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Selectively production of levoglucosenone from cellulose via catalytic fast pyrolysis

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Abstract

Levoglucosenone (LGO) has a wide range of utilization in the field of organic synthesis. Magnetic solid acid (Fe₃O₄/C-SO₃H₆₀₀) was used in fast pyrolysis of cellulose to produce LGO. It was demonstrated that the catalyst could promote the pyrolysis of cellulose to produce LGO, but the yield was affected by the pyrolysis temperature and the relative amount of catalyst. The yield of LGO reached 20.0 wt% from catalytic fast pyrolysis of cellulose at 300 °C, which was significantly higher than that from cellulose (0.3 wt%). Furthermore, the kinetic analysis and recycling results showed that the catalyst could not only reduce the required temperature of cellulose in fast pyrolysis, but also still efficiently promote the production of LGO after recovery and activation.

Key words: Levoglucosenone, Magnetic solid acid, Catalytic fast pyrolysis, Cellulose.

25 Introduction

26 A great interest burgeons in renewable biomass as a source for fuel and
27 chemicals production for the demands to replace alternatives to fossil fuels (Jiang *et*
28 *al.*, 2020a). Fast pyrolysis, one of the feasible and effective biomass utilization
29 technology, can convert biomass into bio-oil (Sharifzadeh *et al.*, 2019; Zhang *et al.*,
30 2020). Bio-oil is a complex mixture of water and hundreds of organics including acids,
31 ketones, aldehydes, esters, alcohols, furans, anhydrosugars, phenols and other
32 macromolecular oligomers. Because of containing various compounds and the
33 potential for wide range applications, it can be used as a liquid fuel or extracted
34 valuable chemicals (Tshikesho *et al.*, 2019). However, the concentration of most
35 components in bio-oil obtained from the traditional pyrolysis process is relatively low,
36 and it is currently uneconomical to separate special compounds from bio-oil. There is
37 no doubt that bio-oil production with a high content of target products is essential
38 (Meng *et al.*, 2016). Recently, various selective pyrolysis methods have been
39 investigated, such as pretreatment of raw material before pyrolysis, catalytic pyrolysis
40 of biomass, and optimization of pyrolysis conditions (Zhang *et al.*, 2021; Jiang *et al.*,
41 2020b; Usino *et al.*, 2020).

42 Levoglucosenone (LGO) is an anhydrosugar with a unique structure, which
43 includes not only six different functionalized carbon atoms, but also two chiral centers,
44 containing α,β -unsaturated ketones and protected aldehyde functional groups. These
45 unique properties make it a chiral synthon for the synthesis of a variety of new and
46 valuable compounds, such as high-value drugs and bio-based polar aprotic solvent
47 (Cao *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2018; Liu *et al.*, 2020). Although LGO has a
48 considerable value for use, the content of LGO in bio-oil obtained by conventional
49 pyrolysis of cellulose is extremely low, hindering its further utilizations. Therefore, it

50 is essential to develop a suitable catalyst for cellulosic fast pyrolysis to achieve LGO
51 with high yields. It has been proposed that the catalysts currently used in the
52 cellulosic pyrolysis to produce LGO include ionic liquids, liquid inorganic acids and
53 solid acids (Doroshenko *et al.*, 2019). Although ionic liquids can increase the yield of
54 LGO significantly, high expenses make them unavailable in large-scale applications
55 (Kudo *et al.*, 2017). Cellulose impregnated with liquid inorganic acids (*e.g.*
56 phosphoric acid, sulfuric acid) is also performed to promote LGO production (Dobele
57 *et al.*, 1999). However, this process shows several shortcomings: the impregnation of
58 cellulose and acid requires a complicated pretreatment process; a large amount of
59 waste acid is produced after the impregnation, which cannot be recycled and reused.
60 In contrast, solid acid is thermally stable and can be readily recovered after pyrolysis.
61 There is no need to go through a complicated impregnation process and only simple
62 mechanical mixing with the cellulose is required. Therefore, solid acid is a better
63 choice for catalytic fast pyrolysis of cellulose. Solid superacid $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{ZrO}_2$ was
64 subjected to catalytic pyrolysis, giving a LGO yield of 8.2 wt% (Wang *et al.*, 2011).
65 Lu *et al.* (2014a) developed a superacid $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{TiO}_2\text{-Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ for catalytic pyrolysis of
66 cellulose at 300 °C, obtaining a LGO yield up to 15.4 wt%. Phosphoric acid-activated
67 carbon catalyzed pyrolysis of cellulose greatly improved the yield of LGO (Ye *et al.*,
68 2017). The yield of LGO produced from cellulose catalyzed by solid acid still needs
69 to be improved.

70 Based on previous research, an important and indispensable step for cellulose
71 pyrolysis to generate LGO was the dehydration reaction (Zhang *et al.*, 2017).
72 Regarding this procedure, it has been reported that both Fe_3O_4 and acid catalyst could
73 enhance the dehydration behavior and promote the yield of LGO in catalytic fast
74 pyrolysis cellulose (Lu *et al.*, 2014a; Halpern *et al.*, 1973). In this study, magnetic

75 solid acid $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ was synthesized and applied in catalytic fast pyrolysis of
76 cellulose to produce LGO. Different from previous reported investigations, this
77 research could not only efficiently promote the conversion of cellulose to LGO, but
78 also analyzed its kinetics and reaction mechanism in detail, and investigated the
79 recovery and reuse performance of the catalyst.

80 **Materials and methods**

81 **Materials**

82 The microcrystalline cellulose, nano- Fe_3O_4 ($\geq 99.5\%$, 20 nm) and glucose used in
83 the experiment were purchased from Macklin biochemical Co., Ltd. (Shanghai).
84 H_2SO_4 (99.8%) was purchased from Guangshi Agent Technology Co., Ltd.
85 (Guangdong). Levoglucosan (LG) ($>96\%$) and LGO ($>96\%$) were purchased from
86 Sigma-Aldrich (Shanghai).

87 **Catalyst preparation**

88 The preparation of the catalyst required two steps: carbonization and sulfonation.
89 Firstly, the nano- Fe_3O_4 (2 g) and glucose (15 g) were mixed in deionized water (100
90 mL), and evaporated the water in an oil bath (100 °C) with vigorous stirring to ensure
91 uniform dispersion of the nano- Fe_3O_4 . After evaporation, the mixture was transferred
92 to a crucible and heated to 500-700°C for a period of time in a tube furnace under N_2
93 atmosphere (240 mL/min) at a heating rate of 6 °C/min. The carbonized solid $\text{C}/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$
94 therein was taken out and ground through a 200-mesh sieve, and then mixed with 98%
95 H_2SO_4 at a ratio of 1 g/10 mL. After sulfonated in an oil bath for 20 h at a temperature
96 of 150 °C, the sulfonated catalyst was washed with deionized water until neutral and
97 dried at 105 °C for 24 h in an oven finally. The catalysts prepared at 500 °C, 600 °C
98 and 700 °C were entitled $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{500}$, $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ and $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{700}$,
99 respectively.

100 **Catalyst characterization**

101 The X-ray diffraction analysis of the catalyst was carried out in an X'Pert PRO
102 MPD X-ray diffractometer using Cu K α radiation source ($\lambda=0.15418$ nm). Fourier
103 transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR, Bruker TENSOR27, Optik Instruments, Brno,
104 Czech Republic) was used to analyze the functional groups contained in the catalyst.
105 Scanning electron microscope (SEM, ZEISS EVO LS10, Cambridge, UK) was used
106 to scan the surface morphology of the catalyst. The acid sites of the catalyst were
107 determined by NH₃ temperature programmed desorption (NH₃-TPD, Chemisorption
108 analyzer, Quantachrome Instruments, Boynton Beach, FL). Thermogravimetric
109 experiment was carried out in a TG analyzer (SDT650, TA, USA). Sample was put
110 into alumina crucible, and heated from 50 °C to 650 °C at the rate of 10, 20 and
111 40 °C/min.

112 **Kinetic analysis**

113 The kinetic parameters were obtained by distributed activation energy model
114 (DAEM). It assumed that the thermal decomposition reaction consisted of many
115 simple reactions that obeyed a normal distribution $f(E)$.

116
$$f(E) \sim N(E, \sigma) \quad (1)$$

117 Due to the existence of the kinetic compensation effect, the activation energy, the
118 pre-reference factor, and the mechanism function were related to each other.
119 Assuming that the pre-reference factor was a constant, the activation energy was only
120 related to the mechanism function, as shown in formula (2).

121
$$\alpha = 1 - \int_0^{\infty} \exp\left[-\frac{A}{\beta} \Psi(E, T)\right] f(E) dE \quad (2)$$

122 where α is the conversion rate, %; β is the heating rate, °C/min; E is the
123 activation energy, kJ/mol; A is the pre-exponential factor, s⁻¹; $\Psi(E, T)$ is the

124 temperature integral:

$$\Psi(E, T) = \int_0^T \exp\left(\frac{-E}{RT}\right) dT \quad (3)$$

126 **Fast pyrolysis**

127 The sample was subjected to fast pyrolysis in a semi-batch CDS reactor (CDS 5200,
128 Oxford, PA, USA), and then the composition of the volatile products after pyrolysis
129 was examined by Gas Chromatograph-Mass Spectrometer (GC-MS) (Agilent
130 7890A/5975C, Santa Clara, CA, USA). The sample was weighted and placed in the
131 middle of the quartz tube, and both sides of the quartz tube were blocked with quartz
132 wool. The sample was pyrolyzed at 250-500 °C for 20 s. The injector temperature was
133 280 °C, and the helium gas (1 mL/min) was used as carrier gas with a split ratio of
134 1:100. The capillary column used for chromatographic separation was Agilent HP-
135 INNO (30 mm × 0.25 mm × 0.25 μm). The oven program was held at 40 °C for 3 min,
136 then ramped to 280 °C at 5 °C/min and held at 280 °C for 8 min. The mass
137 spectrometer operated at 70 eV in EI mode. After fast pyrolysis, the catalyst was
138 recovered by the permanent magnet, and the recovered catalyst was subjected to Py-
139 GC/MS experiment to verify its cyclic activity. The chromatographic peaks were
140 identified by the NIST mass spectral data library. The quantification of products was
141 performed by external standard method. Each experiment was performed in triplicate
142 to ensure its repeatability. The yield and relative content of products were calculated
143 as follows:

$$144 \text{ Compound yield (wt\%)} = \frac{\text{mass of compound}}{\text{mass of cellulose}} \times 100\% \quad (4)$$

$$145 \text{ Relative content of compound (\%)} = \frac{\text{Area of a compound}}{\text{Area of all compounds}} \times 100\% \quad (5)$$

146

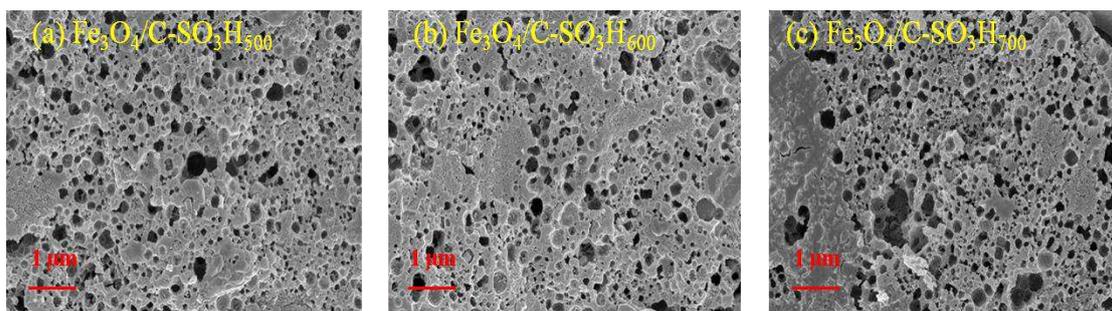
147 **Results and discussion**

148 **Catalyst characterization**

149 The SEM images of the catalysts are shown in Fig. 1. It could be seen that the
150 surface of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{500}$ and $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ contained countless pores. This
151 facilitated the contact of the catalysts with cellulose. Although there were many pores
152 on the surface of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{700}$, it was very messy, probably due to the excessive
153 temperature destroying the pore structure on the surface of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{700}$. Among
154 the three catalysts, the surface area of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{500}$ ($1.8 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) was larger than that
155 of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ ($0.7 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) and $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{700}$ ($0.6 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) (Table 1). This might
156 be caused by the higher calcination temperature causing Fe_3O_4 to be embedded in the
157 pores.

158 The XRD peaks of the three catalysts were all identified as the crystalline phase
159 of Fe_3O_4 (Fig. 2), which indicated that Fe_3O_4 remained stable after calcination and
160 sulfonation during the preparation of catalysts. In FTIR analysis, the absorption peak
161 at 598 cm^{-1} was the Fe-O bond vibration in Fe_3O_4 (Fig. 3) (Guo *et al.*, 2013). The
162 absorption peaks at $1600\text{-}1800 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ were C=C, C=O and COO^- stretching vibrations
163 and 3463 cm^{-1} was -OH stretching vibration (Alvaro *et al.*, 2005). The absorption
164 peaks at 1061 cm^{-1} ($-\text{SO}_3^-$ stretching) and the 1223 cm^{-1} (O=S=O stretching in $-\text{SO}_3\text{H}$)
165 were important signs of the presence of $-\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ functional groups (Fukuhara *et al.*,
166 2011). All peak strengths of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{500}$ were weak. The difference between
167 $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ and $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{700}$ was that catalyst $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ appeared-
168 SO_3^- stretching and O=S=O stretching in $-\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ at bands 1061 cm^{-1} and 1223 cm^{-1} ,
169 respectively. This showed the presence of $-\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ functional group in $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-}$
170 $\text{SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$. $\text{NH}_3\text{-TPD}$ characterization also indicated that the acid sites of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-}$
171 $\text{SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ (0.7 mmol/g) were higher than that of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{500}$ (0.1 mmol/g) and

172 $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{700}$ (0.5 mmol/g) (Table 1).



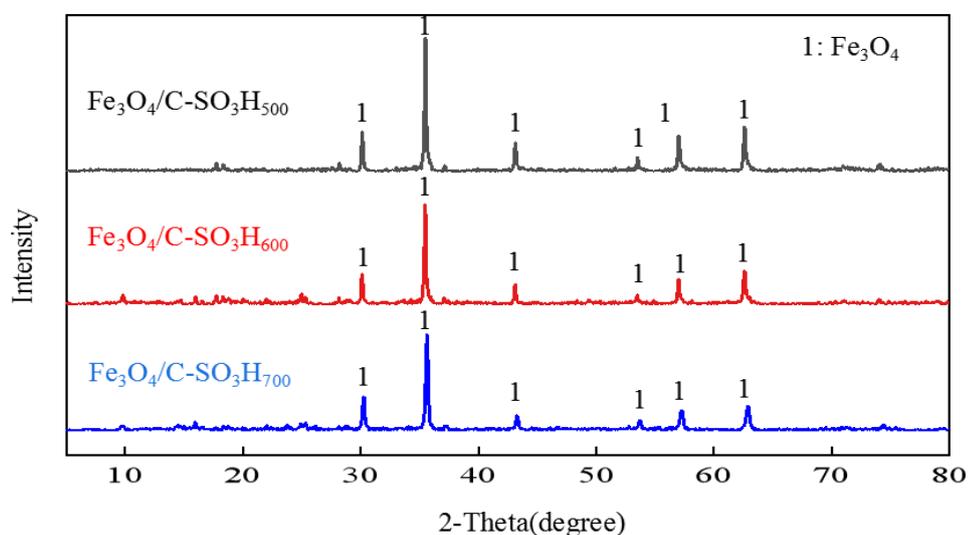
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Figure 1. SEM images of catalysts.

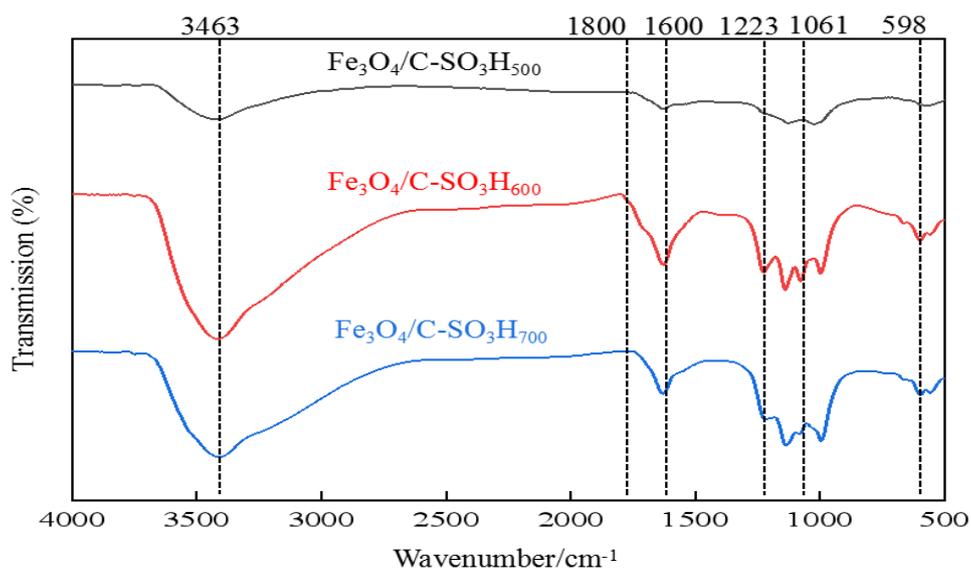
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Figure 2. XRD patterns of catalysts.



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Figure 3. FTIR analysis of catalysts.

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Table 1. The total acid sites and textural properties of the catalysts

Catalysts	Acid sites (mmol/g)	BET surface area (m ² /g)	Pore volume (cm ³ /g)
Fe ₃ O ₄ /C-SO ₃ H ₅₀₀	0.1	1.8	0.006
Fe ₃ O ₄ /C-SO ₃ H ₆₀₀	0.7	0.7	0.006
Fe ₃ O ₄ /C-SO ₃ H ₇₀₀	0.5	0.6	0.002

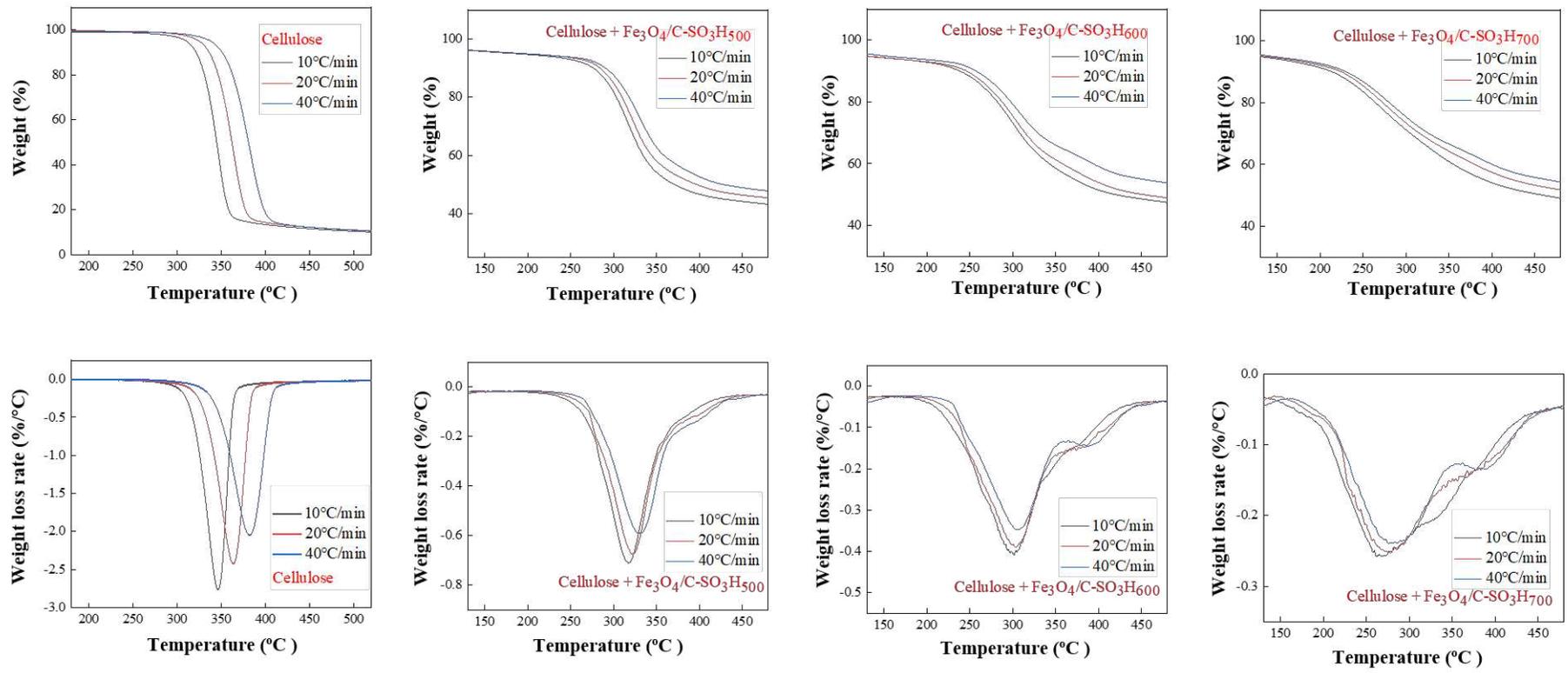
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185 TG and kinetic analysis

186 The TG analysis of pure cellulose and cellulose mixed with the solid acid
187 catalyst is shown in Fig. 4 and Table 2. The main weight loss area of cellulose was
188 300-400 °C, and after mixing with the solid acid, the main weight loss area shifted to
189 200-400 °C. Considering the heating rate was 40 °C/min, the initial weight loss
190 temperature of cellulose was 335 °C, which was higher than that of cellulose mixed
191 with catalysts (199-263 °C). D_{max} was the maximum weight loss rate in the
192 decomposition reaction process, which indicated the degree of the decomposition
193 reaction. The greater the D_{max} was, the more intense the decomposition reaction
194 revealed. The D_{max} of cellulose (2.0-2.8%/°C) was also higher than that of cellulose
195 mixed with the solid acid catalysts (0.2-0.7%/°C). The reason was that the thermal
196 stability of cellulose was high, the thermal decomposition was carried out at a higher
197 temperature and the reaction was concentrated, while the thermal stability of cellulose
198 mixed with the catalyst was reduced, resulting in the dispersed decomposition
199 reaction, and the wide main weight loss area.

200 The DAEM is currently the most accurate thermal analysis kinetic model, which
201 can accurately simulate the experimental curve, as shown in Fig. 5. The kinetic
202 parameters calculated according to DAEM are shown in Table 3. E referred to the
203 global activation energy, that was, the energy that needed to be absorbed when the
204 sample was decomposed. The larger the E , the more energy needed to be absorbed

205 during the decomposition, and the more difficult it was to decompose. σ refers to the
206 deviation of activation energy, which indicates the concentration of decomposition
207 reaction. Consider the heating rate was 40 °C/min, compared with the cellulose mixed
208 with the catalyst (168.1-175.5 kJ/mol), the cellulose had the highest activation energy
209 (187.4 kJ/mol). After mixed with the catalyst, activation energy for cellulose
210 decomposition was reduced, thereby reducing the initial decomposition temperature.
211 In addition, the σ of cellulose (0.1 kJ/mol) was the smallest and the reaction was the
212 most concentrated, while the cellulose mixed with catalyst had larger σ , and the
213 reaction was dispersed. It could be seen that the thermal stability of cellulose could be
214 destroyed after adding the catalyst, and the cellulose could be decomposed at a lower
215 temperature.



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Figure 4. TG and DTG curves of cellulose and cellulose mixed with catalyst.

Table 2. Thermogravimetric parameters at different heating rates

Samples	Heating rates (°C/min)	T _i (°C)	T _f (°C)	T _{max} (°C)	D _{max} (%/°C)
Cellulose	10	308	368	346	-2.8
	20	322	383	363	-2.4
	40	335	403	381	-2.0
Cellulose + Fe ₃ O ₄ /C-SO ₃ H ₅₀₀	10	250	413	317	-0.7
	20	257	419	323	-0.7
	40	263	425	329	-0.6
Cellulose + Fe ₃ O ₄ /C-SO ₃ H ₆₀₀	10	218	424	300	-0.4
	20	225	430	304	-0.4
	40	227	434	307	-0.3
Cellulose + Fe ₃ O ₄ /C-SO ₃ H ₇₀₀	10	193	437	267	-0.3
	20	197	440	275	-0.3
	40	199	441	286	-0.2

223

T_i is the temperature of pyrolysis at which the main weightless zone begins, 5%.

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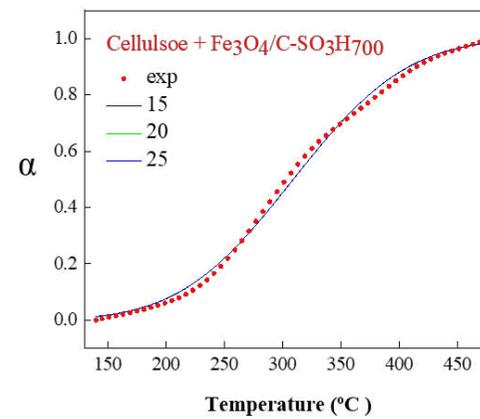
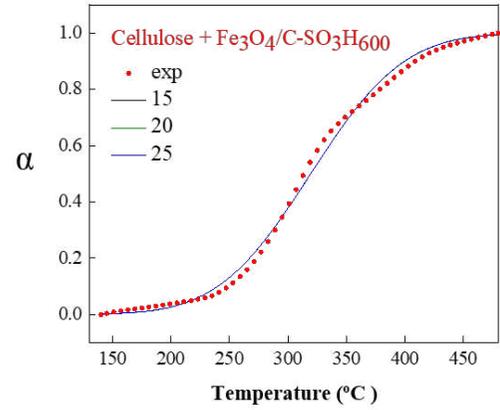
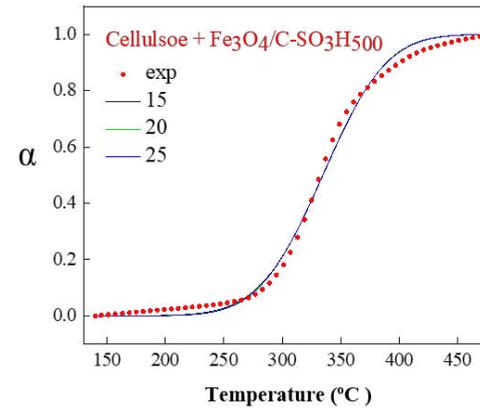
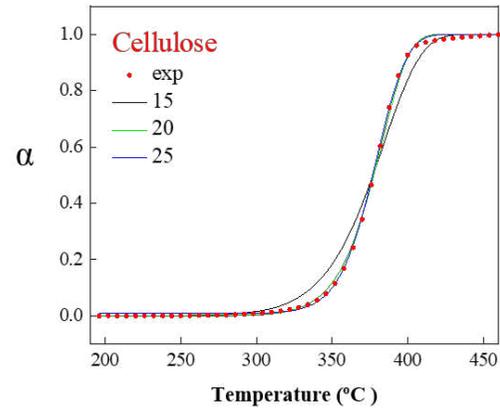
T_f is the temperature of pyrolysis at which the main weightless zone finishes, 95%.

225

T_{max} is the temperature corresponding to the highest point of the DTG peak.

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D_{max} is the weight loss rate corresponding to the highest point of the DTG peak.



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Figure 5. The experimental curve and curve fitted by DAEM model.

Table 3. Kinetic parameters on the basis of the distributed activation energy model

Samples	lgA (s ⁻¹)	E (kJ/mol)	σ (kJ/mol)	R ²	Compensation effect	
Cellulose	15	187.4	0.1	0.9992		
	20	246.9	3.6	0.9996	E=5.1915lnA+8.0246	R ² =1
	25	307.0	6.1	0.9994		
Cellulose + Fe ₃ O ₄ /C-SO ₃ H ₅₀₀	15	175.5	11.3	0.9963		
	20	231.1	15.5	0.9964	E=4.8464lnA+8.0474	R ² =1
	25	287.1	19.6	0.9964		
Cellulose + Fe ₃ O ₄ /C-SO ₃ H ₆₀₀	15	171.1	17.6	0.9967		
	20	225.3	23.5	0.9967	E=4.7249lnA+7.8654	R ² =1
	25	279.9	29.4	0.9967		
Cellulose + Fe ₃ O ₄ /C-SO ₃ H ₇₀₀	15	168.1	22.0	0.9975		
	20	221.3	29.2	0.9975	E=4.6415lnA+7.6873	R ² =1
	25	275.0	36.3	0.9974		

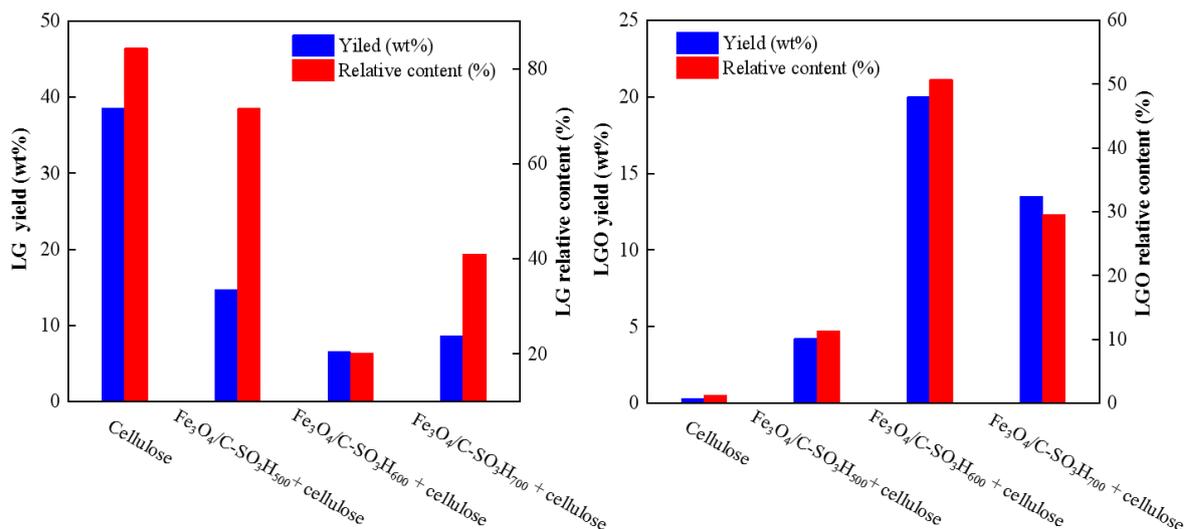
232 **Effect of different catalysts on the yield of LGO**

233 The yield of LGO prepared by fast pyrolysis of pure cellulose and fast pyrolysis
234 of cellulose catalyzed by different catalysts was shown in Fig. 6. The yield and
235 relative content of LG were also analyzed as it was the main product in non-catalytic
236 pyrolysis of cellulose. During the non-catalytic pyrolysis of pure cellulose, the yield
237 and relative content of LG were as high as 38.6 wt% and 84.3%, respectively, while
238 the yield (0.3 wt%) and relative content (0.9%) of LGO in the pyrolysis products were
239 very low. In catalytic pyrolysis of cellulose, both the yield and relative content of LG
240 decreased significantly. It could be seen from the different cellulose pyrolysis results
241 that there was a significant negative correlation between the production of LG and
242 LGO, which should be further analyzed. The higher the yield and relative content of
243 LGO was, the more obvious the decrease in the yield and relative content of LG
244 obtained. Fe_3O_4 and acidic sites $-\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ enhanced the dehydration behavior in the
245 cellulose pyrolysis process, which was the main reason for the improvement in LGO
246 yield. The yield of LGO (20.0 wt%) in the pyrolysis product was obtained from
247 cellulose catalyzed by $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C}-\text{SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$, which was higher than that from cellulose
248 catalyzed by $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C}-\text{SO}_3\text{H}_{500}$ (4.2 wt%) and $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C}-\text{SO}_3\text{H}_{700}$ (13.5 wt%). The
249 functional groups and acidic sites in the catalyst were the keys to promoting the
250 formation of LGO. $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C}-\text{SO}_3\text{H}_{500}$ had fewer functional groups and acidic sites,
251 causing the poor catalytic effect. $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C}-\text{SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ exhibited more $-\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ functional
252 groups than $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C}-\text{SO}_3\text{H}_{700}$. Furthermore, $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C}-\text{SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ had the highest acidic
253 site, which might also an important factor to promote the formation of LGO. $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C}-$
254 $\text{SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ had the best catalytic effect, and its reaction condition was further optimized.

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Figure 6. The effect of three catalysts to pyrolyze cellulose on the yield and relative content of LG and LGO.

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Effects of the catalytic pyrolysis temperature on the yield of LGO

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The distribution of pyrolysis products could vary with temperature as the dominant reaction pathways shifted in rate and overall extent (Maduskar *et al.*, 2018).

267

Fig. 7 shows the yield and relative content of LG and LGO at different temperatures

268

during non-catalytic and catalytic pyrolysis. As the temperature increased, the

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cellulose was fully depolymerized and accompanied by a series of competitive

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reactions. The yield of LG increased from 38.6 wt% to 60.1 wt% as the temperature

271

increased from 300 °C to 500 °C, while the yield of LGO (0.2 wt%-0.3 wt%) was

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very low. As depicted in Fig. 8a, LG and 1,6-anhydro-.beta.-D-glucofuranose (AGF)

273

were the main products obtained by non-catalytic fast pyrolysis of cellulose at 300 °C,

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with relative content of 79% and 8%, respectively. As the temperature rose from

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300 °C to 500 °C under non-catalytic pyrolysis conditions, the main products of

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cellulose pyrolysis were still LG and AGF, but hydroxyacetaldehyde (HAA), furfural

277

(FF), 5-hydromethyl-furfural (5-HMF) and other compounds were also produced.

278

Although the increase in temperature was accompanied by a series of competitive

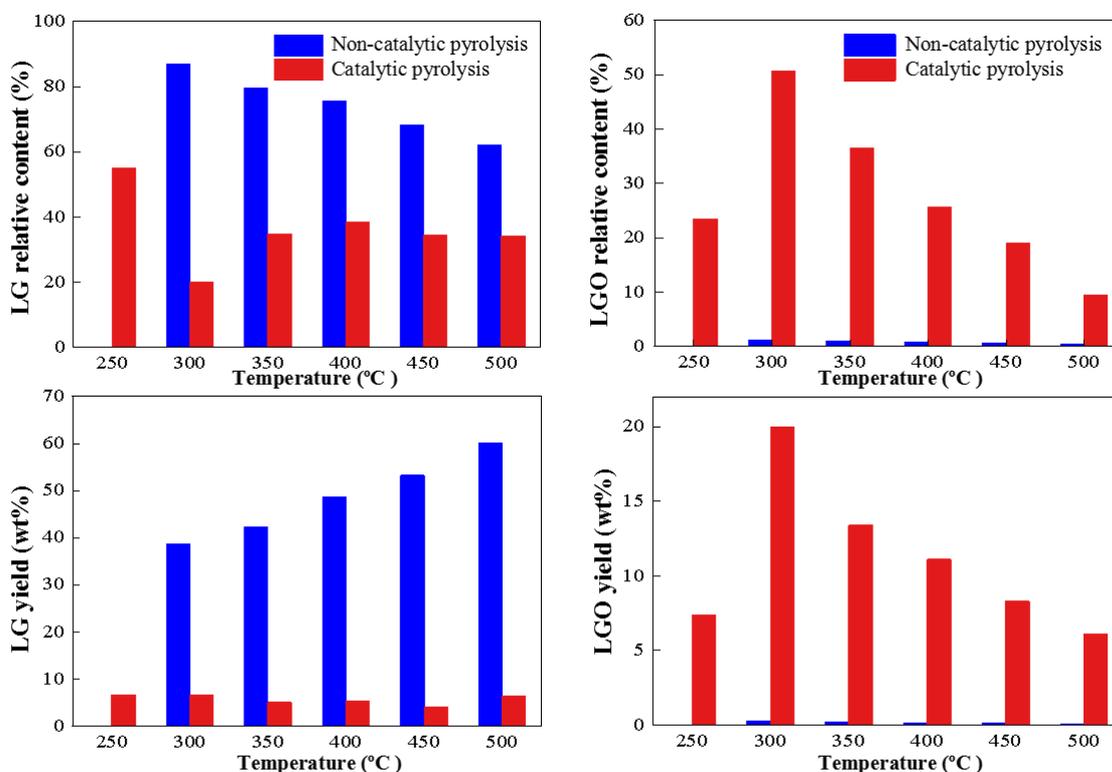
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reactions that led to a decrease in the relative content of LG, the increase in

280 temperature also made the cellulose fully depolymerized resulting in the increasing
281 yield of LG.

282 The catalytic pyrolysis of cellulose with $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ could promote the
283 formation of LGO and inhibit the formation of LG and AGF. The increase in the yield
284 of LGO might be caused by the catalytic dehydration of LG. The promotion on LGO
285 production was more obvious at 300 °C. According to Fig. 8b, it could be seen that
286 the primary pyrolysis product of catalytic fast pyrolysis of cellulose at 300 °C was
287 transformed from LG to LGO, accompanied by a certain amount of 1,4:3,6-
288 dianhydro- α -d-glucopyranose (DGP). During catalytic pyrolysis, the LGO yield
289 tended to increase at 250-300 °C and then decrease at 300-500 °C. The highest yield
290 of LGO (20.0 wt%) was obtained at 300 °C and the lowest LGO yield was got at
291 500 °C (4.9 wt%). The relative content of LGO also increased at 250-300 °C, and then
292 decreased at 300-500 °C. The low yield and relative content of LGO at 250 °C could
293 be attributed to the incomplete decomposition of cellulose and the difficulty in
294 providing enough heat to enable the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ to catalyze the dehydration of
295 cellulose. Catalytic fast pyrolysis could effectively reduce the competitive reaction in
296 the cellulose pyrolysis process at 500 °C, and make the product distribution
297 concentrate on the anhydrosugars LG, LGO, and DGP (Fig. 8d). The formation of
298 LGO was mainly through glycosidic bond cleavage reactions in which cellulose was
299 depolymerized and then exposed on dehydration reactions of the pyran ring. The
300 dehydration process was the main reactions that affected the formation of LGO,
301 mainly occurred at low temperatures, and the cleavage of glycosidic bonds mainly
302 occurred in the medium temperature. As the pyrolysis temperature increased, the rate
303 of cellulose glycosidic bond cleavage reaction was accelerated. When it was faster
304 than the dehydration rate, only a small part of the glycosidic bond cleavage product

305 could be dehydrated, which limited the production of LGO, resulting in the reduction
 306 of LGO production at 300-500 °C in catalytic pyrolysis. These results also
 307 demonstrated that Fe₃O₄/C-SO₃H₆₀₀ could not only promote the formation of LGO,
 308 but also reduced the pyrolysis temperature of cellulose.



309 Figure 7. Effect of the temperature on the relative content and yield of LG and LGO.

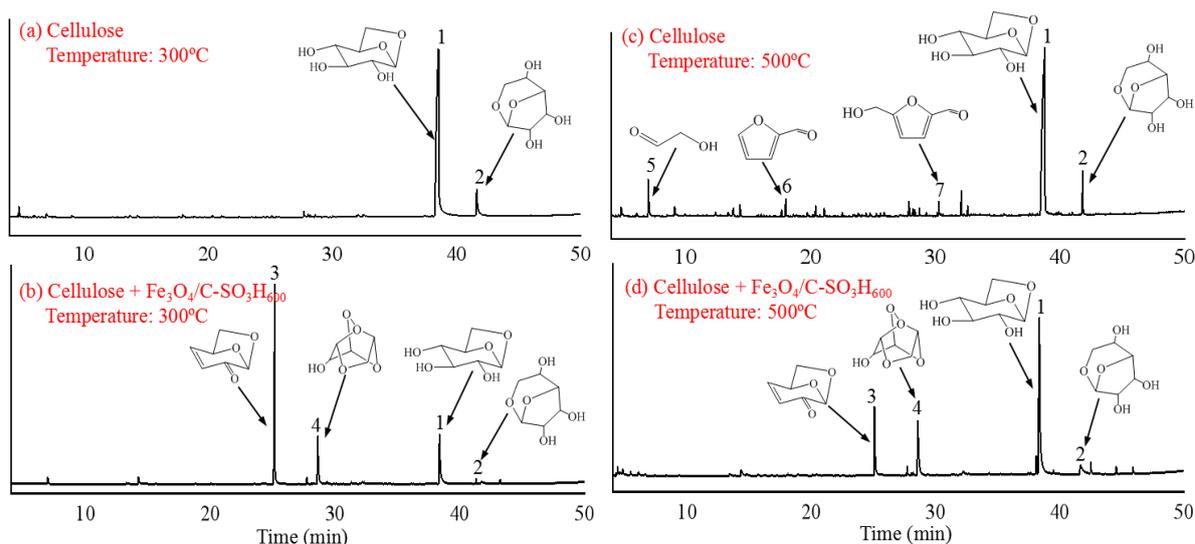
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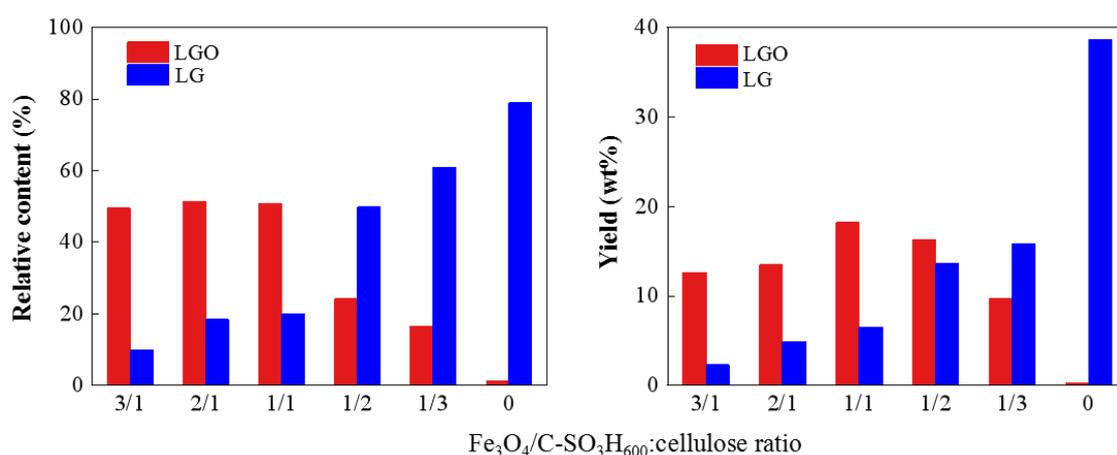
315

316 Figure 8. Typical ion chromatograms of cellulose pyrolysis: (a) cellulose in
 317 noncatalytic pyrolysis at 300 °C, (b) cellulose in catalytic pyrolysis at 300 °C, (c)
 318 cellulose in noncatalytic pyrolysis at 500 °C, (d) cellulose in catalytic pyrolysis at
 319 500 °C, (1) LG, (2) AGF, (3) LGO, (4) DGP, (5) HAA, (6) FF, (7) 5-HMF.

320 Effect of the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ to cellulose ratio

321 The ratio of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ to cellulose is also an important factor affecting
 322 the distribution of pyrolysis products. With the increase in the amount of catalyst, the
 323 yield and relative content of LGO showed a trend of initially increasing followed by a
 324 decrease, while the yield and relative content of LG continued to decrease as the
 325 amount of catalyst increased (Fig. 9). This showed that when the amount of catalyst
 326 was increased, the conversion of LG to LGO was promoted. The best ratio of
 327 $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ to cellulose was 1:1, in which the yield and relative content of LGO
 328 were 20.0 wt% and 50.7%, respectively. When the ratio of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ to
 329 cellulose rose from 1:3 to 1:1, the acidic sites of the catalyst gradually increased, and
 330 the cellulose was able to completely contact the catalyst, so the yield of LGO
 331 continued to rise. When the ratio of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ to cellulose increased from 1:1
 332 to 3:1, the relative content of LGO changed a little, but the yield of LGO decreased to
 333 12.6 wt%, which indicated that the excess catalyst exhibited a negative effect on the
 334 yield of LGO. The conclusion could be depicted as: first, an excessive amount of

335 catalyst would increase the heat transfer resistance of the sample, making it difficult
 336 for heat energy to accurately act on the catalytic reaction, thereby weakening the
 337 catalytic effect (Mullen and Boateng, 2010). Second, dehydration and charring
 338 reactions of cellulose were boosted by excessive catalyst, resulting in the reduction of
 339 organic volatile products (Branca *et al.*, 2011). In addition, excess catalyst might also
 340 catalyze further reactions of LGO, leading to reduction in LGO yield (Bai *et al.*, 2019).



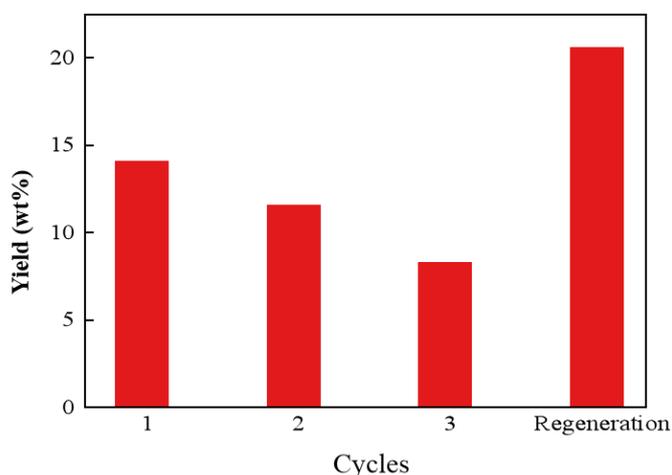
341

342 Figure 9. Effect of Fe₃O₄/C-SO₃H₆₀₀-to-cellulose ratio on the relative content and
 343 yield of LG and LGO at 300 °C.
 344

345 Recycling of the catalyst

346 In order to evaluate the stability of the catalyst, the reuse of Fe₃O₄/C-SO₃H₆₀₀ for
 347 LGO production was repeatedly conducted under the optimum conditions of 300 °C
 348 and the ratio of cellulose to catalyst of 1:1. As shown in Fig. 10, the yields of LGO in
 349 the three cycle experiments were 14.1 wt%, 11.6 wt%, and 8.3 wt%, respectively.
 350 This showed that the catalyst could still effectively increase the yield of LGO in the
 351 cellulose pyrolysis product after undergoing the cycle experiment, but the acid sites in
 352 the catalyst might fall off during multiple cycles, so the catalyst effect of catalyst was
 353 significantly reduced. To improve the circulated feasibility the catalyst, the three-
 354 cycled catalyst was mixed with H₂SO₄ and sulfonated at 150 °C for 20 h for
 355 regeneration. The results of fast pyrolysis showed that the catalytic activity of the

356 regenerated catalyst was completely restored, and the yield of LGO reached 20.6 wt%.
357 Compared with catalysts such as liquid acids and ionic liquids, $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$
358 could not only efficiently catalyze the production of LGO from cellulose, but also
359 could be recycled and reused, which was more economical and practical.



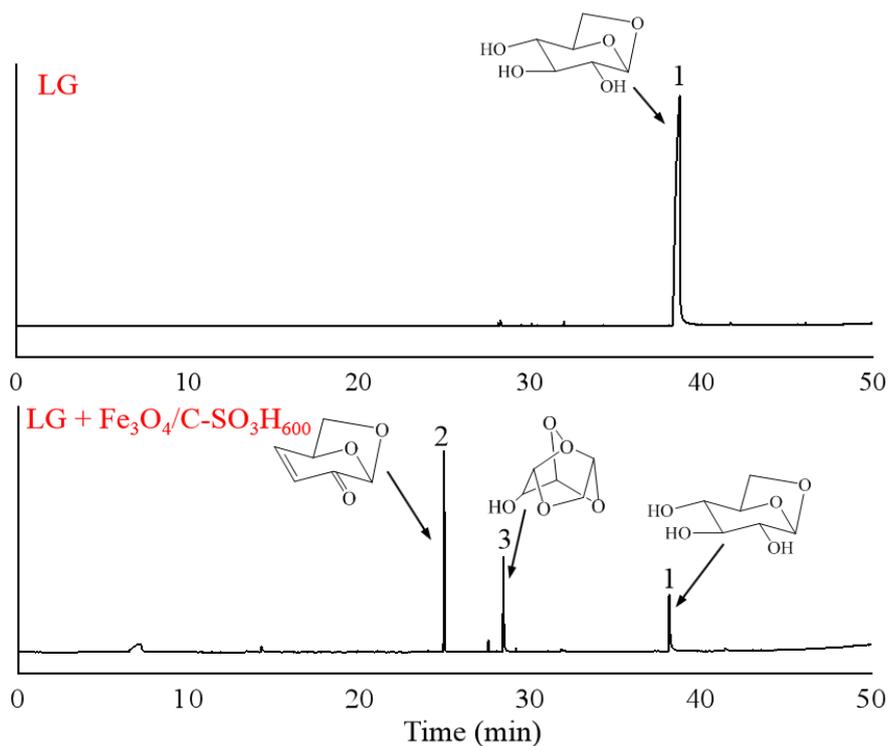
360

361 Figure 10. Effect of catalyst cycle on LGO yield at 300 °C.

362 **The mechanism of fast pyrolysis of cellulose to LGO**

363 According to currently proposed views, there were two main ways to produce
364 LGO. First, cellulose was pyrolyzed and depolymerized to produce LG, and LG was
365 further dehydrated to produce LGO. Second, cellulose was first dehydrated during
366 pyrolysis, and then the glycoside bonds at both ends were broken to form LGO
367 (Zhang *et al.*, 2017; Lu *et al.*, 2011). The latter process did not produce LG. In this
368 experiment, since the increase in LGO yield was consistent with the decrease in LG
369 yield, it was speculated that $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ could promote further dehydration of
370 LG to produce LGO. To verify it, pure LG was mixed with $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ for fast
371 pyrolysis at 300 °C. The typical ion chromatogram was shown in Fig. 11. The results
372 showed that the presence of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ could indeed catalyze the dehydration
373 of LG to produce LGO and DGP. It is noticeable that although LGO and DGP were
374 both products of LG's further dehydration, the increase in the yield of LGO was

375 significantly more than that of DGP. This showed that the catalytic effect of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C}-$
376 $\text{SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ was also selective. After observing the chemical structure of the three
377 anhydrosugars, it could be found that LG and LGO had similar bicyclic structures
378 (1,5- and 1,6-acetal rings). The conversion of LG to LGO only required dehydration
379 to form C_2 carbonyl and $\text{C}_3=\text{C}_4$ bonds. The conversion from LG to DGP initially
380 requires intramolecular transglycosylation to form 1,4-anhydride, and then
381 etherification to form 3,6-anhydride (Shafizadeh *et al.*, 1978). The latter was more
382 complicated. This explained that $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C}-\text{SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ selectively catalyzed the
383 dehydration of LG to LGO instead of DGP during the pyrolysis of cellulose. A
384 possible pathway for the production of LGO by catalytic pyrolysis of cellulose was
385 presented in Fig. 12. First, cellulose broke the glycosidic bonds on both sides by
386 thermal pyrolysis to produce LG. Then LG was further dehydrated under acid
387 catalysis to generate LGO. In this procedure, S1 with the carbon-carbon double bonds
388 was produced through 3-OH obtained H (Lu *et al.*, 2014b). Acid catalysis caused this
389 reaction and promoted its dehydration. Then a keto-enol tautomerism reaction
390 occurred to form a carbon-oxygen double bonds (S2). After these conversions were
391 completed, acid catalysis caused S2 to lose another molecule of H_2O to produce LGO.

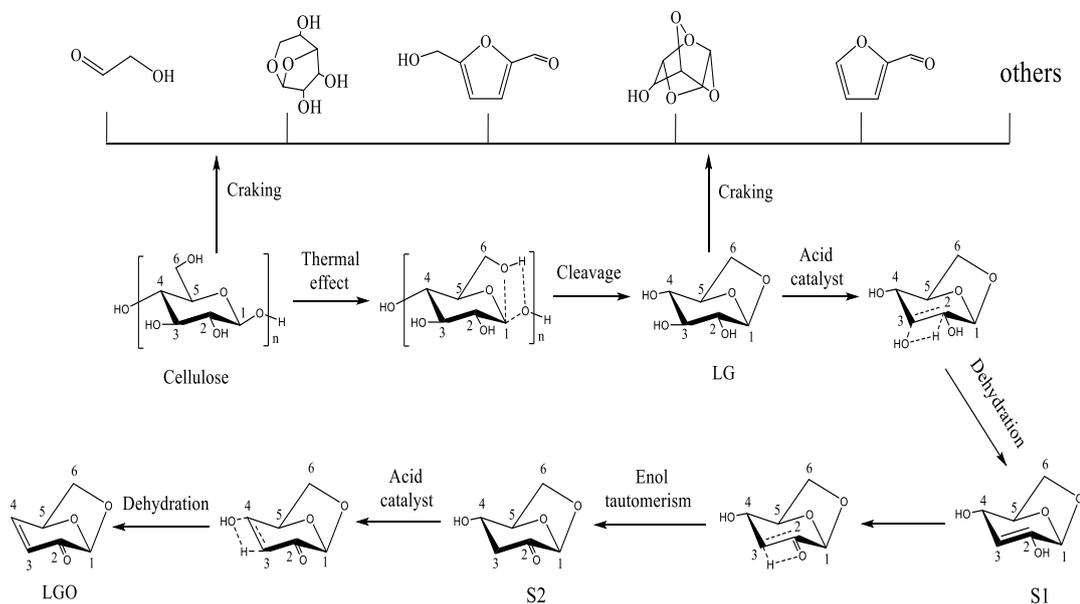


392

393 Figure 11. Typical ion chromatograms of LG in noncatalytic and catalytic
 394 pyrolysis: (1) LG, (2) LGO, (3) DGP.

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398

399 Figure 12. Possible reaction mechanism of catalytic fast pyrolysis of cellulose for
 400 LG and LGO production.

401

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405

406 **Conclusions**

407 Magnetic solid acid Fe₃O₄/C-SO₃H₆₀₀ was prepared to catalyze fast pyrolysis of
408 cellulose for the selective production of LGO. The yield of LGO was increased from
409 0.3 wt% to 20.0 wt% at a pyrolysis temperature of 300 °C. The catalytic pyrolysis of
410 cellulose could not only reduce the reaction-required temperature and promote the
411 LGO production, but also could be reused for recycling in an economical and
412 practical approach. In addition, this study explored the mechanism of cellulosic
413 pyrolysis to produce LGO, indicating that LGO could be produced via further
414 dehydration of LG.

415 **Declarations**

416 Not applicable.

417 **Funding**

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421 **Conflict of Interest**

422 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Figures

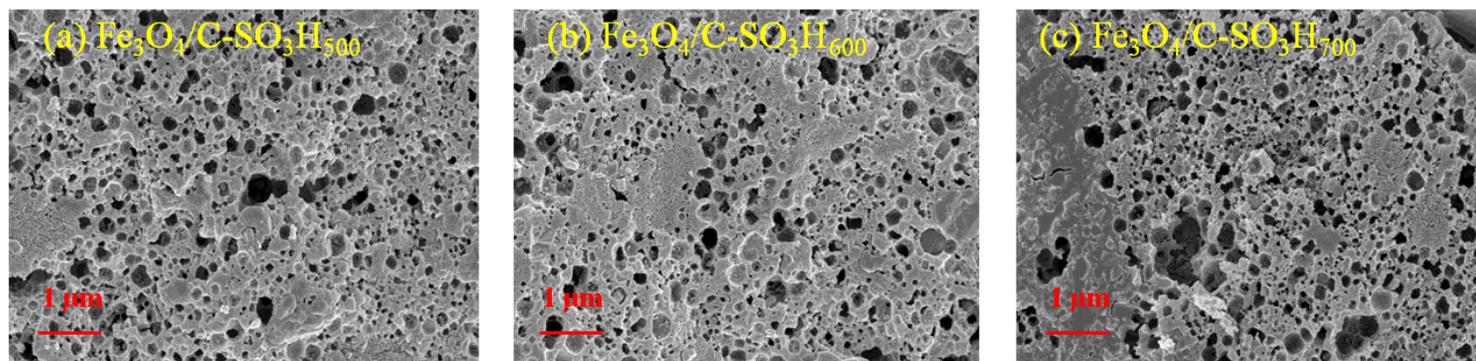


Figure 1

SEM images of catalysts.

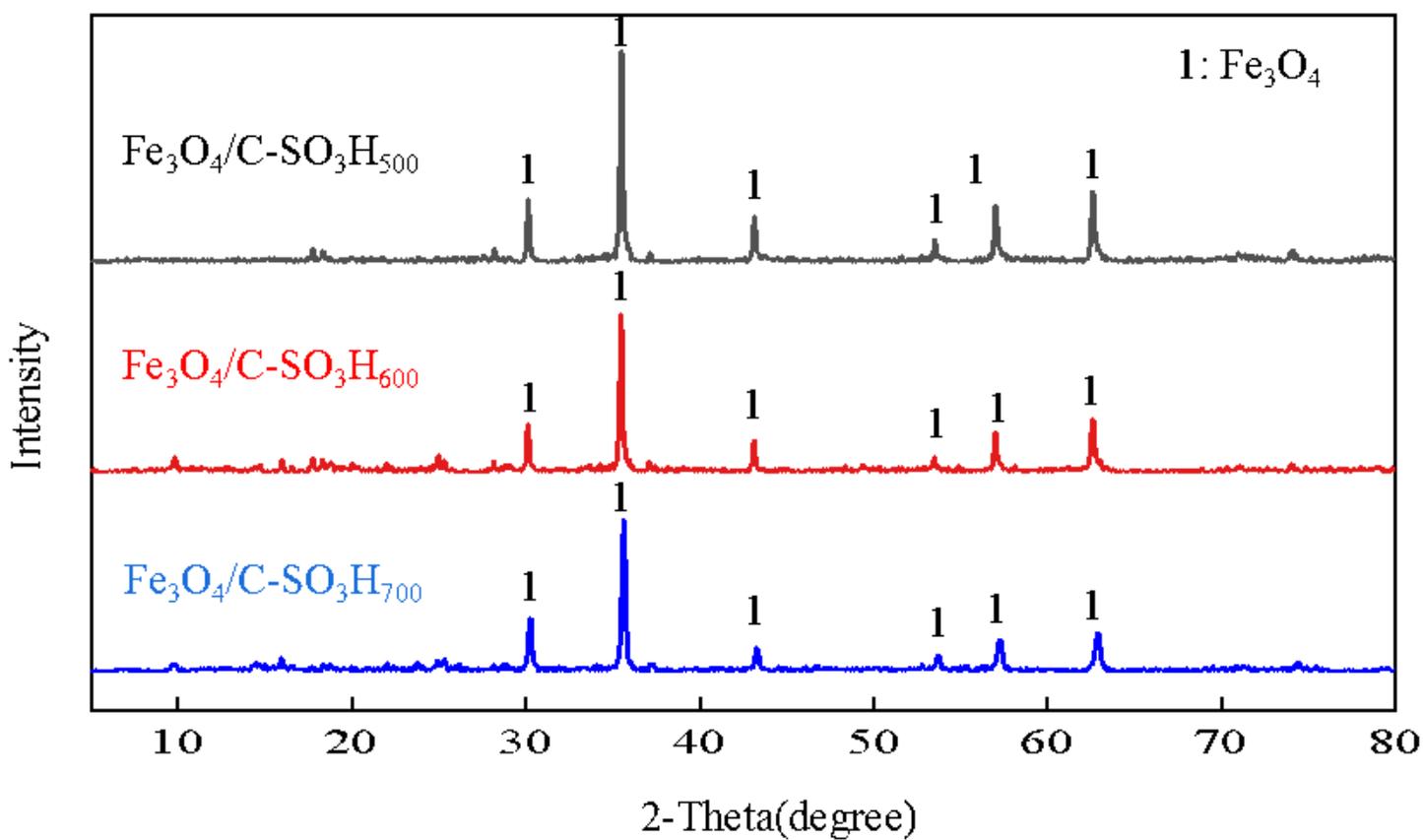


Figure 2

XRD patterns of catalysts.

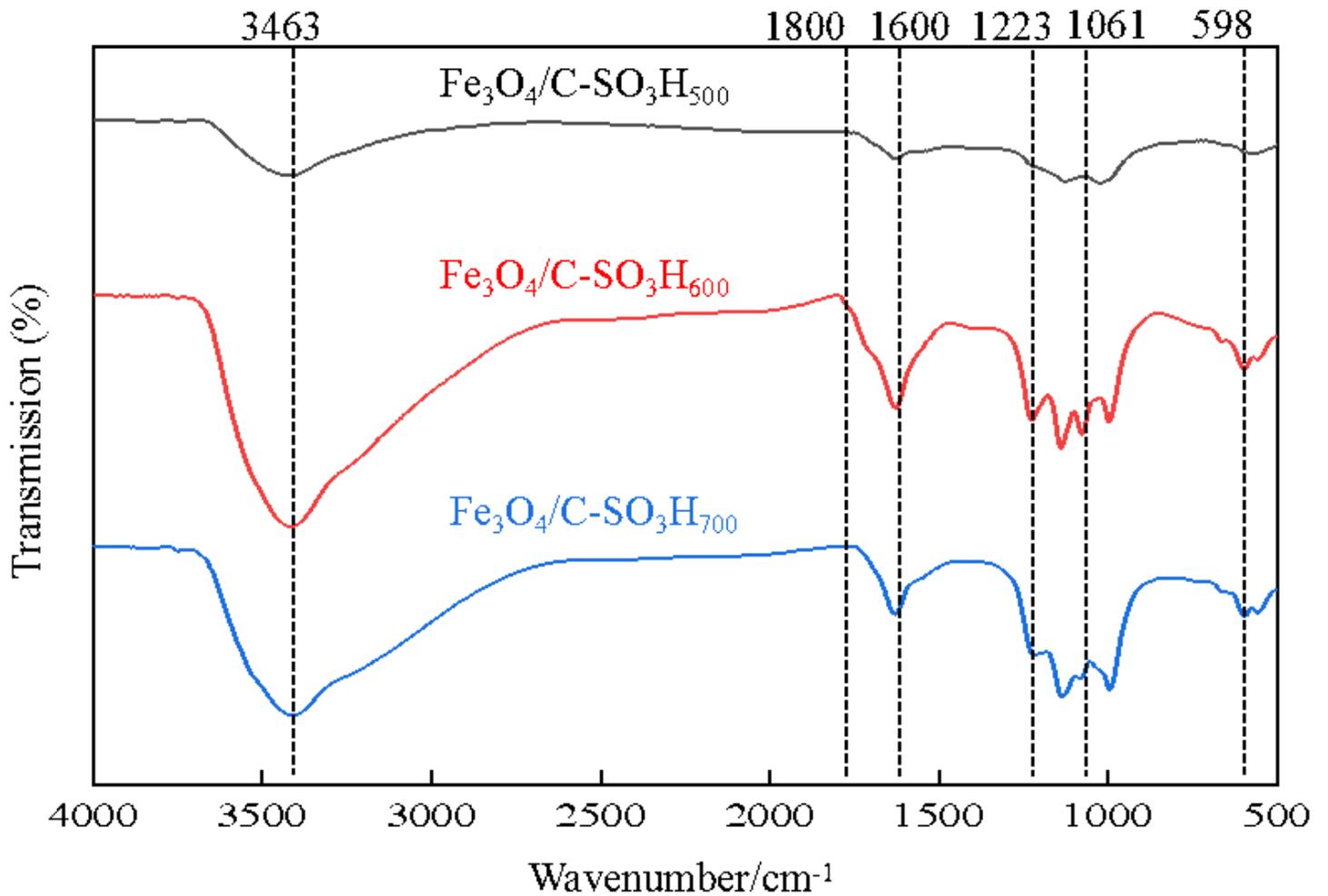


Figure 3

FTIR analysis of catalysts.

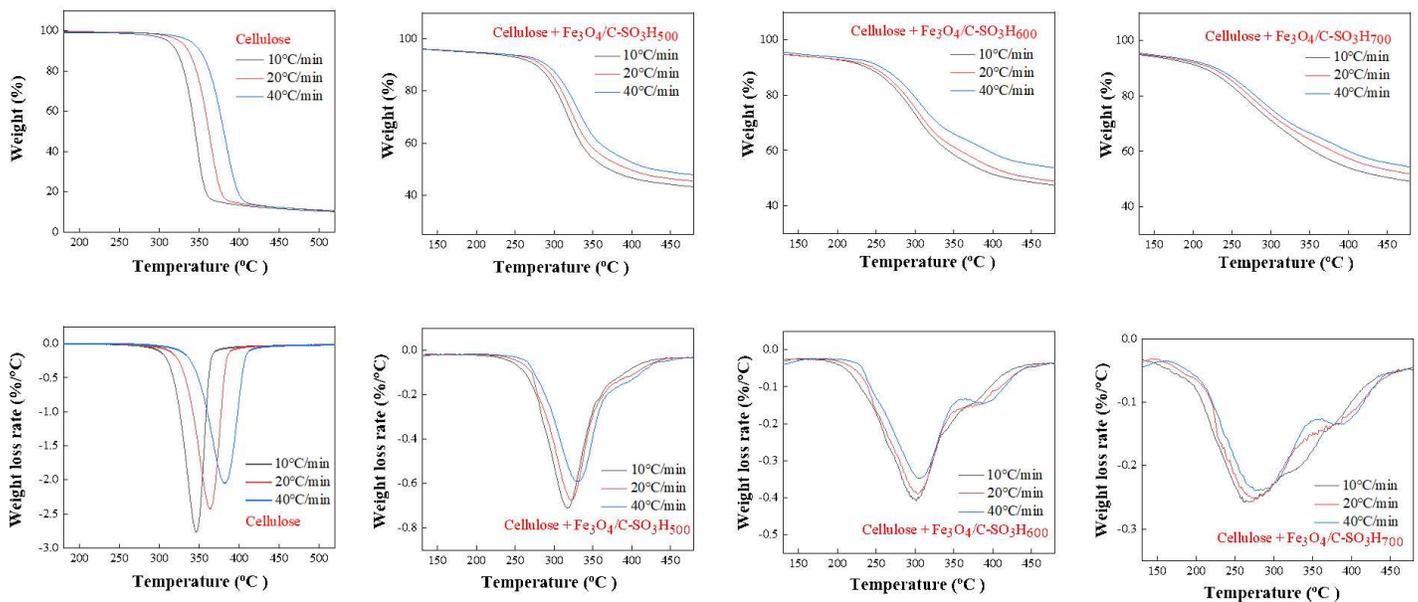


Figure 4

TG and DTG curves of cellulose and cellulose mixed with catalyst.

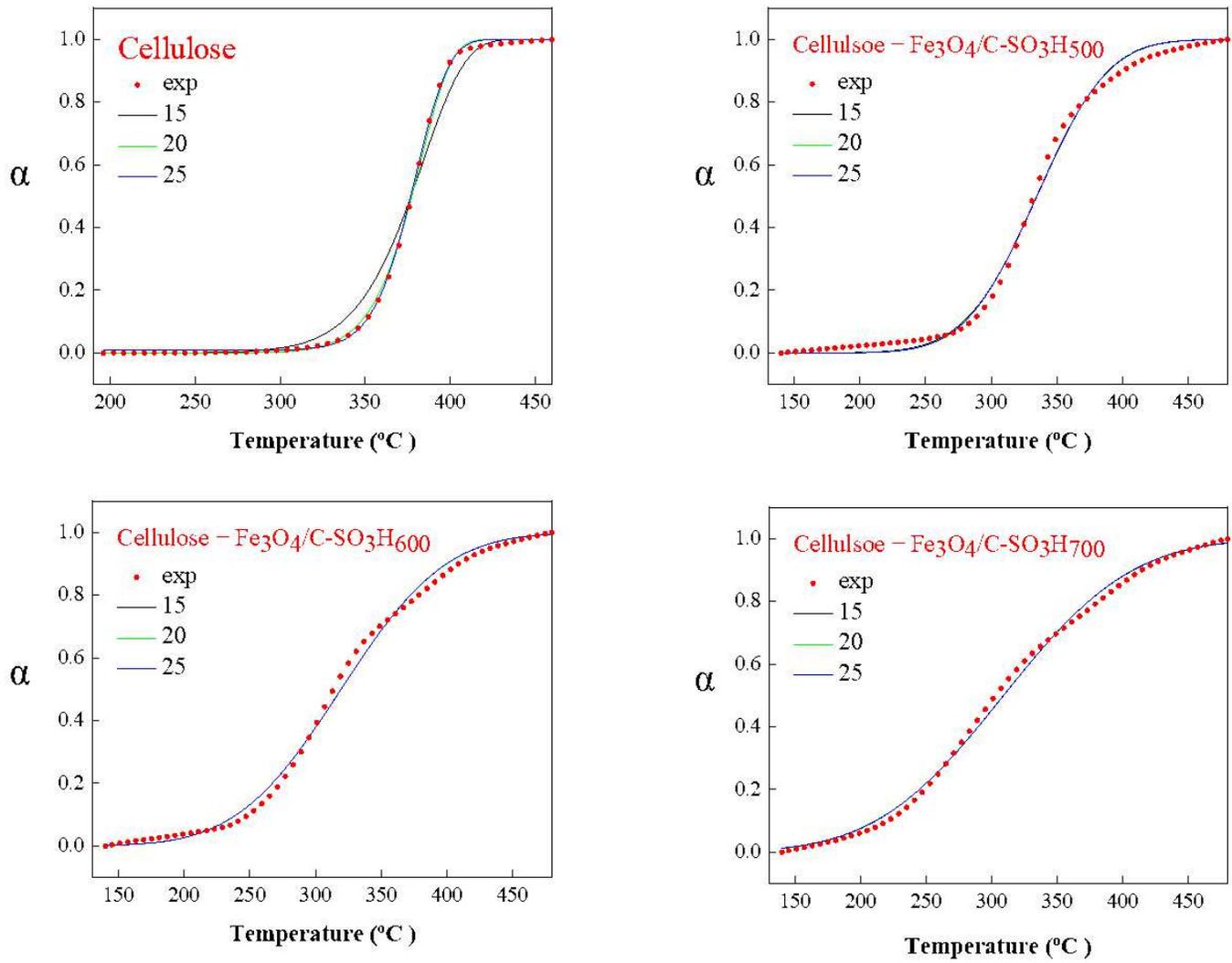


Figure 5

The experimental curve and curve fitted by DAEM model.

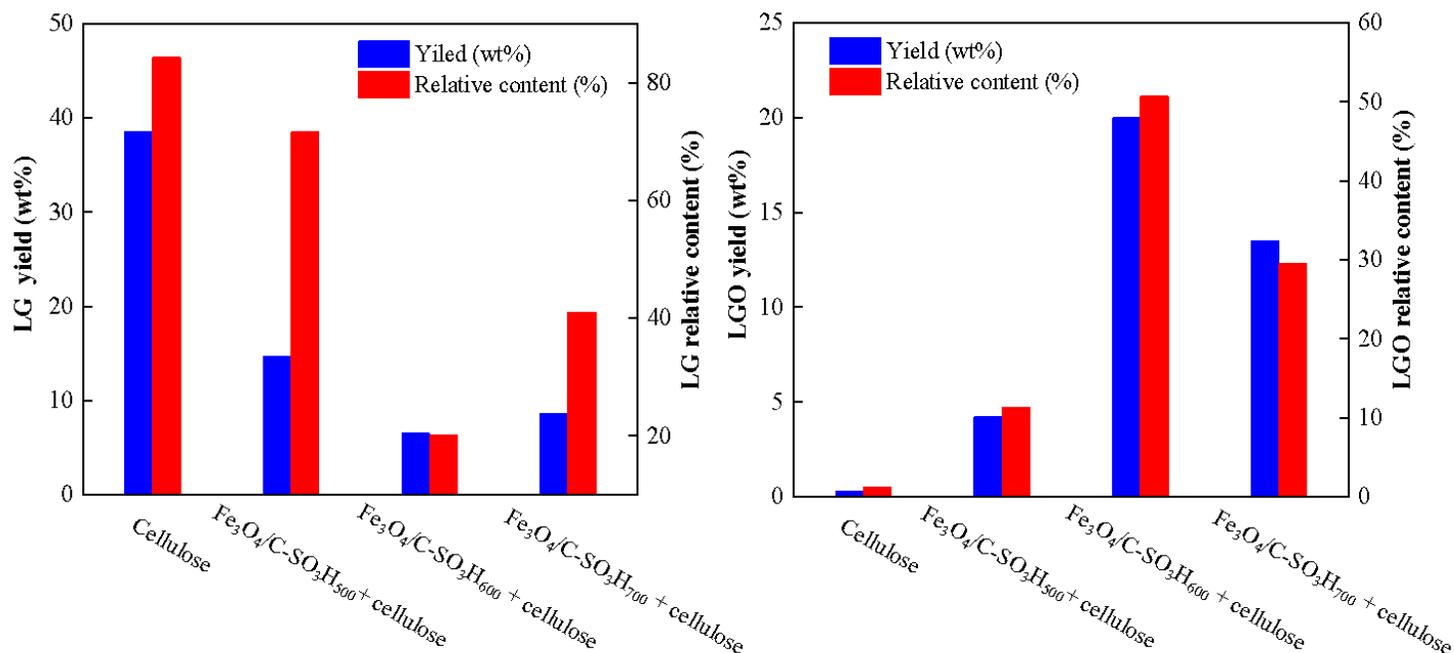


Figure 6

The effect of three catalysts to pyrolyze cellulose on the yield and relative content of LG and LGO.

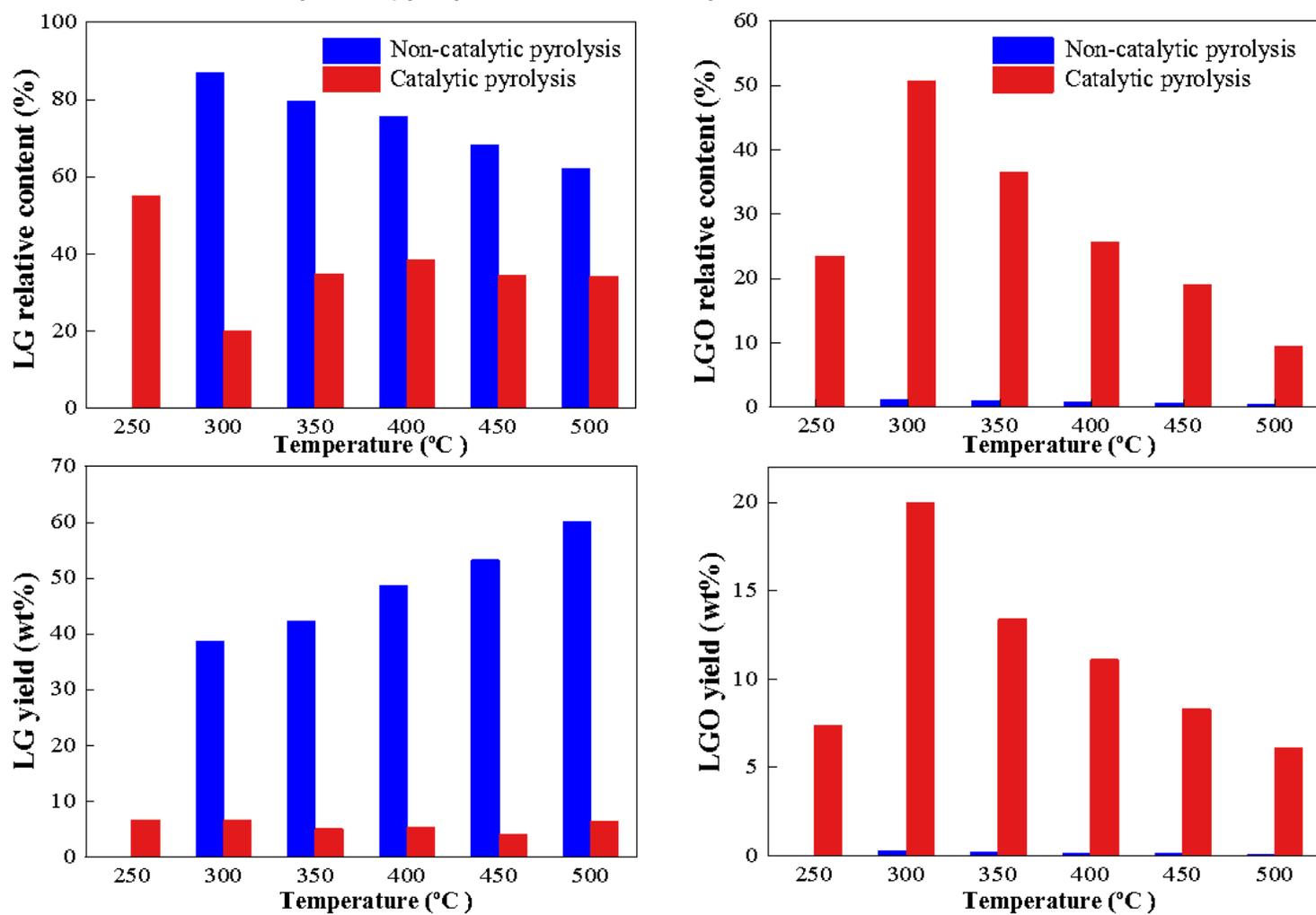


Figure 7

Effect of the temperature on the relative content and yield of LG and LGO.

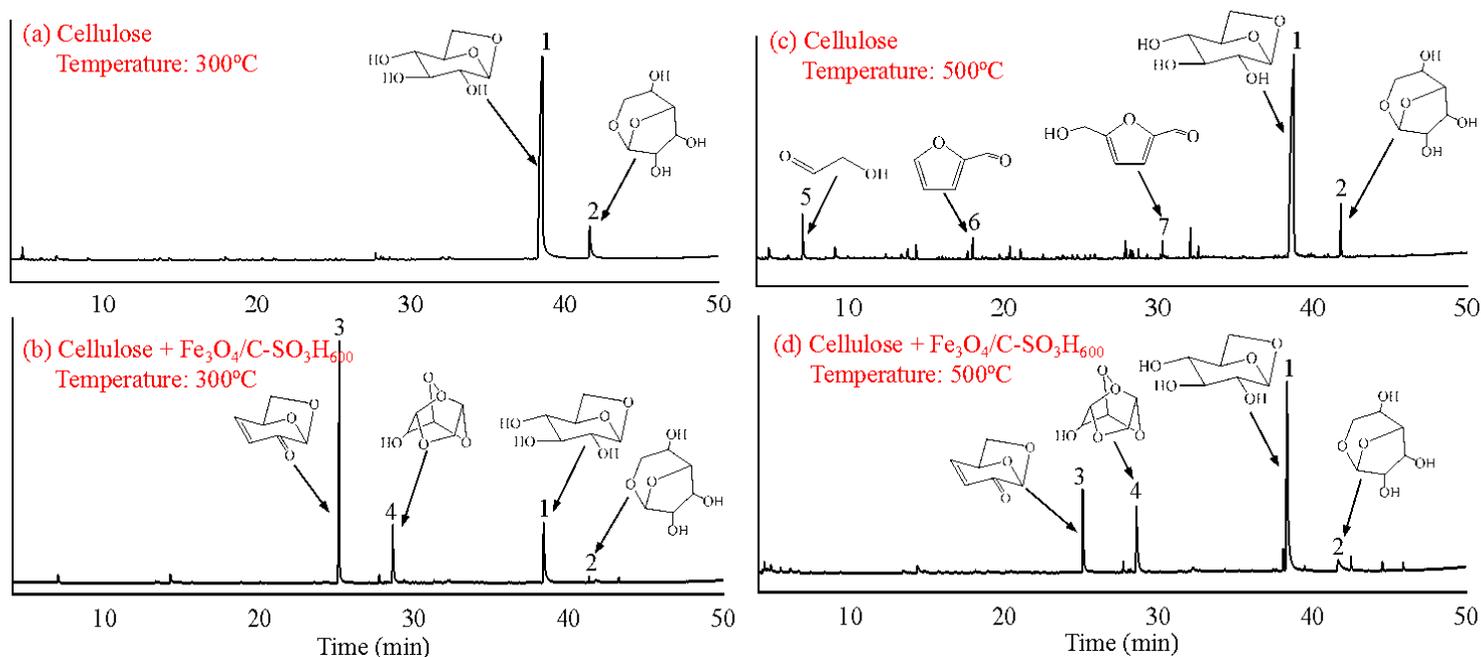


Figure 8

Typical ion chromatograms of cellulose pyrolysis: (a) cellulose in noncatalytic pyrolysis at 300 °C, (b) cellulose in catalytic pyrolysis at 300 °C, (c) cellulose in noncatalytic pyrolysis at 500 °C, (d) cellulose in catalytic pyrolysis at 500 °C, (1) LG, (2) AGF, (3) LGO, (4) DGP, (5) HAA, (6) FF, (7) 5-HMF.

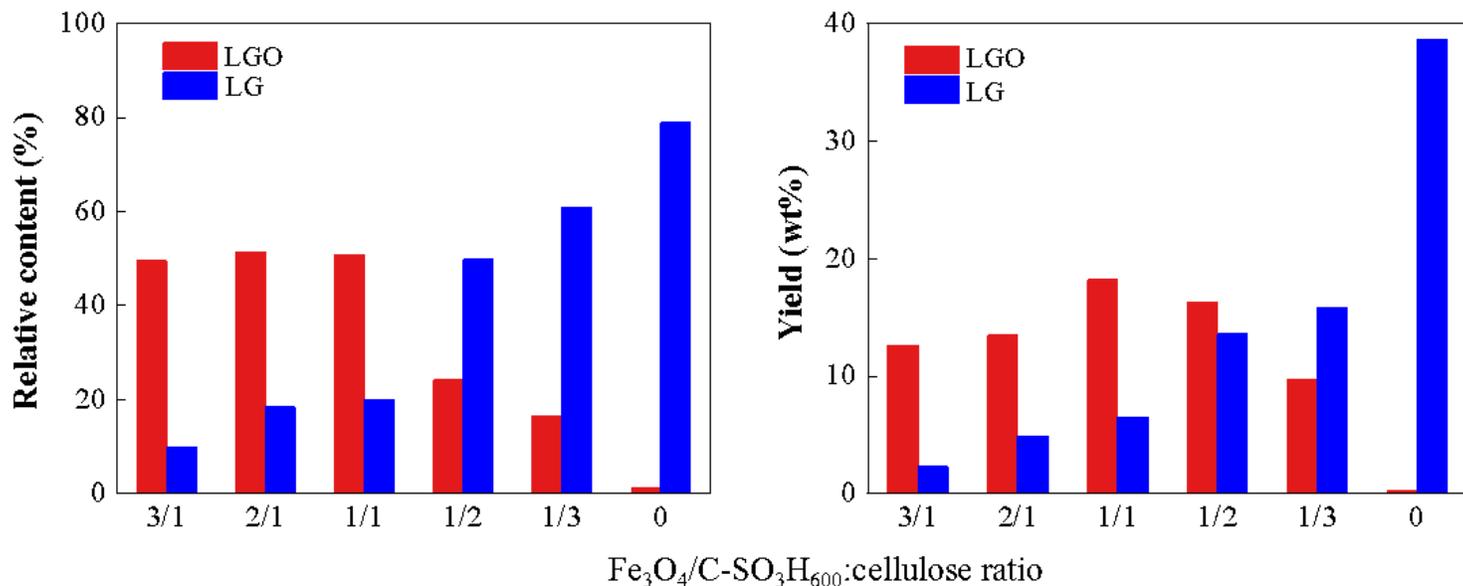


Figure 9

Effect of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C-SO}_3\text{H}_{600}$ -to-cellulose ratio on the relative content and yield of LG and LGO at 300 °C.

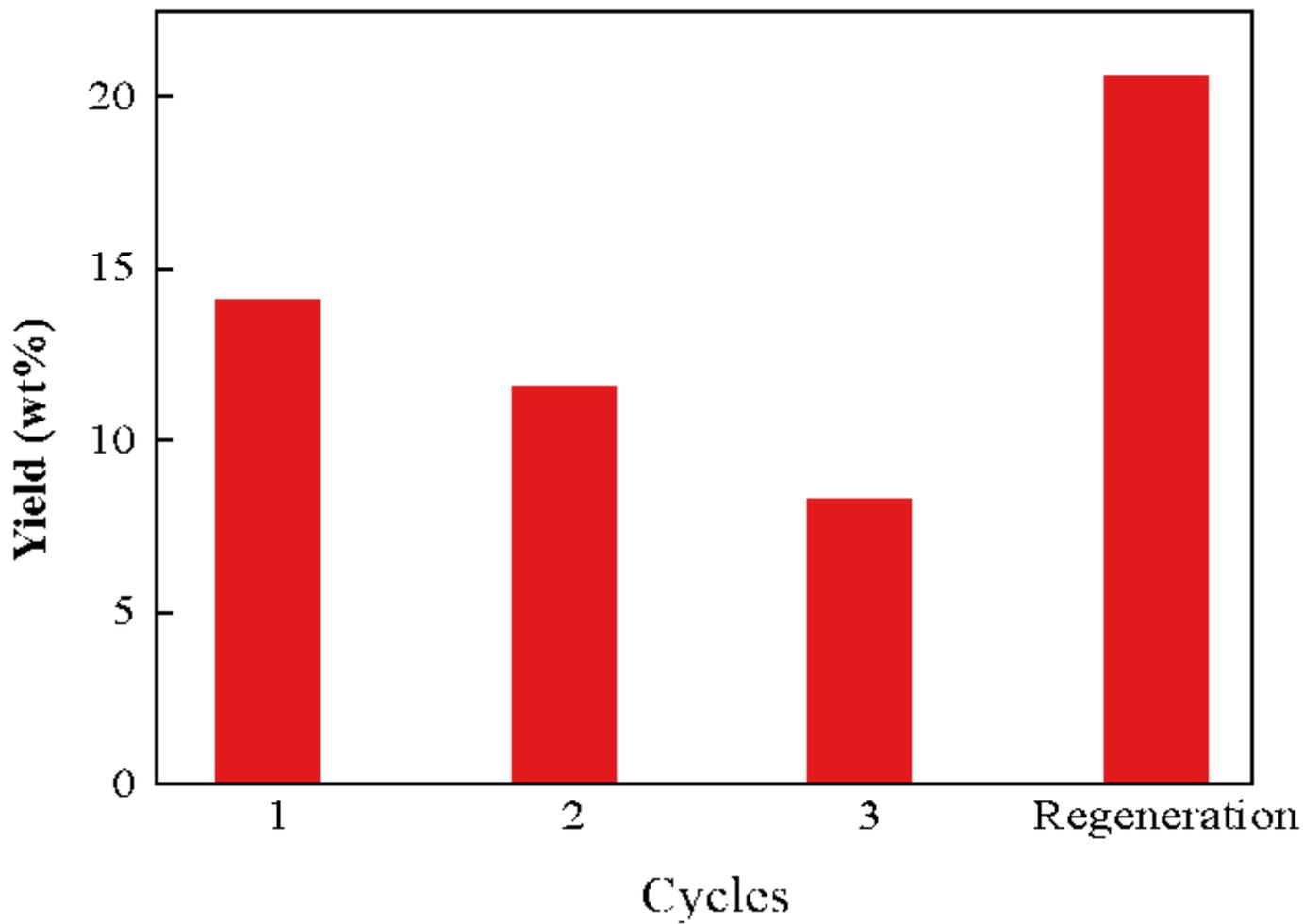


Figure 10

Effect of catalyst cycle on LGO yield at 300 °C.

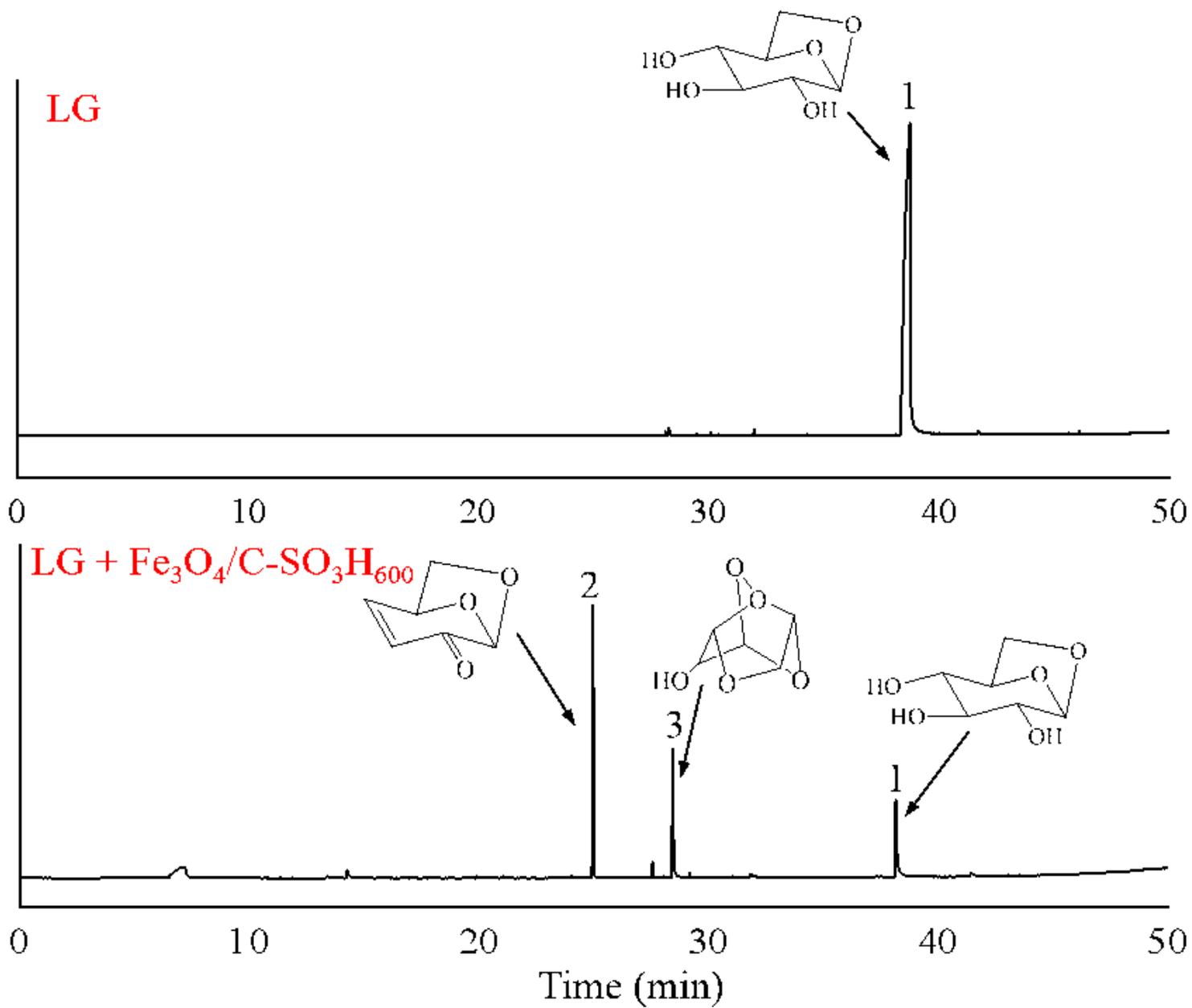


Figure 11

Typical ion chromatograms of LG in noncatalytic and catalytic pyrolysis: (1) LG, (2) LGO, (3) DGP.

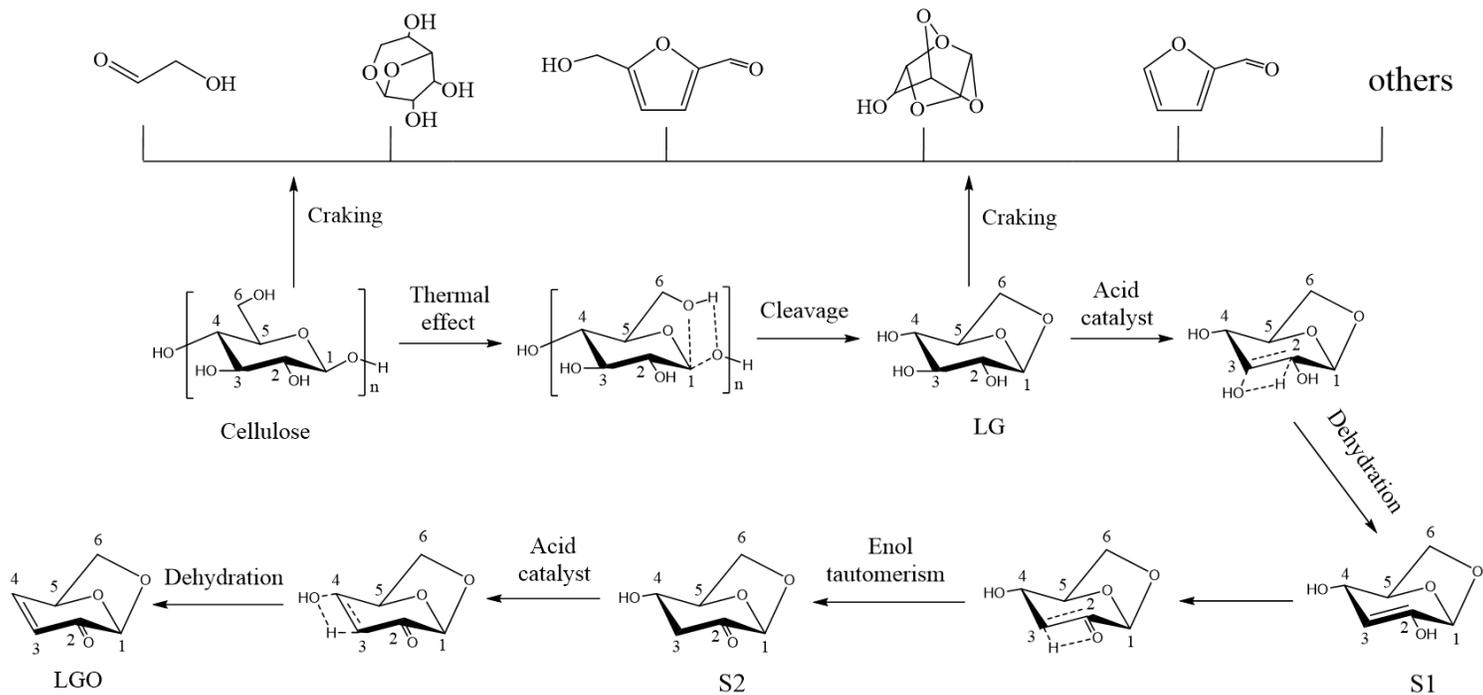


Figure 12

Possible reaction mechanism of catalytic fast pyrolysis of cellulose for LG and LGO production.