 wt %	[34]
12	glucose 6.3 wt %	H ₂ SO ₄	98°C for 12 h	24.5 wt %	[<u>58</u> 4 6]
13	glucose 1.8 wt %	H_2SO_4	141°C for 1 h	29 wt %	[<u>56</u> 44]
14	glucose 1.8 wt %	H_2SO_4	140°C for 2 h	38 wt %	[<u>59</u> 47]
15	glucose 2 wt %	H_2SO_4	180°C for 0.25 h	42 wt %	[<u>60</u> 48]
16	glucose 6.3 wt %	H ₃ PO ₄	98°C for 6 h	3.2 wt %	[<u>58</u> 4 6]
17	fructose 2 wt %	TFA	180°C for 1 h	45 wt %	[<u>61</u> 49]
18	glucose 1.8 wt %	TFA	180°C for 1 h	37 wt %	[<u>61</u> 49]
19	glucose 2 wt %	Methane- sulfonic acid	180°C for 0.25 h	41 wt %	[<u>60</u> 4 8]
20	glucose 2 wt %	FeCl₃	180°C for 2 h	19.3 wt %	[62]
21	glucose 2 wt %	CrCl ₃	180°C for 2 h	38.7 wt %	[62]
22	glucose 2 wt %	CuCl ₂	180°C for 2 h	14.8 wt %	[62]
23	glucose 2 wt %	AlCl ₃	180°C for 2 h	45.8 wt %	[62]
24	glucose 10 wt %	HCl, CrCl ₃	140°C for 6 h	30 wt %	[63]

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* In the paper the calculation of the reported yield is unclearNot specified.

228 As it is possible to observe from Table 2, HCl and H₂SO₄ are the most widely employed mineral 229 acid catalysts for the conversion of C6 sugars, allowing high yields to LA (up to 42 wt %), ready 230 availability and low cost. In particular, HCl has been used to produce LA for decades. Thomas and 231 Schuette used HCl as the catalyst to produce LA from various carbohydrates already in 1931 [6452]. 232 Carlson's 1962 patent states that HCl is the most preferable catalyst for converting various 233 carbohydrates to LA because it can be easily recovered and recycled and, in addition, LA can be 234 separated using simple vacuum distillation [6553]. More recent studies have shown the successful 235 employment of H₂SO₄ when simple sugars, such as fructose and glucose, are employed as starting 236 substrates, leading to comparable LA yields to those obtained with HCl. As an example, Szabolcs et 237 al. studied the degradation of carbohydrates to LA by using microwave energy, reaching yields of 238 31.8 wt % and 27.5 wt % starting from fructose in the presence of HCl and H₂SO₄ respectively after a 239 treatment at 170°C for 30 minutes (exp. 2 and 3, Table 2). When the authors employed glucose as 240 starting substrate in the same reaction conditions, it was possible to obtain yields to LA of 31.4 wt % 241 and 26.1 wt % using HCl and H₂SO₄ respectively (exp. 10 and 11, Table 2). In this regard, it is 242 interesting to highlight the LA yield achieved by Rackemann et al., about 42 wt %, employing H₂SO₄ 243 at 180°C for 15 minutes in water starting from glucose (exp. 15, Table 2). Moreover, the same authors 244 compared the results obtained in the presence of H₂SO₄ with those achieved using methanesulfonic 245 acid (exp. 19, Table 2), reaching similar LA yield under the same experimental reaction conditions. 246 stated previously, the processes involving homogeneous mineral acids can be carried out 247 following two strategies: dilute acid hydrolysis processes working at high temperature and 248 concentrated acid hydrolysis processes working at lower reaction temperatures. In both cases, 249 shortcomings are present, such as equipment corrosion and harsh operating conditions for dilute 250 acid hydrolysis processes, whereas harsher equipment corrosion and the difficult acid recovery are

251 the main drawbacks of the concentrated acid hydrolysis route.

252 Another type of catalyst employed for LA production deals with the use of metal salts which 253 show *a*-remarkable catalytic activity. This is confirmed by the studies of Peng et al. who investigated 254 the conversion of glucose by different metal chlorides, including FeCl₃, CrCl₃, CuCl₂ and AlCl₃ (exp. 255 20-23, Table 2). Among the investigated metal chlorides, aluminum chloride was found to be the 256 most effective for the conversion of glucose, affording an optimum yield up to 45.8 wt % working in 257 water at 180°C for 2 h (exp. 23, Table 2). The catalytic role of these salts can be ascribed to the Lewis 258 acidity of the metal cations, together with the intrinsic Broonsted acidity derived from their 259 hydrolysis. Levulinic acid was produced from glucose in a cascade of reactions using a Lewis acid 260 catalyst (CrCl₃) together with a Brønsted acid (HCl) catalyst (exp. 24, Table 2). In this study CrCl₃ is 261 an active Lewis acid catalyst in glucose isomerization to fructose, and the combined Lewis and 262 Brønsted acid catalysts perform the isomerization and dehydration/rehydration reactions. A strong 263 interaction between the Cr cation and the glucose molecule enables ring-opening and isomerization 264 of glucose. By combining CrCl₃ and HCl a real interplay of the two catalysts was ascertained. Even in the absence of HCl, hydrolysis of Cr(III) decreases the solution pH, and this intrinsic Brønsted 265 266 acidity drives the dehydration and rehydration reactions. Yields of 30 wt% in LA were achieved at 267 moderate temperature (140 °C) [63]. A further confirmation of the cooperative effect of Lewis and 268 Brøønsted acids in glucose hydrolysis to LA has been recently reported [66]. The synergistic positive 269 effect on LA yield of coupling CrCl₃ with H₃PO₄ was confirmed compared with single CrCl₃ or 270 H₃PO₄ catalysts. In the hydrolysis of fructose, sucrose and inulin, a strong interaction between the 271 substrate and the Lewis acidic ion Sn⁴⁺ was also evidenced by NMR, suggesting an additional 272 contribution to the catalysis, besides the release of Brønsted acid. This interaction and complex 273 formation promotes the conversion of the substrates to 5-HMF and then to LA and formic acid, 274 underlining an additional function of Lewis acid catalyst Sn⁴⁺, together with the intrinsic Brønsted 275 acidity derived from its hydrolysis [67].

276 During the production of LA, substantial amounts of soluble and insoluble by-products are 277 produced, even when hexoses are employed as starting feedstock. These compounds may include 278 reaction intermediates, soluble and insoluble humins, polymeric substance and gas-phase 279 components due to thermal degradation of reactants/products. They are generally deeply colored 280 and their complete identification is still a challenge and their removal remains unsolved for most 281 technologies. As an example, when Girisuta studied the acid-catalysed decomposition of glucose to 282 LA, substantial amounts of insoluble humins were formed, obtained from the acid-catalysed 283 decomposition of glucose and 5-HMF [56]. The author identified other possible by-products, called 284 <u>reversio</u>n products, like levoglucosan or 1,6-anhydro-β-D-glucopyranose (4), 285 <u>1,6-anhydro-β-D-glucofuranose (5), iso-maltose (6) and gentiobiose (7), as shown in Figure 6.</u>

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Figure 6. Reversion reactions of glucose in acid solutions [56].

290 In acidic solutions, the acyclic form of D-glucose (1) exists in equilibrium with its anomeric 291 forms, i.e., α -D-glucopyranose (2) and β -D-glucopyranose (3). The anomeric forms may be involved 292 in a number of reactions leading to reversion products [68]. Intra-molecular condensation reactions 293 produce anhydro sugars, mainly levoglucosan and 1,6-anhydro-β-D-glucofuranose. Inter-molecular 294 condensation reactions between two glucose units will give disaccharides such as isomaltose and 295 gentiobiose. Several investigators have also found and isolated other type of disaccharides, i.e., 296 (1-2)-linked and (1-3)-linked ones and/or anhydro sugars, giving low concentration of the reversion 297 products [69].-LA can be reversibly dehydrated to α -angelica lactone (3-penten-4-olide) also in the 298 absence of acid catalyst. In the presence of acid catalysts, under heating, α -angelica lactone can 299 isomerize, thus forming a mixture containing also β -angelica lactone (3-penten-4-olide) and 300 y-angelica lactone (4-penten-4-olide). Besides, the angelica lactones can also dimerize giving heavier 301 by-products [70].

302 Regarding the heating system, some experiments in Table 2 have been carried out under 303 microwave (MW)-assisted heating, which is considered an effective alternative to the traditional 304 one. MW absorption processes occur uniformly in the dielectric material, resulting in simultaneous 305 heating of the whole volume of the sample, thus allowing better temperature homogeneity. Heat is 306 directly transferred into the sample and the presence of the biomass containing polar oxygenated 307 compounds in the reaction medium further contributes to the dielectric polarization. MW use 308 enables to reach higher heating rate, homogeneous heat distribution, efficient control of the 309 reproducibility of the LA synthesis and remarkable energy and time saving.

The discussed literature suggests that the MW effect is mainly thermal. There is much debate on the presence of some nonthermal processes, which sometimes are called "microwave specific effects" [71,72]. These last are due to different interactions of the radiation by means of processes that are not inherently thermal, which should reduce the activation energy. These effects are never invoked for the above discussed homogeneous reactions.

Although the hydrolysis of sugars in the presence of homogeneous catalysts are effective, their employment presents relevant disadvantages, such as the difficulty in acid recovery for recycling and the corrosion of equipment and environmental pollution. Moreover, the corrosive conditions demand the use of special material for reactor construction, thereby, increasing the capital investment and operating costs. These drawbacks can be overcome by replacing homogeneous acid catalysts with heterogeneous solid ones. To date, a cost-effective environment-friendly process in LA biorefinery employing homogeneous catalysts for simple sugars conversion is still largely needed.

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323 2.2 Heterogeneous catalysts in water

324 As a result of the ever strengthening environmental regulations, solid acids are attracting for 325 replacement of corrosive and harmful traditional mineral acids. These catalysts possess Brønsted 326 and/or Lewis acidic sites. Heterogeneous Brønsted acids include acidic ion-exchange resins (e.g., 327 Nafion-H, Amberlyst, Dowex), heteropoly acids and their derivatives (e.g., H0.5Cs2.5[PW12O40]). Solid 328 Lewis acids include metal oxides and their sulfated/phosphated derivatives. Catalysts with mixed 329 Brønsted and Lewis acid centers, including clays and zeolites, may be synthetised in order to have a 330 careful balance of the overall acidity of the system. The use of heterogeneous catalysts for LA 331 synthesis from soluble sugars is also well-established. Regarding their use for LA synthesis starting 332 from simple sugar feedstocks, already in 1956 pioneering studies patented by Redmon underlined 333 the use of the acidic cation exchange resin Amberlite IR-120, in the amount of 18-19 % of the total 334 weight of the reaction mixture, for LA production from aqueous solutions of sugars or sucrose with 335 minimal formation of insoluble humin by-products [7354]. Especially in recent years, the range of 336 heterogeneous catalysts studied for LA synthesis has been growing greatly, being an attractive and 337 promising alternative to the homogeneous ones. Generally, solid catalysts can be easily separated 338 from the reaction mixture and recycled, can work at high temperatures and their surface acidity can 339 be adjusted to improve selectivity [7455]. These properties make_-these-solid catalysts suitable 340 candidates for industrial use [27]. Moreover, heterogeneous catalysts are generally selective and do 341 not present corrosion problems. However, the studies on heterogeneous catalysts are still limited 342 ifas compared to homogeneous ones. This is due to many reasons. First of all, the strong adsorption 343 of the produced <u>LA-levulinic acid</u> on the catalyst surface lowers the overall yield to LA which can be 344 obtained from reactions occurring on the bare surface of solid catalyst as well as within the pores of 345 catalyst. Secondly, heterogeneous catalysts can be deactivated when used or recycled over a long 346 period of time, due to the deposition of reaction heavy by-products, such as humins, on the surface 347 of the catalyst or as a consequence of the leaching of the active acid species from the catalyst's 348 surface. A summary of the recent works from the literature employing heterogeneous catalysts in 349 water is provided in Table 3.

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 Table 3. C6 sugars conversion in water in the presence of heterogeneous catalysts: reaction conditions.

Exp.	Substrate and	Catalyst	Reaction Conditions	Y la	Ref.
	loading (wt %)				
25	fructose 5 wt %	Amberlyst 15	120°C for 36 h	52 % *	[<u>55</u> 4 3]
			140°C for 8 h	56 % *	
26	fructose 5 wt %	Nafion NR50	120°C for 24 h	41% *	[<u>55</u> 43]
27	fructose 5 wt %	SBA-SO ₃ H	120°C for 24 h	29% *	[<u>55</u> 43]
28	fructose 1.8 wt %	TFA	180°C for 1 h	4 5.1 wt %	[49]
2 <u>8</u> 9	glucose 1 wt %	Al-Zr oxide	180°C for 2 h	3.9 wt %	[<u>75</u> 56]
<u>29</u> 30	glucose 10 wt %	Zirconium	160°C for 3 h	14 wt %	[27]
		phosphate			
3 <u>0</u> 1	glucose 10 wt %	Amberlyst 70	160°C for 3 h	21.7 wt %	[27]
3 <u>1</u> 2	glucose 1 wt %	CrCl ₃ + HY zeolite	145.2°C for 2.45 h	55.2 wt %	[<u>76</u> 57]
		hybrid catalyst			

3 <u>2</u> 3	glucose 1 wt %	CrCl ₃ + HY zeolite	160°C for 3 h	<u>40</u> 62 <u>wt</u> -	[<u>77</u> 58]
		Hybrid Cataryst		/0	
3 <u>3</u> 4	glucose 0.5 wt %	Fe <u>Cl</u> 3/HY zeolite	180 °C for 4.17 h	66 % *	[<u>78</u> 59]
		catalyst			
3 <u>4</u> 5	glucose 13 wt %	Sulphonated	200°C for 2 h	50 wt %	[<u>79</u> 60]
		graphene oxide			
3 <u>5</u> 6	glucose 5 wt %	Sulfonated	170°C for 10 h	28.5 wt %	[<u>80</u> 61]
		chloromethyl			
		polystyrene resin			

* In the paper the calculation of the reported yield is unclear

354 The employment of heterogeneous catalysts on simple substrates allows the achievement of 355 lower yields to LA compared to those reached in the presence of homogeneous catalysts. The most 356 traditional heterogeneous acid catalysts, such as the ion exchange sulfonated resins Amberlyst and 357 Zr/Nb phosphates, have been widely employed. Starting from fructose, Son et al. investigated the 358 use of Amberlyst 15, leading to remarkable LA yield (56 %, not specified if LA yield is in mol or wt 359 %) working at 140°C in water for 8 h (exp. 25, Table 3). Weingarten et al. employed Zr phosphate and 360 the resin Amberlyst 70 for the conversion of glucose to LA, achieving in water at 160°C for 3 h the LA 361 yield of 14 wt % and 21.7 wt %, respectively (exp. 2930 and 304, Table 3). As above reported for 362 homogeneous metal halides, also for the heterogeneous systems the right balance of both Brøønsted 363 and Lewis acidity enhances the LA yield [81]. When the HY zeolite is modified by combining the 364 zeolite with metal halides (such as CrCl₃ or FeCl₃), the resulting hybrid catalysts show an enhanced 365 performance in glucose conversion. Lewis acid sites promote the isomerization of glucose into 366 fructose, while the combination of Brøensted and Lewis acidity favors the dehydration/rehydration reaction to LA. In this regard, Ya'aini et al. studied the performences of hybrid catalysts comprising 367 368 of CrCl₃ and HY zeolite with different weigh ratios (1:1; 1:2 and 2:1 respectively) in the production of 369 LA from glucose. The strength and the distribution of the acid sites were markedly influenced by 370 altering the CrCl₃ and HY zeolite ratios in the hybrid catalysts. The authors found that these systems 371 showed total acidity and acid sites strength in the order: hybrid 1:2 > hybrid 1:1 > hybrid 2:1. 372 However, when the acid sites were considered per unit surface area the hybrid 1:1 catalyst possessed 373 the highest acidity, followed by the hybrid 2:1 system and finally by the hybrid 1:2 catalyst. This 374 indicates that the hybrid 1:1 catalyst contains more reactive acid sites on the catalyst surface 375 compared to the other two hybrid systems. This investigation confirms that the catalytic reaction of 376 the hybrid catalysts is predominantly influenced by the type of acid sites, the amount of the acid 377 sites and their strength, exhibiting the hybrid 1:1 system the highest catalytic performances with 40 378 wt % of LA yield at 160°C in 3 h (exp. 32, Table 3). Very interesting performances are also obtained in 379 the presence of graphene oxide-based systems with -SO₃H functional groups. Also in this case the 380 oxygenated and carboxylic groups together with Lewis sites caused by the electron inductive effect 381 of the sulfonic groups enhance adsorption and isomerization of glucose on the catalyst surface. The 382 layered structure of graphene oxide allows an efficient diffusion of reagent and products and the 383 catalyst results thermally stable and recyclable. Regarding the use of heterogeneous catalysts, also 384 zeolite type systems are widely successfully employed. In this regard, it is very interesting the 385 investigation carried out by Ramli et al. who reached the yield to LA of 66 wt % starting from 386 glucose after 4.17 h at 180°C in the presence of Fe/HY zeolite catalyst (exp. 33, Table 3). Finally, 387 promising LA yields were obtained also in the presence of sulfonated systems. Upare et al. 388 employing the sulphonated graphene oxide as catalyst for the conversion of glucose reached a LA 389 yield of 50 wt % in water after 2 h at 200°C (exp. 345, Table 3), whereas Zuo et al. studied for the 390 same reaction a sulfonated chloromethyl polystyrene solid acid catalyst, reporting after 10 h in water 391 at 170°C the LA yields of 28.5 wt % (exp. 356, Table 3).

394 fructose or glucose and employing homogeneous or heterogeneous catalysts. In all cases, they 395 proved that an increase of the substrate loading beyond a cartain level leads to a decrease of LA 396 yield [27,54-56,62], due to a greater by-products formation, in particular humins. The reported 397 concentrations can be interesting in a laboratory scale but are too low in order to be promising for 398 industrial applications. In fact, employing low substrate loading (< 10 wt %), the concentration of LA 399 in the stream is low and its recovery difficult and expensive. LA has a high boiling point (245 °C), 400 thus during its recovery through distillation, the solvent, which is the component present in much 401 larger amount, must be evaporated, making the process very energy-intensive. Therefore, in order to 402 scale-up its synthesis from the laboratory to the industrial scale, it is necessary to find an optimum 403 compromise between substrate loading and LA yield/selectivity.

The reported results show that although the LA yields achieved employing heterogeneous catalysts can be, in some cases, promising, the<u>sey</u> are not yet satisfactory for the use of these systems at the industrial scale. In particular the study of the life of the catalyst and its reactivation needs further improvement. So far, the main drawbacks of using heterogeneous catalysts include generally low reaction yields, slow reaction rates and prolonged reaction times to obtain reasonable yields to LA. Therefore, further research is still necessary for developing new catalysts which enhance the LA yield and progressively target towards raw and cheap biomass substrates.

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412 2.3 Homogeneous and heterogeneous catalysts in organic solvents

413 Many solvents have been tested for the production of LA from sugars. Aprotic media have been 414 tested for LA synthesis, such as dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO), dimethylformamide (DMF), 415 dimethylacetamide (DMA), tetrahydrofuran (THF), methyl isobutyl ketone (MIBK), carbon 416 tetrachloride, acetonitrile and ethyl acetate. DMSO is particularly selective towards 5-HMF because 417 it suppresses the subsequent hydrolysis of 5-HMF to LA and formic acid [2,8262]. Regarding aprotic 418 solvents, Sanborn reporteds the synthesis of LA from fructose sources using a polyethylene glycol 419 and an end capped polyethylene glycol together with an acid catalyst, in the presence of polar 420 aprotic solvents such as, 1-methyl-2-pyrrolidone, dimethylacetamide, dimethylformamide, 421 dimethylsulfoxide, methyl ethyl ketone, methyl isobutylketone, acetonitrile and propionitrile. All 422 the aprotic solvents were found, all of them resulted suitable for the investigated reaction [8363]. In 423 this regard, another interesting example is that published by Mascal et al. who studied a two-step 424 approach, employing 1,2-dichloroethane as solvent in the first step. In this stage, the conversion of 425 glucose into 5-(chloromethyl)furfural was performed employing concentrated HCl as catalyst in 426 1,2-dichloroethane heating at 100°C for 1-3 h [8464]. In the second step, the obtained 427 5-(chloromethyl)furfural was hydrolyzed to LA in water at 190°C for 20 minutes [8565], allowing to 428 reach a very high LA yield, up to 79 mol % from glucose, corresponding to 51 wt %.

429 Regarding the use of protic solvents, very few of them have been investigated for the 430 production of LA. Brasholz et al. investigated the conversion of fructose to LA with HCl in the 1:2 431 mixture of H₂O:CH₃OH achieving after 1.33 h at 140°C the LA yield of 46.4 wt %. The majority of 432 protic solvents, such as ethanol and butanol or mixtures of them with water, have been tested for the 433 dehydration of fructose to 5-hydroxymethylfurfural [86,8766,67]. On the other hand, protic solvents 434 and in particular alcohols have been extensively employed for levulinate esters production, through 435 the direct conversion from biomass by alcoholysis under acidic conditions. In fact, carbohydrate 436 compounds can be easily converted into LA via 5-HMF through dehydration and hydration 437 reactions, into LA which and LA is then transformed into its esters by esterification reactions 438 [15,<u>88</u>68].

439 Generally, the choice of the most suitable organic solvent is critical, due to the great influence of
 440 its properties on the reaction. First of all, the solubility of substrate in the solvent is a very important
 441 issue. In particular, the polarity plays a key role, because solvent dissolves solutes having similar
 442 polarities, thus in the synthesis of LA from sugars it is important employing polar solvents, such as
 443 DMSO, DMF, DMA, THF, MIBK etc., which, as said previously, are the main organic solvents

444 investigated in this reaction. However, other parameters can influence the solubility, such as solute 445 size/volume and surface area, polarizability of the molecule and strength of the hydrogen bond 446 between solvent and solute [89]. Solvents also affect the selectivity of the reaction. DMSO is 447 particularly selective towards 5-HMF because it suppresses the hydrolysis of 5-HMF to LA and 448 formic acid and the humins formation [2,62], due to the strong interaction between the C=O group in 449 5-HMF and DMSO, which limits hydration and intermolecular condensation reactions [90]. 450 However, there are other issues that must be considered during the choice of the solvent, such as the 451 feasibility of its separation and recycling, its cost and its environmental effects. Regarding the 452 economic, technological and safety aspects, the majority of organic solvents show remarkable 453 disadvantages: i) high costs; ii) high boiling points (DMSO, DMF, DMA), which are directly related 454 to the feasibility of their recycling, traditionally carried out through distillation; iii) reactivity in the 455 reaction conditions, such as THF that can be hydrolysed in the presence of high amount of water and 456 acid catalysts; iv) safety problem, such as THF that can be oxidized in air into explosive peroxides; v) 457 toxicity. For all these reasons, the organic solvents are not used on a large scale. In conclusion, the 458 best solvent for the sustainable synthesis of levulinic acid from sugars is water, because it is greener, 459 cheaper and less toxic than the organic solvents. Generally, the choice of the most suitable organic 460 solvent is critical and the related processes need to be optimized in terms of cost, energy effort and 461 product recovery because the majority of them show disadvantages of high cost, high boiling points 462 and adverse environmental effects.

464 **3. Catalytic conversion of cellulose and raw biomasses**

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466 3.1 Homogeneous mineral acids and salts in water

467 Cellulose is an important structural component of the primary cell wall of green plants and 468 many researchers have studied its hydrolysis for the sustainable production of LAlevulinic acid and 469 of other value-added chemicals, because it is abundant in nature, non-edible and not competing with 470 the food chain. On the other hand, rRegarding raw biomasses, the preferred cheap raw 471 lignocellulose sources of lignocellulose include giant reed, switchgrass, miscanthus and poplar as 472 promising examples of fast-growing grasses and trees, whereas sawdust, wheat straw, corn stover, 473 sugarcane bagasse, municipal waste, fruit peels and pulp sludge are promising sources of as 474 low-value wastes to be enhanced and exploited. A summary of the most recent works in the 475 literature employing homogeneous catalysts in water is provided in Table 4. It is remarkable that for 476 many raw and waste biomasses adopted in these experiments the complete composition analysis is 477 not reported and, sometimes, also the total sugar content is unknown. For this reason, the LA 478 ponderal yield is the unique tool to evaluate the effectiveness of the catalytic conversions.

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Table 4. Polysaccharides and raw and waste biomasses conversion in water in the presence of homogeneous catalysts: reaction conditions.

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Exp.	Substrate and loading	Catalyst	Reaction Conditions	Y la	Ref.
	(wt %)				
3 <u>6</u> 7	cellobiose 5 wt %	HCl	MW, 170°C for 0.5 h	29.9 wt %	[34]
3 <u>7</u> 8	cellobiose 5 wt %	H_2SO_4	MW, 170°C for 0.5 h	28.0 wt %	[34]
3 <u>8</u> 9	cellulose 1.6 wt %	HCl	180°C for 0.33 h	44 wt %	[<u>91</u> 69]
<u>39</u> 40	cellulose 10 wt %	HCl	MW, 225°C for 0.03 h	90 % *	[<u>92</u> 70]
4 <u>0</u> 1	cellulose 5 wt %	HCl	MW, 170°C for 0.83 h	31.0 wt %	[34]
4 <u>1</u> 2	cellulose 5 wt %	H_2SO_4	MW, 170°C for 0.83 h	23.0 wt %	[34]
4 <u>2</u> 3	cellulose 1.7 wt %	H_2SO_4	150°C for 2 h	43 wt %	[<u>93</u> 71]
4 <u>3</u>	cellulose 8.7 wt %	H_2SO_4	150°C for 6 h	40.8 wt %	[<u>94</u> 72]
4 <u>4</u> 5	cellulose 2 wt %	CrCl ₃	200°C for 3 h	47.3 wt %	[<u>62</u> 50]
4 5	cellulose 20 wt %	CuSO ₄	240°C for 0.5 h	17.5 wt %	[<u>95</u> 73]

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<u>46</u>	waxy corn starch 1 wt %	HCl	MW, 165°C for 0.58 h	53 wt %	[<u>96]</u>
			165°C for 1 h	54 wt %	
4 <u>7</u>	giant reed 7 wt %	HCl	190°C for 1 h	24 wt %	[<u>97</u> 74]
4 <u>8</u>	giant reed 7 wt %	HCl	200°C for 1 h	15.8 wt %	[<u>98</u> 75]
4 <u>9</u>	giant reed 7 wt %	HCl	2 steps:	22.8 wt %	[<u>98</u> 75]
			1 st step: 80°C for 2 h;		
			2nd step: 190°C for 1 h		
<u>50</u>	giant reed 7 wt %	HCl	MW, 190°C for 0.33 h	22 wt %	[<u>99</u> 76]
5 <u>1</u>	water hyacinth 1 wt %	H_2SO_4	175°C for 0.5 h	9.2 wt %	[<u>100</u> 77]
5 <u>2</u>	corn stalk 10 wt %	FeCl ₃	180°C for 0.67 h	35 wt %	[<u>101</u> 78]
5 <u>3</u>	whole kernel grain	H_2SO_4	200°C for 0.67 h	32.6 %*	[<u>102</u> 79]
	sorghum				
	10 wt %				
5 <u>4</u>	wheat straw 6.4 wt %	H_2SO_4	209.3°C for 0.63 h	19.9 wt %	[<u>103</u> 80]
5 <u>5</u>	wheat straw 7 wt %	HCl	200°C for 1 h	19.3 wt %	[<u>104</u> 81]
5 <u>6</u>	wheat straw 7 wt %	HCl	MW, 200°C for 0.25 h	20.6 wt %	[<u>104</u> 81]
5 <u>7</u>	rice husk 10 wt %	HCl	170°C for 1 h	59.4 wt %	[<u>105</u> 82]
5 <u>8</u>	sugarcane bagasse 11 wt %	H_2SO_4	150°C for 6 h	19.4 wt %	[<u>106</u> 83]
5 <u>9</u>	sugarcane bagasse 10.5 wt	HCl	220°C for 0.75 h	22.8 wt %	[<u>107</u> 84]
	%				
<u>60</u>	paddy straw 10.5 wt %	HCl	220°C for 0.75 h	23.7 wt %	[<u>107</u> 84]
6 <u>1</u>	olive tree pruning 7 wt %	HCl	200°C for 1 h	18.6 wt %	[<u>104</u> 81]
6 <u>2</u>	olive tree pruning 7 wt %	HCl	MW, 200°C for 0.25 h	20.1 wt %	[<u>104</u> 81]
6 <u>3</u>	poplar sawdust 7 wt %	HCl	200°C for 1 h	21.3 wt %	[<u>104</u> 81]
6 <u>4</u>	poplar sawdust 7 wt %	HCl	MW, 200°C for 0.25 h	26.4 wt %	[<u>104</u> 81]
6 <u>5</u>	tobacco chops 7 wt %	HCl	200°C for 1 h	5.2 wt %	[<u>104</u> 81]
6 <u>6</u>	post-harvest tomato plants	HCl	MW, 225°C for 0.03 h	63 %*	[<u>92</u> 70]
	10 wt %				
6 <u>7</u>	paper sludge 7 wt %	HCl	200°C for 1 h	31.4 wt %	[<u>104</u> 81]
6 <u>8</u>	paper sludge 7 wt %	HCl	MW, 200°C for 0.25 h	31.7 wt %	[<u>104</u> 81]
6 <u>9</u>	screen rejects 7 wt %	HCl	MW, 190°C for 0.33 h	7 wt %	[<u>108</u> 85]
<u>70</u>	red alga Gracilaria	H_2SO_4	175°C for 0.58 h	22.6 wt %	[<u>109</u> 86]
	verrucosa 6.7 wt %				
7 <u>1</u>	red alga Gelidium amansii	H_2SO_4	2 steps:	20.6 wt %	[<u>110</u> 87]
	16.7 wt %		1 st step: 76°C for 49.5 h;		
			2 nd step: 180°C for 0.8 h		
7 <u>2</u>	macroalga Kappaphycus	H_2SO_4	178 °C for 0.65 h	18 wt %	[<u>111]</u>
	alvarezii 6.7 wt%				
7 <u>3</u>	chitosan 10 wt %	HCl	MW, 225°C for 0.03 h	95 % *	[<u>92</u> 70]
7 <u>4</u>	chitosan 25 wt %	SnCl ₄	MW, 210°C for 0.5 h	27 wt %	[<u>112</u> 88]
7 <u>5</u>	chitin 2.5 wt %	HCl	MW, 190°C for 0.5 h	18.7 wt %	[34]
76	chitin 2.5 wt %	H ₂ SO ₄	MW, 190°C for 0.5 h	21.6 wt %	[34]

* In the paper the calculation of the reported yield is unclear

484 When cellobiose is employed as starting substrate for LA production, yields of 29.9 wt % and 485 28.0 wt % were reached in the presence of HCl and H₂SO₄ respectively after a treatment of 30 486 minutes at 170°C under MW irradiation (exp. 367 and 378, Table 4). Analogues yields were achieved 487 when cellulose was used as starting substrate: LA yields of 31 wt % and 23 wt % in the presence of 488 the homogeneous mineral acids, HCl and H₂SO₄ respectively were obtained at 170°C for 50 minutes 489 under MW irradiation (exp. 401 and 412, Table 4). Adopting traditional heating, Shen et al. obtained 490 44 wt % of LA yield starting from cellulose working in water at 180°C for 20 minutes employing the 491 mineral acid HCl (exp. 389, Table 4), whereas Girisuta et al. achieved the same LA yield (43 wt %) 492 again starting from cellulose in water at 150°C for 2 h in the presence of H₂SO₄ (exp. 423, Table 4), 493 highlighting the efficiency of these homogeneous acid catalysts in the production of LA from 494 cellulose. Generally, a low solid concentration results in a higher yield of LAlevulinic acid. Peng et 495 al. observed that the optimal concentration of substrate is very important in terms of the efficient use 496 of cellulose and the final reached LA concentration. Higher LA yield was achieved at lower substrate 497 concentrations, but a higher LA concentration in the product stream is extremely favorable since it 498 results in lower energy consumption upon purification of LA and also reduces the amount of waste 499 water produced [6250]. However, it is not possible to increase infinitely the substrate loading due to 500 the product feedback inhibition. In addition, too much or too little water inhibits the hydrolysis 501 process, thus again underlining the importance to select the right substrate loading [10784].

502 When raw lignocellulosic feedstocks are used, mineral acids are the most widely employed 503 catalysts [2,3,113,11489,90]. Licursi et al. used HCl in the conversion of giant reed to LA at 190°C. 504 After 1 h of reaction, LA yield of 24 wt % was reached. The same authors report similar LA yields in 505 a two-step procedure carrying out the first stage at 80°C for 2 h, followed by the second step at 190°C 506 for 1 h (exp. 49, Table 4). When MW irradiation was employed, a comparable LA yield of 22 wt % 507 was obtained from giant reed in water at 190°C in the presence of HCl in only 20 minutes, thus 508 confirming the great efficiency of microwave <u>MW</u> energy (exp. <u>50</u>, Table 4). Wheat straw is another 509 promising feedstock and many studies have adopted this substrate. Chang et al. studied the effects 510 of temperature, acid concentration, liquid/solid ratio and reaction time on LA-levulinic acid 511 production from wheat straw in the presence of H₂SO₄, obtaining under the best experimental 512 conditions of 209.3 °C for 37.6 minutes the LA yield of 19.9 wt % (exp. 54, Table 4). The same yields 513 (around 20 wt %) were achieved from wheat straw in the presence of HCl at 200°C after 1h when the 514 reaction was performed in the autoclave and after only 15 minutes under MW irradiation (exp. 55 515 and 5<u>6</u>, Table 4).

516 The employment of renewable raw complex lignocellulosic feedstocks, from which mixtures of 517 sugars are obtained, -appears as an attractive alternative in respect to the use of the pure monomeric 518 sugars for the production of LA because it provides a sustainable cheap solution to the existing 519 environmental problem, at the same time increasing the agribusiness and employment in rural 520 sector, alongside with the development of the rural areas. However, there are still some drawbacks, 521 which can affect the process economics, such as the irregularity of the biomass availability (the 522 supply of biomass is not constant round-the-year), the variability in its composition and the logistics 523 cost which results in the biggest bottleneck in the conversion of raw biomasses to LA. The 524 transportation cost is not only influenced by the distance traveled, but also by the type of biomass 525 and by the form in which it is transported. In this context, the integration of preprocessing of raw 526 material and transport along with a careful supply chain planning might overcome many logistics 527 issue. In addition, LA yields obtained from renewable inexpensive feedstocks are low, making 528 imperative a proper optimization of the process which may result in higher LA yields. The 529 complexity and heterogeneity of lignocellulosic biomass make pretreatment a mandatory step in its 530 conversion to sugars and subsequently to LA in order to improve yield and reaction rates. On the 531 other hand, the choice of pretreatment is of paramount importance and its severity depends on the 532 complexity of the raw starting compounds [<u>115,116</u>91,92].

533 In addition to these feedstocks, many low-value <u>agricultural</u> or algae wastes have been 534 employed for the production of LA, thus enhancing and exploiting them to give an added-value 535 compound. In this case, HCl is the most widely employed acid catalyst, allowing promising results, 536 as evidenced by the LA yields shown in Table 4. Bevilaqua et al. investigated the production of LA 537 from rice husks using HCl as acid catalyst. Rice husks is a very are the most abundant agricultural 538 crop residue in southern Brazil (2.4 Mton, 2011) and approximately 1 ton of rice husks is left over for 539 each 4 ton of rice produced. Taking into account that rice husks shows a content of polysaccharides 540 higher than 50 wt %% (w/w), itthey can be employed as feedstock in for the green and sustainable 541 production of LA, having this waste feedstock no other noble use no added value at all. Working at 542 170°C for 1 h in the presence of HCl, it is possible to reach a LA yield of 19.3 wt % (exp. 567, Table 4). 543 Yan et al. studied the production of LA from sugarcane bagasse and paddy straw in the presence of 544 HCl at 220°C for 45 minutes. Sugarcane and paddy grow in southern China in very large quantities: 545 the first one is mainly utilized to produce sucrose, whereas the second one is used as feed and raw 546 material in the food industry. However, million of tons of sugarcane bagasse and paddy straw are 547 discarded or incinerated. As a consequence, the possibility of using these biomass wastes directly for 548 the production of LA levulinic acid represents an important step toward sustainability and green 549 chemistry. Under In the adopted reaction conditions the LA yields of 22.8 wt % and 23.7 wt % from 550 sugarcane bagasse and paddy straw were reached respectively (exp. 59 and 60, Table 4). Other 551 interesting waste biomass sources for LA production are olive tree pruning and poplar sawdust. 552 When olive tree pruning washas been employed, working in water at 200°C in the presence of HCl, 553 LA yields of 18.6 wt % and 20.1 wt % were achieved, in the absence and in the presence of MW after 554 1 h and 15 minutes respectively (exp. <u>61</u> and <u>62</u>, Table 4), highlighting the positive effect of MW 555 energy. In the case of poplar sawdust, the beneficial effect of MW irradiation is even higher: 556 adopting the same reaction conditions, already used for the conversion of olive tree pruning (water, 557 200°C in the presence of HCl), LA yields of 21.3 wt % and 26.4 wt % were achieved, in the absence 558 and in the presence of MW irradiation after 1 h and 15 minutes respectively (exp. 63 and 64, Table 4). 559 In addition, the positive MW effect was also confirmed in the conversion of paper sludge as raw 560 starting substrate to LA, obtaining under the same reaction conditions adopted for olive tree 561 pruning and poplar sawdust (water, 200°C in the presence of HCl), LA yields of 31.4 wt % and 31.7 562 wt %, in the absence and in the presence of MW after 1 h and 15 minutes respectively (exp. 67 and 68, 563 Table 4). Finally, some considerable rejected waste fractions called "screen rejects" obtained from the 564 papermaking process including both cellulose fibers and non-fibrous organic contaminants have 565 been exploited by means of the hydrothermal route to give LA in agreement with the integrated 566 recycled paper mill approach. Under MW irradiation, it was possible to reach the LA yield of 7 wt % 567 working at 190°C for 20 minutes (exp. 62, Table 4). These examples are promising because 568 highlight the real possibility to upgrade and exploit these wastes, otherwise allocated to disposal. 569 LA production process from raw or waste lignocellulosic biomass produces LA, furfural, and

formic acid as main products, together with many other organic substances (e.g. acetic acid, 570 571 aminoacids, soluble lignins, extractives, polymeric contaminants) and inorganic salts. The 572 precipitation of mineral salts and sticky organics represents a severe risk, because they might 573 interfere with the conversion or separation steps by fouling and eventual clogging of the process 574 units. Moreover, the release of basic components can neutralize part of the acid catalyst, thus 575 requiring an increased concentration. Recently, the coproduced furfural has been used as an 576 extraction solvent in the purification of LA itself, to extract LA and formic acid from the acidic 577 hydrolysis reaction of biomass. Lee et al. have proposed a hybrid purification process with high 578 energy efficiency combining liquid-liquid extraction of LA and formic acid with furfural and 579 distillation [117,118].

A deep investigation on by-products was carried out for the acid-catalysed hydrolysis of the water hyacinth plant to LA [100]. The authors found in solution organic acids, such as acetic acid and propionic together with the co-product formic acid, a big number of intermediate products arising from the cellulose and hemicellulose fraction of the water hyacinth leaves identified as monomeric sugars, glucose and arabinose, as well as furan derivatives, 5-HMF and furfural. The dark-brown solid was formed by a mixture of humin type by-products deriving from the acid-catalysed decomposition of glucose and 5-HMF [59], as well as products of condensation reactions of 587 C₅-sugars and furfural [119], residual insoluble lignin and ash. On the basis of the product
588 composition and literature precedents for other biomass sources [120, 121], the authors proposed a
589 simplified reaction pathway for the acid-catalysed hydrolysis of the cellulose and hemi-cellulose
590 fraction of the water hyacinth, as shown in Figure 7.

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597 598 Preliminary studies have been reported on their exploitation, performing one-step or two-step acid 599 hydrolysis, and promising yields, up to 22 wt %, were ascertained (exp. 70 and 71, Table 4). When 600 red macroalga Kappaphycus alvarezii was hydrolyzed at different temperatures, preliminary 601 depolymerization of sugars to the main carbohydrate component galactose and lower amount of 602 glucose was ascertained. The successive conversion to LA showed a similar reactivity for the two 603 different C₆ sugars (exp. 72, Table 4). This topic is particularly interesting for the future, also 604 considering the possibility of extending it to the relevant amount of naturally-grown algae biomass 605 collected from eutrophic water. Besides, algale-biomass exhibits higher growth rates than many 606 terrestrial plants, does not require soil, and, last but not least, has been proved less recalcitrant to 607 hydrolysis, at least, into simple sugars for bioethanol production.

608It is remarkable that LA can be also obtained from chitosan and chitin with good yields which609surely can be further improved (exp. 73-76, Table 4). These unexplored raw materials are the second610most abundant polysaccharides after cellulose, being obtained as industrial waste materials from611seafood industry and fisheries. Also the exploitation of a chitin-containing fungal biomass and the612purification of the obtained LA from unconverted glucosamine have been patented [122]. Their613optimized exploitation of all these innovative starting materials can represent a turning point for LA614production.

615 Although many raw feedstocks have been analyzed and investigated for LA production, there
616 are several other potential raw materials that still remain <u>almost</u> unexplored for LA synthesis. These
617 include municipal solid waste, domestic organic waste, cotton straw, reeds, seaweeds, etc.

618 When MW heating is adopted, generally an increase of LA yield respect to traditional heating is
 619 observed (compare exp. 61 with 62 and 63 with 64, Table 4), adopting shorter reaction time. The
 620 considered experiments have been generally carried out adopting constant temperature mode. As
 621 previously observed for the hydrolysis of simple sugars, also in the case of homogeneous catalysis
 622 on raw biomasses the MW beneficial role is described as thermal effect.-

624 3.2 Heterogeneous catalysts in water

625 The sustainable production of LA from insoluble polysaccharides and raw biomasses in water 626 slurry in the presence of heterogeneous catalysts is one of the greatest challenges that industry faces 627 in the 21st century, moving towards a bio-based society. Although its importance, successful 628 investigations are scarce due to the achieved low LA yields and further efforts are required to 629 improve the related process, such as to increase the reaction rates, to shorten the reaction time and to 630 make easier the recycle of the catalyst. The main reason of the generally low activity is related to the 631 very difficult solid-solid interaction between the substrate and the catalyst itself. Besides, the 632 deposition of solid by-products, such as humins and lignin-derived residues, can deactivate the 633 catalyst surface. A summary of recent works from the literature employing heterogeneous catalysts 634 in water is provided in Table 5.



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Table 5. Polysaccharides and raw and waste biomasses conversion in water in the presence of heterogeneous catalysts: reaction conditions.

Exp.	Substrate and	Catalyst	Reaction Conditions	Y la	Ref.
	loading (wt %)				
7 <u>7</u>	cellobiose	Sulfonated chloromethyl	170°C for 5 h	12.9 wt %	[<u>80</u> 61]
	5 wt %	polystyrene resin			
7 <u>8</u>	sucrose	Sulfonated chloromethyl	170°C for 10 h	16.5 wt %	[<u>80</u> 61]
	5 wt %	polystyrene resin			
7 <u>9</u>	cellulose	Sulfonated chloromethyl	170°C for 10 h	24 wt %	[<u>80</u> 61]
	5 wt %	polystyrene resin			
<u>80</u>	cellulose	Al-NbOPO ₄	180°C for 24 h	38 wt %	[<u>123</u> 93]
	5 wt %				
<u>81</u>	cellulose	Sulfonated carbon	190°C for 24 h	1.8 wt %	[<u>124</u> 94]
	2.5 wt %				
8 <u>2</u>	cellulose	ZrO_2	180°C for 3 h	39 wt %	[<u>125</u> 95]
	2 wt %				
8 <u>3</u>	cellulose	Zirconium phosphate	220°C for 2 h	12 wt %	[27]
	4 wt %				
8 <u>4</u>	inulin 6 wt %	Niobium Phosphate	MW, 200°C for 0.25 h	28.1 wt	[<u>104</u> 81]
8 <u>5</u>	wheat straw	Niobium Phosphate	MW, 200°C for 0.25 h	10.1 wt %	[<u>104</u> 81]
	6 wt %				
8 <u>6</u>	rice straw	$S_2O_8^2$ -/ZrO_2-SiO_2-Sm_2O_3	150°C for 0.17 h ^a	2.2 wt %	[<u>126</u> 96]
	6.6 wt %		180°C for 0.17 h ^a	6.1 wt %	
			200°C for 0.17 h ^a	9.3 wt %	
			240°C for 0.17 h ^a	6.7 wt %	
			200°C for 0.17 h ^b	14.2 wt %	

			^a 6.6% acid		
			concentration		
			^b 13.3% acid		
			concentration		
8 <u>7</u>	empty fruit	CrCl ₃ + HY zeolite	145.2 °C for 2.45 h	15.5 wt %	[<u>76</u> 57]
	bunch	hybrid catalyst			
	1 wt %				
8 <u>8</u>	kenaf	CrCl ₃ + HY zeolite	145.2 °C for 2.45 h	15.0 wt %	[<u>76</u> 57]
	1 wt %	hybrid catalyst			
8 <u>9</u>	kiwifruit waste	20% Nb/Al oxide	190°c for 0.17 h	13.8 wt %	[<u>127</u> 97]
	residue		190°C for 0.25 h	14.7 wt %	
	6.7 wt %				

638 The employment of solid heterogeneous catalysts for LA synthesis starting from insoluble 639 polysaccharides and raw biomasses represents is still a challenge, but and appears more difficult in 640 comparison of homogeneous because to the use ones. In fact, in a 641 solid-insoluble-substrate/solid-catalyst system the of the difficulty of mass transport applied to 642 solid insoluble substrate/solid catalyst system is very troubled and the heterogeneous catalysts have 643 not due to the ability, <u>-characteristic of the of</u> homogeneous <u>one systems</u>, to deliver the active 644 species into the solid or swelled biomass [12898]. For all these reasons, making more suitable the 645 heterogeneous systems result more suitable when water-soluble carbohydrates are processed. 646 However, interesting examples of heterogeneous catalysts applied to insoluble polysaccharides and 647 raw biomasses are reported in the literature. Recently, Zuo et al. studied a sulfonated chloromethyl 648 polystyrene solid acid catalyst for the catalytic conversion of cellulose into LA, obtaining 24 wt % LA 649 yield performing the reaction at 170°C for 10 h in water (exp. 72, Table 5). The authors employed the 650 same catalytic system at 170° in water also for the conversion of the disaccharides cellobiose and 651 sucrose to LA, achieving the LA yields of 12.9 wt % and 16.5 wt % after 5 and 10 h, respectively (exp. 652 77 and 78, Table 5). Another promising catalyst is zirconium dioxide, as reported by Joshi et al. who 653 used this system for the conversion of cellulose to LA at 180°C. After 3 h of reaction, total conversion 654 of cellulose was achieved together with a remarkably high yield to LA, equal to 39 wt % (exp. 82, 655 Table 5). Weingarten et al. investigated the possibility to use zirconium phosphate as heterogeneous 656 catalyst in the same reaction, again starting from cellulose, reaching in this case at 220°C for 2 h the 657 LA yield of 12 wt % (exp. 83, Table 5). A similar catalyst, niobium phosphate, doped with several 658 amount of aluminium was employed in the synthesis of LA from cellulose (exp. 80, Table 5). The 659 authors investigated the influence of the modification of the acid properties of the catalyst on the 660 selectivity and yield to LA. In fact, an appropriate acid strength is crucial for the conversion of 661 carbohydrates to LA, especially in the rate-determining opening of the H-bonded cellulose structure. 662 The authors found that the strength of Brønsted acid sites, but especially that of Lewis ones 663 increased with the increasing of Al amount and LA yield resulted correspondly enhanced, reaching 664 the highest value (38 wt%) for an Al content of 2.49%, highlighting as a tunable acid strength is a 665 fundamental parameter in order to obtain high LA yields. 666 Niobium phosphate was also successfully employed tested also in the catalytic hydrothermal

conversion of inulin and wheat straw to LA under MW irradiation. After 15 minutes at 200°C the LA
yield of 28.1 wt % and 10.1 wt % starting from inulin and wheat straw respectively were obtained
without appreciable formation of solid by-products (exp. <u>84</u> and 8<u>5</u>, Table 5).

670 <u>These heterogeneous acid catalysts, due to their significant polar character, generally are strong</u>
 671 <u>microwave absorbers which can strongly interact with the MW field. [129]. By this way, not only the</u>
 672 <u>liquid phase but also the solid component, including the catalytic species, are efficiently and quickly</u>

673 heated, but also in this case the positive role of MW is due to simple thermal effects. In addition, 674 Anong the acid catalysts listed above, it is considerable to highlight the use of the heterogeneous 675 super-acid catalyst named S₂O₈⁻/ZrO₂-SiO₂-Sm₂O₃ employed by Chen et al. in the conversion of rice 676 straw to LA, achieving LA yields around 10 wt % working in the temperature range of 150-200°C for 677 10 minutes in water (exp. 8_{0}^{6} , Table 5). Finally, another interesting example showing the employment 678 of heterogeneous catalysts to waste residues is reported by Wang et al. (exp. 89, Table 5). Today, the 679 kiwifruit industry is booming worldwide. Kiwifruit is widely cultivated in southern China and the 680 total production was over 1.17 million tons in 2014. About 37% of the fruit was processed into juice 681 and chips, with residual peels accounting for 3-5 wt- % of the fruit. In almost all the kiwifruit 682 genotypes cultivated, the levels of fructose and glucose are very high, making them a promising 683 candidate for the production of LA. At the moment, the kiwifruit waste residues, containing 684 monosaccharides, are discarded. In this regard, the authors have studied the catalytic conversion of 685 kiwifruit waste residues to LA in water at 190°C in the presence of 20 % Nb/Al oxide as catalyst, 686 achieving after 15 minutes of reaction the LA yield of 14.7 wt % (exp. 82, Table 5). The achieved 687 result is remarkable and the catalyst remain resulted active_up to five recycles. The promising 688 performance is due to the particular properties of the catalyst, such as robust water-tolerance, high 689 surface area and acidity. Regarding the latter, the authors investigated different Nb loading of Nb/Al 690 oxides-, proving that the total acid content decreases with the increase of Nb/Al ratio, instead the 691 concentration of strong acid sites increases. Therefore, 20% Nb/Al oxide is the most promising 692 catalyst, showing the best compromise between the amount of strong acid sites and total acidity and 693 a suitable Brøønsted to Lewis acid site ratio, which allowed to achieve the highest LA yield.

694 The robust water tolerance, high special surface area, acidity, and Brønsted acid concentration
 695 of the Nb/Al oxide catalyst are considered to be responsible for this promising performance.

696As previously underlined for LA synthesis from sugars, the substrate loadings reported in the697literature are generally lower than 10 wt% also starting from polysaccharides and raw biomasses698(Table 4 and Table 5). This is justified not only by the high amount of by-products formed when high699feedstock loadings are adopted, but also by mechanical mixing problems in the reactor, due to the700high solid substrate/solvent ratio [27]. Therefore, the consequent drawbacks previously reported for701sugars are more serious.

702 The reported results show that the LA yields achieved using heterogeneous catalysts are not yet 703 satisfactory for the use of these systems at the industrial scale and further investigations are needed. 704 In this regard, an extensive investigation of the surface characteristics, density of acid sites, shape, 705 selectivity, porosity and mechanical and physicochemical properties of the catalysts appears 706 necessary to gain a proper understanding of the catalyst role and thereby allow increased -_ an 707 increasing of LA yields to be achieved. It is also important to mention that the toxicity of heavy 708 metals limits its application for LA production. However, considering although these drawbacks, 709 heterogeneous catalysts are desirable in the future for industrial uses, due to their easier recovery 710 and recyclability than homogeneous ones.

711

712 **3.3 Monophasic organic solvents**

When cellulose and raw biomasses are employed as starting substrates, monophasic systems
employed for the production of LA are mainly those made of two completely miscible solvents, such
as the system composed of H₂O (10 wt %) and GVL (90 wt %) which is the most widely adopted.
Table 6 shows some interesting examples (exp. <u>90-93</u>, Table 6).

717 Table 6. Polysaccharides and raw and waste biomasses conversion in monophasic organic solvents:
 718 reaction conditions.

Exp.	Substrate	Catalyst	Reaction Conditions	Y la	Ref.
	and loading				
	(wt %)				
<u>90</u>	cellulose	[C4H6N2(CH2)3SO3H]3-n	140 °C for 12 h in	63.1 wt %	[<u>130</u> 99]

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	2 wt %	$H_nPW_{12}O_{40}$, n = 1, 2 3]	H2O/MIBK (1/10 v/v)		
<u>91</u>	cellulose	Sulfonated	170°C for 10 h in	47 wt %	[<u>130</u> 99]
	4 wt %	chloromethyl	H2O-GVL (10/90 wt %)		
		polystyrene resin			
9 <u>2</u>	cellulose	Amberlyst 70	160°C for 16 h in	<u>49.469 wt</u>	[1 <u>31</u> 00]
	2 wt %		H2O-GVL (10/90 wt %)	% <u>*</u>	
9 <u>3</u>	corn stover	Amberlyst 70	160°C for 16 h in	<u>38.7 wt</u> 54	[1 <u>32</u> 00]
	6 wt %		H2O-GVL (10/90 wt %)	% <u>*</u>	

719 720

745

* In the paper the calculation of the reported yield is unclear

721 Zuo et al. investigated the conversion of microcrystalline cellulose into LA catalyzed by a 722 sulfonated chloromethyl polystyrene resin (CP SO₃H 1.69), obtaining at 170°C yields to LA up to 723 65.5 mol % (which corresponds to 47 wt %) at complete substrate conversion. The authors attributed 724 the high yield of LA to the fact that GVL can solubilize cellulose and, therefore, improve the 725 interactions between cellulose and the solid acid catalyst (exp. 91, Table 6). Alonso et al. converted 726 cellulose to LA after 16 h of reaction at 160°C using the sulfonated resin Amberlyst 70 as catalyst in a 727 solution of 90 wt % GVL and 10 wt % H₂O as solvent obtaining promising LA yield (<u>49.4 wt 69</u> %, not 728 specified if LA yield is in mol or wt%) compared to the low yield (<u>13.6 wt 19</u>%, not specified if LA 729 vield is in mol or wt %) achieved in 100 % water (exp. 92, Table 6). The authors also studied in the 730 H2O-GVL solvent the conversion of the real biomass corn stover to LA, achieving a remarkable LA 731 yield (<u>38.7 wt 54</u> %, not specified if LA yield is in mol or wt %), at 160°C after 16 h (exp. 9<u>3</u>, Table 6). 732 According to the authors, the good performances extraordinary behavior of Amberlyst 70 in the 733 H₂O/GVL solvent are is due as previously reported by Zuo, to the capacity of GVL of solubilizing the 734 cellulose, which increases the accessibility of the sugar oligomers to the acid sites where the 735 dehydration reactions take place. In addition, GVL swells the Amberlyst 70 resin, thereby improving 736 the diffusivity through the pores and increasing its the catalytic activity of Amberlyst 70.

The employment of fluorinated solvents like <u>perfluorohexane_tri-fluoroacetic acid</u> has also
been<u>also</u> studied for biomass conversion to LA [1<u>32</u>01]. However, tri-fluoroacetic acid forms
azeotrope with water, making very difficult its recovery and reuse. However, the harmful properties
and the high cost of this class of solvents preclude them from an extensive use.

It is clear that the choice of the most suitable organic solvent is critical and in addition to the
suitability of solvents in terms of substrate conversion, product selectivity and yields, another
important factors to be taken into consideration areis their environmental impact and separation and
recycling efficiency.

746 3.4 Biphasic systems and ionic liquids

In the synthesis of LA, biphasic solvent systems are used when an organic phase is immiscible
with the aqueous phase and the first one has a significantly higher partition coefficient for LA with
respect to water, thus allowing easier recovery.

GVL, which is a renewable and sustainable liquid resource for energy, is very often employed 750 751 as component in biphasic systems for the conversion of biomasses to LA₂ because its use eliminates 752 the need for any pretreatment method, converting simultaneously cellulose and hemicelluloses to 753 LA, not requiring, therefore, any separation of hexose and pentose sugars. A biphasic system, 754 consisting of GVL and an aqueous solution of HCl (0.1-1.25 M) containing NaCl and a solute, such 755 as sugar or salt, has been reported by Wettsteinetal et al. for LA production. The reaction was carried 756 out at 155 °C and was found that majority of LA was extracted by GVL solvent, achieving yields 757 from cellulose after 1.5 h to LA of 72 mol %, which corresponds to 51.6 wt % [1<u>33</u>02].

A biphasic reactor system consisting of an aqueous layer containing the acid catalyst, such as 1M H₂SO₄ or zeolite (ZSM-5), and an organic layer consisting of organic solvent, such as 2-sec-butylphenol (SBP), 4-n-hexylphenol (NHP) or 4-propylguaiacol, have been developed by
Dumesic et al. for the production of LA through the conversion of corn stover to furfural carried out
at 170°C, followed by the reduction of furfural to furfuryl alcohol which is further hydrolyzed to LA
at 125°C [1<u>3403</u>].

764 The choice of the most appropriate organic solvents is very difficult due to the limitation of 765 biphasic solvent systems.: Iin fact, small amounts of product are left in the aqueous phase reducing 766 yields especially when the partitioning is inadequate. In order to overcome the problem of low 767 partitioning, large amounts of solvent have to be used, becoming the process high energy 768 demanding in the subsequent product and solvent recovery step. Moreover, these multi-solvent 769 processes require a relatively complex plant design, unavoidably increasing capital costs. As a 770 consequence, only the organic solvents with high partition coefficient for LA with respect to water 771 can be used because they reduce the <u>required</u> volume of required solvent, lowering reducing the 772 energy input for the recovery of LA. This opens the way for novel solvents to be explored which 773 promise an increase in the product yield and which can be used at larger scale with low economic 774 charge.

775 In recent years, research on ionic liquids has gained great attention due to their wide 776 employment of them as solvents as well as catalysts. Ionic liquids are salts consisting of ions which 777 are liquid at ambient temperatures or below 100 °C [13504]. The stability, the low vapour pressure, 778 the easy separation and recyclability of ionic liquids, coupled with the fact that their physical and 779 chemical properties can be easily tuned by varying the ions, are some of the important reasons for 780 the intense interest for the use of of researchers in these solvents which have been used to convert 781 raw biomass into added-value products [1<u>3605-14211</u>]. In detail, cCatalytic conversion of biomass to 782 LA in the ionic liquid [EMIM][Cl] using a hybrid catalyst (CrCl₃ and HY-zeolite) has shown to yield 783 46 wt % of LA from cellulose working at 61.8°C for 14.2 minutes, whereas 20 wt % yield was 784 obtained from empty fruit bunch compared to 15.5 wt % yield achieved in the absence of the ionic 785 liquid [110]. Some aAttempts have also been made to selectively convert cellulose into LA using 786 MWmicrowave-assisted synthesis in SO₃H-functionalized ionic liquids: which resulted after 30 787 minutes at 160 °C ain the LA yield of 39.4 wt % was reached [14211]. Nevertheless, ionic liquids also 788 show important drawbacks. First of all, their status as 'green solvents' has been questioned: the fact 789 that their properties can be tuned by changing the involved ions leads to an enormous diversity in 790 both the number and properties of ionic liquids, making both the method of production of the ionic 791 liquid and its properties (toxicity, explosivity, biodegradability, etc.) not completely 792 environment-friendly [14312]. Another disadvantage of ionic liquids is their high viscosity which 793 reduces mass transfer in the liquid, leading to only a small fraction of the liquid to be in contact with 794 the substrates. Moreover, the low vapour pressure of ionic liquids, which is considered one of their 795 'green' characteristics, prevents an easy recovery of used ionic liquids via distillation, requiring 796 alternative methods for separating the reacting species and recovering the ionic liquid [14413]. 797 Moreover, the effect of moisture in the feedstock on the performance of ionic liquids is another 798 aspect that needs to be considered, because some chemical properties, such as anionic basicity, can 799 be adversely affected by the presence of water [14514], whereas physical properties, such as viscosity, 800 can actually be improved by the addition of water [14413]. Furthermore, ionic liquids can also lead 801 to severe corrosion in numerous metals, especially in the presence of water, leading to process 802 equipment damage and additional cost [14615]. As a consequence, the need to purify them after 803 recycling, together with their potential sensitivity to moisture and oxide impurities represent 804 additional challenges, not already solved. Finally, another limitation in the employment of ionic 805 liquids is their high cost, typically between two and one hundred times that of organic solvents 806 [14716]. At the moment, all these elements have limited their perspectives for an use at industrial 807 scale. 808

- 809
- 810
- 811

4. Biochar recovery and exploitation possibilities

814 The hydrothermal conversion of any biomass feedstock produces a carbonaceous charred solid 815 by-product, named "hydrochar", which is separated from the hydrolysate solution by filtration. This 816 solid includes mainly humins deriving from the degradation of furanic intermediates of C5 and C6 817 sugars source, which have undergone aldol addition/condensation reactions [22,14817]. 818 Furthermore, the influence contribute of the degraded lignin fraction should be considered, if 819 lignocellulosics are used as starting feedstock, thus further contributing to the increase of 820 aromaticity degree of the final hydrochar [14918]. In addition, the chemical composition of the 821 hydrochar may be even more complex, if the starting feedstock is a waste material, such as 822 bio-solids, municipal wastes, paper mill sludge, and so on. On this basis, it is noticeable that the 823 yield and properties of the char strongly depend on the composition of the starting feedstock and the 824 adopted process conditions, these last including temperature, residence time, substrate 825 concentration and pH [15019,15120].

The hydrochar recovered after LA production could be immediately used as solid bio-fuel 826 827 within the same biorefinery plant, having a heating value which is typical of that of the traditional 828 lignite coal [<u>97</u>74,1<u>5221</u>] or as a storable solid fuel for energy generation (via cocombustion or use in 829 carbon fuel cells). In detail, tThe higher heating value (HHV) of the hydrochar is always higher than 830 that of the starting untreated biomass [25], because of the predominant dehydration route which has 831 occurred during the hydrothermal treatment, having released furans (e.g. furfural and 832 5-hydroymethyl furfural) and organic acids (levulinic acid, formic acid) into the liquid phase. The 833 hydrothermal treatment of a carbohydrate feedstock is not limited to the production of LA levulinic 834 acid but can be applied for the production of other organic acids $\left[\frac{5322}{322}\right]$ and, from the perspective of 835 the solid residue, different kinds of hydrochar can be obtained. However, the available information 836 on hydrochar are limited and, therefore, many works are incomplete and most of them report low 837 yields towards LA without explaining the amount and the nature of by-products. Definitely, passing 838 to raw and waste starting materials, Ithe amount of the generated byproduct wastes increases when 839 moving from raw to waste starting materials is increasing and therefore new exploitation 840 possibilities of these biowastes, in addition to the traditonal energy recovery must be evaluated and 841 developed, thus ensuring the sustainability of the entire process. In the field of the hydrothermal 842 route, the state of the art on hydrochar suggests that it is certainly a valuable resource, having a 843 chemistry which is typical of carbon materials. The main proposed alternative use of the hydrochar 844 is for the synthesis of porous activated carbons, by suitable physical and chemical activation 845 procedures [15423, 155]. However, from a different perspective, new applications have been studied, 846 that is for environmental applications, such as a soil amendment for the increase of soil fertility, 847 while providing a long-term carbon sink [15624,15725] and as an efficient adsorbent in 848 environmental remediation processes [15826,15927]. Furthermore, hydrochar is suitable for a wide 849 range of other important applications in modern nanotechnology, including going from catalysis 850 and to energy storage and generation [16028].

851 The above reported exploitation possibilities provides the direct use of the hydrochar, despite 852 some chemical modification of the same. Recently, different and smart approaches for hydrochar 853 exploitation have been proposed, which involve the use of the "humin-like" hydrochar as starting 854 feedstock for new upgrading reactions. Hoang et al. have studied the exploitation of humins via dry 855 reforming. The volatile organic components released during heating are mainly phenols, aromatic 856 hydrocarbons, and furans, which can be used as a source of potential chemicals or further reformed 857 to syngas/H2 in the second stage, thereby converting the whole humin feedstock. Due to the 858 recalcitrant behaviour of this thermally stable bio-material, its non-catalytic dry reforming is very 859 difficult, but the authors have significantly improved the kinetics by adopting Na₂CO₃ as alkali 860 catalyst [16129]. In another research, Wang et al. have recently studied the catalytic hydrotreatment 861 of C6-derived humins, by using a formic acid as hydrogen donor in isopropanol or hydrogen gas, 862 achieving promising results (humin conversion about 70 %) with Ru/C catalyst. The authors have 863 partially depolymerized the carbonaceous humins, producing identifying mainly _substituted alkylphenolics, naphthalenes, and cyclic alkanes, which can be used as liquid biofuels or as a source
for interesting bulk chemicals after fractionation [16230].

866 These new applications of the hydrochar add value to this waste material and provide a 867 synergistic and holistic approach that could advantageously be integrated into future biorefinery 868 schemes beyond its direct use as a solid fuel $\frac{1}{2}$ but t<u>T</u>he effective utilization of hydrochar-would 869 requires further experimental research and investigation in terms of relationships among feedstocks 870 compositions, physico-chemical properties and process conditions and development of a diverse 871 range of processing options to produce hydrochar with characteristics required for various industry 872 applications. This approach will have a positive effect on the techno economic viability of 873 biorefinery schemes involving the conversion of biomass into bio based chemicals such as LA and 874 HMF.

875 5. Conclusions and future perspectives

876 The synthesis of LA from biomasses can be achieved from C5-sugars in hemicellulose and 877 C6-sugars in cellulose, starting from simple sugars to real raw and waste biomasses. A closer 878 inspection of the described results reveals that although monosaccharides like fructose and glucose 879 offer the highest product yields, the use of polysaccharides and in particular raw and waste 880 biomasses is required for industrial-scale production to be viable from the sustainability and the 881 economical viewpoints. In order to achieve these goals, improvements are needed in the catalyst and 882 solvent selection. Homogeneous systems are used widely in laboratory scale syntheses, but in larger 883 scale processes, there are still drawbacks in separating the product with high purity and without 884 degradation, in recovering and recycling the catalyst and in tackling ecological and safety hurdles. 885 On the other hand, hH eterogeneous catalysts are easier to recover and recycle, but they give lower 886 LA yields than homogeneous systems and need to be regenerated after consecutive runs. The 887 industrial scale adoption of heterogeneous catalysts is not still feasible, mainly due to their difficult 888 reactivation/recycling, caused by the formation of solid humin by-products, which are found to be 889 very thermally-stable. This drawback is particularly relevant for raw lignocellulosic biomasses, due 890 to the presence of the degraded lignin fraction in the final hydrochar. At the current state of the art, 891 heterogeneous catalysts are employed only at laboratory scale with simple sugars as starting 892 feedstocks. In this case, the production of humins is better controlled, but the problem of higher cost 893 of these "ideal" feedstocks (respect to the lignocellulosic ones) strongly limits the scale-up on larger 894 scale. Further research is surely necessary to solve these problems and develop new cheaper, 895 thermally-stable and easily recyclable heterogeneous catalysts.

896 On the other hand, the use of homogeneous catalysts, in particular HCl and H₂SO₄, offers
897 greater flexibility, being recovered quite easily from the reaction medium by distillation and re-used.
898 Anyway, the problem of corrosion of the equipment is only partially solved by the use of
899 acid-resistant materials, which are currently used mainly at laboratory scale, given their high cost.
900 The combined use of dilute mineral acids and high temperature/long reaction time actually
901 represents the best compromise for LA production, reducing the corrosion of the equipment.

902 The <u>use exploitation</u> of raw and waste biomass is attracting increasing interest and the use of novel
903 non terrestrial resources <u>such</u> as algae and chitin/chitosan can represent a significant turning point.
904 In addition, also the recovery and the exploitation of the solid residues obtained in the LA
905 production processes is another important aspect to be addressed from a sustainable biorefinery
906 perspective.

907 In conclusion, the main challenges that have to be tackled in the near future can be summarized 908 into the following points: (i) improve the design and the use of efficient heterogeneous catalysts with 909 high recyclability; (ii) enhance their selectivity and the catalyst lifetime; (iii) develop new strategies 910 to obtain LA from raw and waste biomasses; (iv) optimize the exploitation of the solid residues 911 obtained in the LA production processes; (v) upgrade the current technologies to produce pure <u>LA</u> 912 <u>through more sustainable approaches and competitive LA</u>; (vi) scale up the <u>process LA synthesis</u> 913 going beyond the economic and technological barriers.

- 914 Acknowledgments: Financial support to this work by University of Pisa (Italy), under VALBIO research project
 915 PRA 2015 is gratefully acknowledged.
- 916 Author Contributions: All the authors together analyzed and discussed the data and equally contributed to917 prepare the paper.

918 Conflicts of Interest:

- 919 The authors declare no conflict of interest. The founding sponsors had no role in the design of the study; in the
- 920 collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript, and in the decision to publish the 921 results.
- 922

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