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# Role of solvent the production of butyl levulinate from fructose

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  - Abstract: The use of alkyl levulinates is growing interest in fuels. Adding n-butyl levulinate (BL) to fuels presents some benefits compared to ethyl levulinate. The conventional production route of BL is from the esterification of levulinic acid, but the latter compound presents some corrosion issues. Alcoholysis of fructose by butanol over cation exchange resins (solid catalyst) seems to be a better alternative. The effect of water addition, solvent, swelling effect (from the cation exchange resin), and fructose solubility at temperatures higher than 25°C are unclear on this reaction. To understand these effects, the alcoholysis of fructose by butanol at 110°C in different solvents, e.g., gamma-valerolactone (GVL), were studied in a pressurized autoclave in an inert environment. The dissolution study was conducted in a temperature range of 20-120°C in different solvents. The concentration profiles of fructose, 5-(hydroxymethyl)furfural (HMF), 5-(butoxymethyl)furfural (BMF) and BL were analyzed in different solvents: butanol/water, butanol, butanol/GVL/water and butanol/GVL. We found that using a butanol/GVL (70/30 wt%) solvent is better from the conversion and dissolution viewpoints.
  - Keywords: Mass transfer; Alcoholysis; Solvent effect; Solid catalyst

#### 1. Introduction

The depletion of fossil fuels together with growing concern about the environmental impact of human activities is pushing the research for new and renewable sources of energy and raw materials. Lignocellulosic biomass (LCB) is considered a valuable ally in producing chemicals, fuels, and materials, being an abundant, renewable and carbon-fixing resource. In opposition to food biomass which can incur in the food versus fuel dilemma, LCB (second generation biomass) represents an excellent alternative feedstock in biorefinery [1,2]. In this context, the use of lignocellulosic biomass and its conversion to value-added chemicals and fuels has become increasingly widespread. [3,4]. Considering LCB main components: lignin, cellulose and hemicellulose, the development of lignin valorization into chemicals is still under progress due to its complex and heterogeneous aromatic polymeric structure [5–11]. Meanwhile, the industrial valorization of cellulose and hemicellulose into so-called platform molecules is mature [12–18]. Several pretreatments allow fractioning these complex biomass polymers into simple sugar-monomers, valuable through different chemical pathways to several platform molecules such as 5-(Hydroxymethyl)furfural (HMF), glycols, sorbitol or levulinic acid and alkyl levulinates (Fig. 1) [17–19].

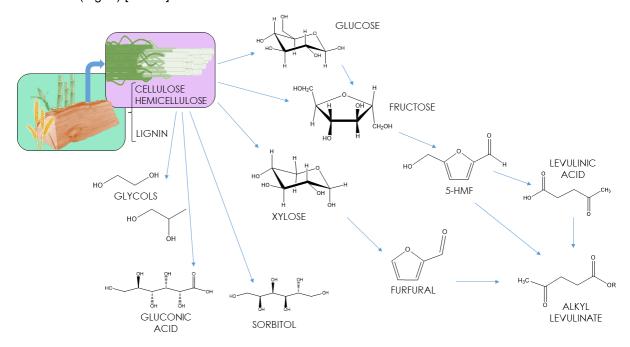


Fig. 1. Valorization of cellulose adapted from literature [18].

Alkyl levulinates are promising and versatile platform molecules issued from cellulose and/or hemicellulose alcoholysis with broad industrial applications. Esters of levulinic acid can simply be produced by esterification of levulinic acid [20-23], but the low yield in the production of levulinic acid, together with the high costs of separation and purification, make this route less beneficial compared to using more affordable starting feedstocks as biomass-derived monosaccharides: glucose and fructose [4,24-31]. Although glucose is the most abundant monomers and the least expensive substrate over other monomers [32], fructose shows higher molecular instability and faster reactivity to be dehydrated to 5-(hydroxymethyl)furfural, first intermediate in the pathway to alkyl levulinate, whereas glucose must first be isomerized to fructose [33]. From an energy viewpoint, alkyl levulinates can be used as blending components for biodiesel or fuel oxygenate additives [34,35], improving fuel quality and reducing pollutant emission [36,37]. In 2017, Tian et al. demonstrated that methyl and ethyl levulinate have higher anti-knock quality than Euro95 gasoline [38]. Wang et al. investigated the use of ethyl levulinate as a diesel blend, resulting in a higher closed cup flash point, oxygen content, and lower kinematic viscosity compared to n-butanol [39]. Christensen et al., have shown that butyl levulinate (BL) can improve conductivity, cold flow properties and lubricity of diesel fuel and reduce its vapor pressure [40]. Furthermore, BL was found to remain in solution with diesel down to the fuel cloud point and to have more compatibility with elastomers, compared to ethyl levulinate, which tends to separate from diesel at a temperature below 0 °C and results to be more corrosive [40]. Frigo et al. showed that diesel fuel blended with a mixture of butyl levulinate and dibutyl ether could reduce particulate emissions without changing engine power efficiency or increasing the NOx emission [41]. Alcoholysis of sugar monomers to BL is catalyzed mainly by Brønsted-acids [42]. Traditional mineral acids are gradually being substituted by heterogeneous acid catalysts, cause of equipment corrosion, separation and neutralization costs. Zeolites, ion exchange resins, metal oxides, nanomaterials and other numerous solid catalysts have been tested to produce butyl levulinate from biomass-derived carbohydrates [42]. An et al. studied the production of BL from the alcoholysis of different carbohydrates and found that ferric sulfate was the most efficient [33]. They found that with a catalyst loading of 5 g/L, a reaction temperature of 190°C, and a fructose concentration of 25 g/L, the yield of BL was found to be 62.8 mol% for 3 hours of reaction time.

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72 Higher alkyl levulinate yields from fructose were also confirmed by Liu et al. [29] using sulfonic acid-73 functionalized carbon materials. BL has been produced with a yield of 78 mol% after 12 h and complete 74 fructose conversion [29]. 75 Ramirez et al. made an in-depth assessment on the use of ion-exchange resins for the direct 76 transformation of fructose into BL by alcoholysis [43]. Using a water/butanol mixture, they detected BL 77 production only at a temperature higher than 100°C. They also showed that between 17-37% of fructose 78 is lost in humins production. They studied catalyst reuse and found that fresh and twice-reused catalysts 79 have similar activity. In this assessment, gel-type Dowex 50Wx2 resulted in the best catalyst according 80 to BL yield. 81 Several research studies on the alcoholysis of sugars into alkyl levulinate essentially focus on the 82 catalysis. To the best of our knowledge, there are not many studies on the crucial role of solvent, which 83 can affect the reaction kinetics and the product selectivity, sugar dissolution, polymerization, and 84 degradation. Sun et al. reported that the conversion of sugars and furans, particularly fructose and 5-85 (hydroxymethyl)furfural, is different in different solvents, depending on their polarity and protic aprotic 86 nature [44]. Protons transfer is a key point in the acid-catalyzed alcoholysis mechanism, and the solvent 87 plays a crucial role [45]. Sugar monomers showed high reactivity in water, one of the most used solvents 88 in lignocellulosic biomass derivatives pretreatment and conversion. Water provides a good solvation 89 environment, allowing high dissociation of Brønsted acids and also high solubility of carbohydrates [46]. 90 On the other hand, the high reactivity in aqueous systems results in greater instability of sugars and 91 furan intermediates which tend to undergo acid-catalyzed side reactions, as production of by-product 92 humins [44,47,48]. An alternative to minimize side reactions is using polar organic solvents, particularly 93 alcohols [47,48]. Some studies reported promising alkyl levulinates yields from fructose alcoholysis in 94 pure alcohols. Ramirez et al. [43] obtained a 73.4 mol% butyl levulinate yield from fructose alcoholysis 95 in pure butanol, and Sun et al. [44] a yield of 51.6 mol% ethyl levulinate from fructose alcoholysis in pure 96 ethanol, both catalyzed by ion exchange resins. Excess of alcohol results in a major control of the 97 conversion steps, protons transfer and limitation of the polymerization of sugars and furans [44,46]. In 98 pure butanol solvent, the selectivity of BL can also be lowered by the side reaction of etherification 99 producing dibutyl ether [43,49,50]. Besides the polar protic alcoholic medium, some studies highlighted 100 the role of polar aprotic solvents in lowering unwanted degradation reactions of intermediates [51,52]. 101 The introduction of co-solvents might further minimize possible side-reaction products. Among polar 102 aprotic solvents, γ-valerolactone (GVL) may be a valid co-solvent in fructose alcoholysis. Several patents suggested it as a green alternative to classical hazardous solvents since it can be produced starting from derived-biomass fructose via hydrogenation of levulinic acid or alkyl levulinates [53]. In 2014, M.A. Mellmer et al. [52] demonstrated the benefits of using polar aprotic solvents, such as GVL, for acid-catalyzed reactions. Capecci et al. [54] reported the synthesis of GVL by hydrogenation of butyl levulinate, identifying an excess of GVL as the best solvent system. Although the REACh registration is still missing for GVL, some acute toxic data (LD50 oral-rat = 8800 mg/kg), its overall structure and properties suggest its stability, biodegradability and not toxicity [55], responding to the principle of benign solvents and auxiliaries of Green Chemistry principles [56]. Despite many publications on this topic, several aspects are missing in the literature concerning the alcoholysis of fructose over cation exchange resins, such as the solvent effect, the role of water, the resin swelling and fructose dissolution within a temperature range of 60-100°C. In this study, a deep investigation on the production of BL from the fructose alcoholysis was carried out over an ion exchange resin: Amberlite IR-120. Being very effective in sugar monomers conversion and esterification reactions [57-60], Amberlite IR-120 was chosen because of its good stability, high proton capacity, affordability and recyclability without a significant decrease in its activity [58,61,62]. Solvent effects on the production of BL and intermediates were evaluated as well as on the fructose dissolution at different temperatures. A mass transfer study was performed, and the swelling of Amberlite IR-120 was also measured

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- 121 2. Experimental section
- 122 2.1 Chemicals
- Fructose (≥ 99% purity), 5-(hydroxymethyl)furfural (HMF, 99% purity), 5-(ethoxymethyl)furfural (EMF,
- 124 97% purity) and y-valerolactone (≥ 99% purity) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich.
- 125 1-Butanol (BuOH, ≥ 99,5 % purity), butyl levulinate (BL, ≥ 98% purity), acetonitrile (ACN, ≥ 99,9% purity),
- butyl formate (BF, ≥ 97% purity) and acetone (≥ 99,9% purity) from VWR chemicals. Amberlite IR120
- 127 (H+ form, ion-exchange resin) commercial catalyst provided by Acros Organics. Nitrogen gas (N2 purity
- > 99,999 vol%) from Linde. All chemicals were employed without further purification.
- 129 2.2 Analytical methods

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130 Reaction samples were analyzed by combining gas and liquid chromatography. HPLC Agilent 1100 Series was employed to quantify fructose, equipped with a SUPELCOSIL LC-NH2 column (250 mm x 131 132 4.6 mm x 5 µm), a UV detector set at 191 nm, and by using a mixture of acetonitrile and ultrapure water 133 (90:10 v/v %) as mobile phase, with a flow rate of 1 mL/min and constant column temperature of 30 °C. 134 Reaction products, such as HMF, BL, 5-(butoxymethyl)furfural (BMF), and solvent systems were 135 detected by Bruker Scion 456-GC, equipped with a VF-1701ms Agilent column (60.0 m x 250 µm x 0.25 136 μm) and a flame ionization detector (FID). The injector and detector temperature were 250 °C, and the 137 oven temperature was programmed from 40 °C to 250 °C with 20 °C/min of ramp rate. All experimental 138 quantifications were based on daily calibration curves with standard solutions of pure commercially 139 available chemicals. EMF was used as a reference for the BMF calibration curve due to its commercial

unavailability. Each experimental sample was analysed three times to estimate the error in the analytical

142 Fructose conversion, butyl levulinate yield and catalyst loading were defined as follows:

method, in term of standard deviation.

Fructose conversion (%) = 
$$\left(1 - \frac{\text{mole of fructose after the reaction}}{\text{initial mole of fructose}}\right) * 100$$
 (1)

144 BL yield (%) = 
$$\frac{\text{mole of BL after the reaction}}{\text{initial mole of fructose}} * 100$$
 (2)

145 Catalyst loading 
$$(\omega_{CAT}) = \frac{\text{mass of catalyst}}{\text{liquid volume}} (g/L)$$
 (3)

#### 2.3 Experimental set-up

with the different solvent systems.

The alcoholysis reaction runs were performed in a 300 mL Parr stainless steel batch reactor, under isothermal and isobaric conditions. The reactor was equipped with an electrical heating jacket and a cooling coil, together with a thermocouple capable of measuring the reaction temperature and communicating with the temperature controller. The presence of a gas entrainment impeller (diameter 2.5 cm) with a hollow shaft provided a uniform mixing of the reacting mixture.

For each experiment, the reactor was loaded with 1.6 g of fructose, 35 g/L of catalyst loading (4.5 – 4.9 g of catalyst) and a fixed volume of liquid. After loading the reaction mixture, catalyst and assembling the reactor, the system was pressurized with nitrogen at 20 bars to limit the gas-liquid partition of the liquid phase [43,58]. Then, the temperature heater and rotation stirrer were switched on. The first sample was collected when the desired temperature was reached (time zero). Following the time zero sample,

samples were collected at 5 min, 30 min, and then every hour up to 7 h. The reaction temperature was

fixed to 110 °C, demonstrated by preliminary experiments to be the optimum between catalytic activity

and catalyst resistance towards temperature. Indeed, sulfonic groups, i.e., active sites, from Amberlite

IR-120 can leach when the temperature is higher than 120°C. Table 1 shows the experimental matrix

Table 1: Experimental matrix with the initial amount of fructose, butanol, water and GVL.

	Run	Fructose (g)	Butanol wt%	Water wt%	GVL wt%	ω <sub>CAT</sub> (g/L)	T(°C)	rpm	Reaction time (h)	Inert gas
	1	1.6	83	17	0	35	110	800	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)
No GVL	2	1.6	91.5	8.5	0	35	110	800	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)
	3	1.6	96	4	0	35	110	800	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)
	4	1.6	100	0	0	35	110	800	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)
	5	1.6	2.5	8.5	89	35	110	800	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)
GVL	6	1.6	60.5	8.5	30	35	110	800	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)
	7	1.6	76.5	8.5	15	35	110	800	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)
	8	1.6	70	0	30	35	110	800	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)

Amberlite IR-120 was pre-treated before its use, as described by Leveneur et al. [62]. The catalyst was washed through several cycles in water and a final one in butanol, which is the main reaction solvent, after being dried in an oven at 90 °C at atmospheric pressure for 5 hours. Amberlite IR-120 is a cation exchange resins composed of sulfonated styrene-divinyl benzene (PS-DVB) matrix with sulfonic acid functional groups. The catalyst is a gel-type resin, bead-shaped, in which PS-DVB copolymers result in

a set of tangled chains with no spaces between them in the dry state. The degree of cross-linking, linked to the level of divinylbenzene, represents the tightness of the resin. Table 2 shows the properties of Amberlite IR-120.

Table 2: Properties of Amberlite IR-120 according to the manufacturer (Acros Oganics).

Supplier	Acros Organics		
Structure	Styrene-divinylbenzene		
Resin type	Gel-type		
Cross linking (DVB%)	8		
Moisture content (% mass)	48-58		
Capacity by dry weight (m <sub>eq</sub> /g)	4.4		
Native particle size range (µm)	≥ 94 % (300 < d < 1180 µm)		

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#### 2.4 Mass transfer study

To evaluate the effect of internal mass transfer, it is important to measure the effect of different particle size ranges on the kinetics. Thus, the dried catalyst particles were sieved. As a result, the dried particle size distribution (PSD) evidenced a high percentage (ca. 84 %) of particles with diameters higher than 500 µm and the remaining particles with diameters between 300 and 500 µm. The influence of external and internal mass transfer resistances was investigated by varying agitation speed and particle size. As shown in Table 3, varying the rotating speed between 500 and 1000 rpm, the external mass transfer limitation was studied for the finest particle size distribution (runs 1',2',3' in Table 3). An optimum rotating speed was selected to supress the external mass transfer resistance. The presence of internal mass limitation was examined by considering the different particle size distribution (finest, highest and native distribution; Runs 4',5',6' in Table 3).

Table 3: Experimental matrix for external and internal mass transfer limitation investigations.

	RUN	PSD	Fructose (g)	Butanol wt%	Water wt%	ω <sub>CAT</sub> (g/L)	T(°C)	rpm	t(h)	Inert gas
	1'	Fine	1.6	83	17	35	110	500	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)
EXT	2'	Fine	1.6	83	17	35	110	800	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)
	3'	Fine	1.6	83	17	35	110	1000	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)
	4'	Fine	1.6	83	17	35	110	800	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)
<u>=</u>	5'	High	1.6	83	17	35	110	800	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)
	6'	Native	1.6	83	17	35	110	800	7	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)

Being characterized by cross-linked styrene-divinylbenzene, the particle size of Amberlite IR120 is also affected by the swelling effect due to the solvent. In other words, even if the amount of dried catalyst is the same, the kinetics could be different if the solvent is different due to different swelling behavior. The same procedure described in the article of Russo et al. was used [58,63]. Based on the Bodamer and Kunin procedure [64], the swelling degree was investigated in each solvent system to observe the catalyst behavior in all solvents. The parameter was evaluated by adding an aliquot of 20 mL of dry catalyst to a graduated cylinder of 100 mL. The initial volume was read to the nearest 0.5 mL. Then, the resin was covered with the specific solvent mixture to fill the cylinder volume without shaking and tapping. After 120 h, the volume was read, and the swelling percentage was calculated as follows:

$$\%SW = \frac{\text{final volume } (V_{\text{final}}) - \text{initial volume } (V_{\text{initial}})}{\text{initial volume } (V_{\text{initial}})} * 100$$
(4)

2.5 Fructose dissolution investigation

The fructose dissolution has been measured in the different solvent mixtures considered in this study. By using the same experimental equipment described above, a modified analytical method was applied [65]; a solvent mixture of 140 mL volume together with a known amount of fructose (i.e. the specific fructose concentration of 11 g/L used in the alcoholysis experiments) is added to the system, kept in agitation at 800 rpm, at constant temperature and pressure and for a period of time sufficient to determine the equilibrium of the system. Engasser et al. [66] observed a rapid initial phase in the dissolution kinetics of fructose in which around 40% of the maximal concentration was reached in less than 5 minutes. Thus, a time interval of 30 min was assumed as sufficient to reach the equilibrium in this study. The system was tested under different temperature conditions by measuring the fructose concentration at each temperature (Fig. 2). In particular, fructose dissolution has been investigated in pure butanol and butanol-GVL mixture 70/30 wt% (Table 4).

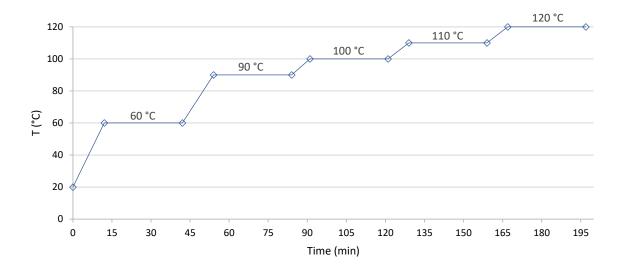


Fig. 2. Temperature profile versus time in fructose dissolution study.

Table 4: Experimental matrix for fructose dissolution study.

RUN	Fructose (g)	Butanol wt%	GVL wt%	rpm	Inert gas	
S1	1.6	100	0	800	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)	
S2	1.6	70	30	800	N <sub>2</sub> (20 bar)	

#### 3. Results and discussion

According to several articles, the reaction mechanism of fructose alcoholysis by butanol occurs according to Fig. 3 [43,67–69]. In acidic system, fructose tends to be rapidly dehydrated to HMF, first reaction intermediate. Through the alcoholic medium, HMF can be rehydrated to levulinic acid, then esterified to butyl levulinate or be transformed into the corresponding ether, 5-BMF, then converted to BL. Besides BL, butyl formate is also produced in an equimolar ratio. Experimentally, we observed the pathway through 5-(butoxymethyl)furfural (HMF) as dominant since the production of levulinic acid is very low, with concentrations close to zero throughout the reaction time. This might be due to the low water concentration, which is insufficient to favor the rehydration of HMF rather than its etherification with butanol [42]. For this reason, LA concentration trends were not considered in the subsequent discussion of the results. Furthermore, the reaction scheme constituted of several consecutive and parallel reactions also count the inevitable production of humins from polymerization side-reactions of fructose and HMF. Studies claim that BMF does not degrade into humins [67].

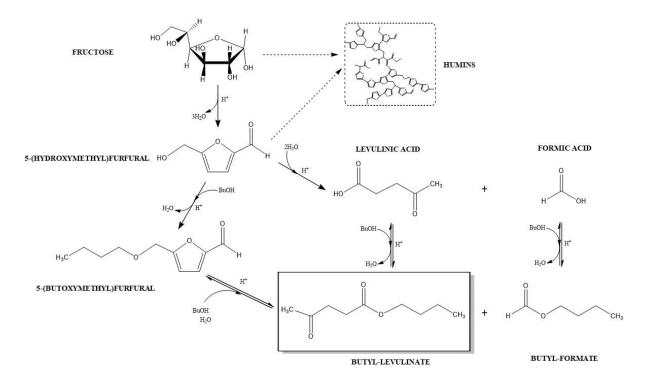


Fig. 3. Reaction steps for the fructose alcoholysis in an acid-catalyzed system.

# 3.1 Swelling effect

Table 5 shows that the swelling test of Amberlite IR120 showed similar behavior in the different solvents and mixtures tested: pure butanol, pure GVL, pure water, BuOH/GVL/Water, BuOH/GVL and BuOH/Water. Although slightly lower in pure GVL, the swelling factor is over 100 % in each solvent system. Hence, the difference of kinetics for the alcoholysis of fructose by butanol over Amberlite IR-120 in these solvents is not due to the swelling effect. Therefore, if the swelling effect is the same in these solvents, the mass transfer study was only performed in BuOH/Water.

Table 5: Results from swelling study of Amberlite IR-120 at room temperature.

Solver	nt	V <sub>0</sub> (mL)	V <sub>fin</sub> (mL)	%SW
Pure BuOH	-	20	42	110±5
Pure GVL	-	20	39	95±5
Pure Water	-	20	42	110±5
BuOH/GVL/Water	53/30/17 %wt	20	42	110±5
BuOH/GVL	70/30 %wt	20	42	110±5
BuOH/Water	83/17 %wt	20	41	105

While the results in pure water and binary mixture butanol-water are comparable with the ones obtained in literature (around 100 % in water and 110 % in ethanol-water mixture) [58,64], the swelling effect in pure butanol is higher than that reported in the literature for ethanol (40 % obtained by Bodamer and Kunin [64], 70 % by Russo et al. [58]). The swelling parameter in the presence of GVL shows that the addition of this solvent does not affect the swelling behavior of the catalyst.

#### 3.2 Evaluation of external and internal mass transfer

## -External mass transfer

Figs 4 show the effect of stirring rate on the kinetics of fructose alcoholysis. One can notice that the fructose consumption is higher at 800 rpm than at 500 rpm or 1000 rpm (Fig. 4A). The fact that the kinetics decreases from 1000 to 800 rpm is undoubtedly due to the vortex effect. Similar observation can be done for BL, HMF and BMF concentration ratio (Fig. 4D, 4B, 4C). To decrease the effect of external mass transfer resistance, experiments were performed at 800 rpm.

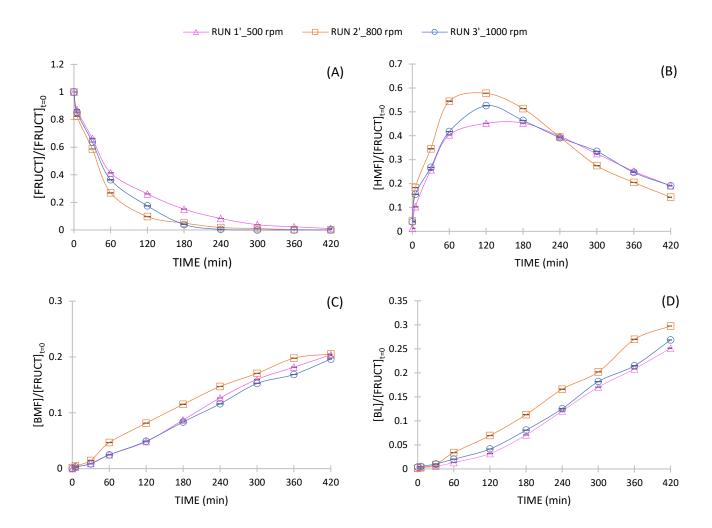


Fig. 4. Effect of the stirring rate on the concentrations (normalised with respect to the fructose concentration at time zero): (A) fructose, (B) HMF, (C) BMF, and (D) BL.

#### -Internal mass transfer

Figs 5 show the effect of catalyst PSD on the fructose alcoholysis. One can notice that in the operating conditions of this study, the catalyst PSD of Amberlite IR120 has a very negligible effect on the trends of fructose consumption (Fig. 5A), on HMF production (Fig. 5B), on BMF production (Fig. 5C), and on BL production (Fig. 5D). Thus, the internal mass transfer resistance can be considered to be negligible.

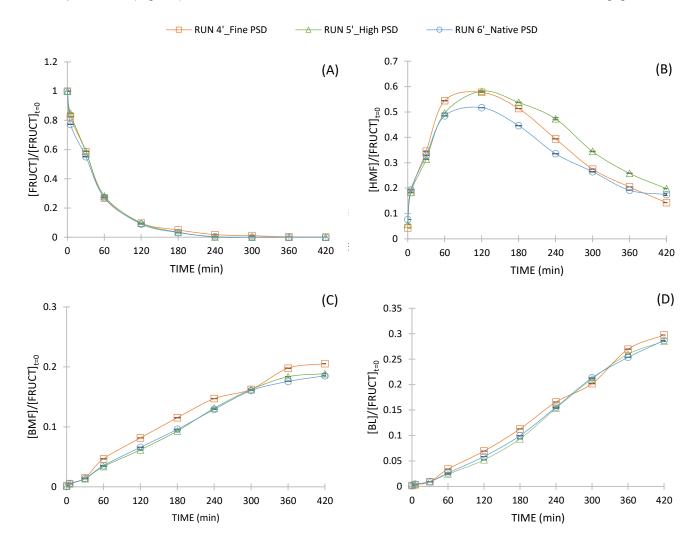


Fig. 5. Effect of catalyst PSD on the concentrations (normalised with respect to the fructose concentration at time zero): (A) fructose, (B) HMF, (C) BMF, and (D) BL.

Based on external and internal mass transfer study, the experiments were performed with native PSD and at 800 rpm to avoid the interferences with mass transfer limitation.

# 3.3 Dissolution investigation

In the presence of water, even at low concentrations, it was observed that fructose dissolution could be considered instantaneously. For that reason, the dissolution of fructose in a 70/30 wt% BuOH/GVL and pure butanol solvent was studied.

The benefit of a 70/30 wt% BuOH/GVL compared to a pure butanol solution was found through fructose dissolution. Fig. 6 shows that fructose solubility increases with temperature up to 110°C, fructose degradation to humins is significant. Fructose dissolution results faster in a 70/30 wt% BuOH/GVL solvent for temperature lower than 100°C, already reaching 33% of total concentration at 60°C and complete dissolution at 100°C. The effect of BuOH/GVL solution in promoting fructose dissolution at temperatures below 100 °C could be advantageous for catalysts suffering from thermal instability.

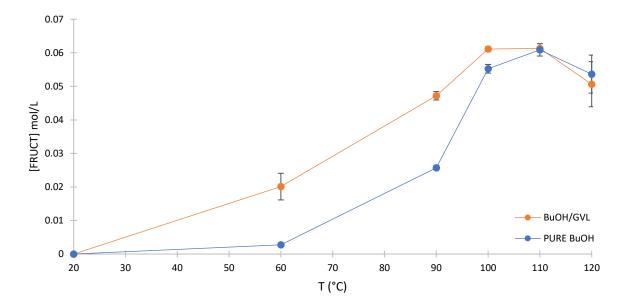


Fig. 6. Fructose dissolution in pure butanol and GVL/BuOH (30/70 wt%) solvents versus temperature.

3.4 Analysis of the effect of solvents in the alcoholysis of fructose.

#### - Butanol-Water

From Fig. 7A, it is not possible to observe a clear trend concerning the role of water concentration on the kinetics of fructose consumption since its reduction is due simultaneously to its rapid conversion to HMF and degradation to humins. The trends of HMF production and consumption give a better insight into the role of water. In Fig. 7B, HMF consumption is faster and total in the absence of water (Run 4, Fig. 7B), whereas at the highest water concentration, 17 wt% (i.e., Run 1, Fig. 7B), its conversion is slower. In high-water content, HMF is still present after 7 h, with a final yield of 18.3 %. The same water effects are also reflected in BMF concentration trends (Fig. 7C). BMF shows an upward concentration trend throughout the reaction time with 17 wt% of water (Run 1); by reducing the water concentration, the consumption phase of this intermediate becomes more and more pronounced. From Fig. 7C, the fastest kinetic is obtained in the absence of water, where the maximum of BMF is achieved at 180 minutes. This observation is confirmed by Fig. 7D where the BL production is faster and higher by reducing the water content. The increase in BL production, i.e., in yield of BL, by decreasing the water content is also directly related to the moles of fructose lost during the reaction time. Table 6 reports the fructose loss (mol%) due to by-sides reactions, as degradation to humins, which amounts to around 22% with 17% water and is reduced to 1.5% in the absence of water, increasing BL yield of up to 57.5%.

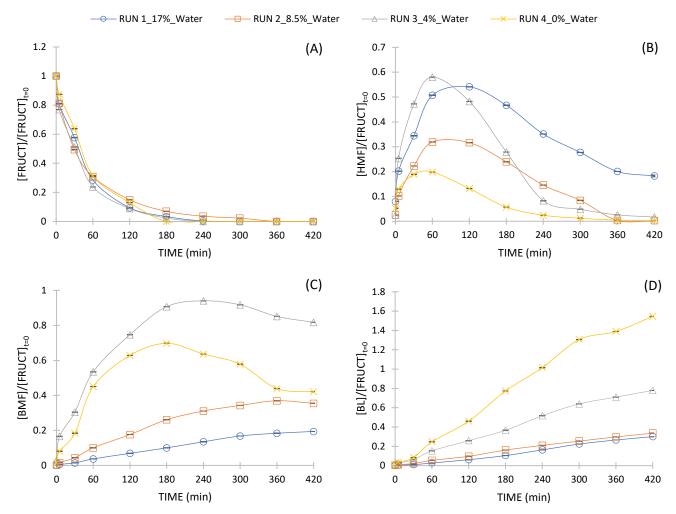


Fig. 7. Effect of water concentration on the concentrations (normalised with respect to the fructose concentration at time zero): (A) fructose, (B) HMF, (C) BMF, and (D) BL

These results may confirm the role of water in affecting the stability of fructose in alcoholic medium, favoring its degradation to humins by-product [44,46,48]. Besides, to increase fructose loss into humins, the role of the water in inhibiting catalytic action of ion exchange resins, as suggested by some research [70,71].

Table 6: Fructose moles lost in butanol-water solvent (110 °C, fructose initial conc. 11 g/L, catalyst loading 35 g/L).

Run	Butanol (wt%)	Water (wt%)	GVL (wt%)	Fructose lost mol%
1	83	17	0	22.2
2	91.5	8.5	0	16.1
3	96	4	0	5.7
4	100	0	0	1.5

#### - Butanol-Water (8.5wt%)-GVL

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In these experiments, the effect of aprotic polar solvent, namely GVL, was evaluated in the solvent polar protic mixture butanol-water. In this system, 8.5 wt% water was added as the minimum water content to achieve the fastest fructose dissolution and thus neglect the dissolution effect on reaction kinetics. Fig. 8A shows that the kinetics of fructose consumption is faster at the highest GVL concentration (i.e., Run 5). When the concentration of GVL is lower, the kinetics of fructose consumption is slower (Fig. 8A). This could derive from the ability of GVL to promote further the dissolution of fructose in the alcohol medium, as demonstrated in the dissolution study, by facilitating the interaction with the catalyst. However, the rapid fructose conversion in GVL excess is not reflected in the HMF production and consumption trend, which is faster when GVL concentration decreases (Fig. 8B). This may be because the reaction pathway seems to change in excess of GVL. In contrast to the other experiments, a modest concentration of LA was produced in Run 5, with yields in LA of up to 15%. LA was not identified in Runs 5 and 6, where high concentrations of the intermediate BMF can be found. HMF concentration trends in 30 wt% (Run 5) and 15 wt% (Run 6) are similar, with a higher HMF concentration produced in the case of 30 wt% of GVL. In both solvent systems, a residual HMF concentration can be found after 7 hours, in contrast to Run 2 where a complete conversion of HMF is observed for the same water content. This may highlight the role of the aprotic solvent in stabilizing reaction intermediates such as HMF. The same trend was also observed for the BMF consumption and production concentration trends (Fig. 8C). From Fig. 8C, the production of BMF is remarkably low at the highest GVL concentration, as a result of LA production by HMF rehydration, and with an optimal production trend in 30 wt% GVL. Fig. 8D shows that high GVL concentration does not increase the BL production in the reaction time considered, possibly due to slower LA esterification kinetics to BL than BMF conversion and a non-excess of alcohol in the medium. GVL concentration between 15 and 30 wt% gives a higher BL concentration. Low GVL amount improves the production of BL compared to Run 2 in terms of yields, but a higher GVL amount is detrimental for BL production (Fig. 8D). The beneficial role of GVL is also demonstrated by evaluating the secondary consumption of fructose moles (Table 7), where the addition of GVL can result in up to 5% less of fructose lost, compared to the solvent butanol-water. As an optimum in terms of BL production and fructose mole loss, experimental results indicate the addition of 30 wt% GVL in the solvent medium.

Table 7: Fructose moles lost in butanol-water-GVL solvent, compared with Run 2 (110 °C, fructose initial conc. 11 g/L, catalyst loading 35 g/L).

Run	Butanol (wt%)	Water (wt%)	GVL (wt%)	Fructose lost mol%
2	91.5	8.5	0	16.1
5	2.5	8.5	89	9.1
6	60.5	8.5	30	10
7	76.5	8.5	15	11.9

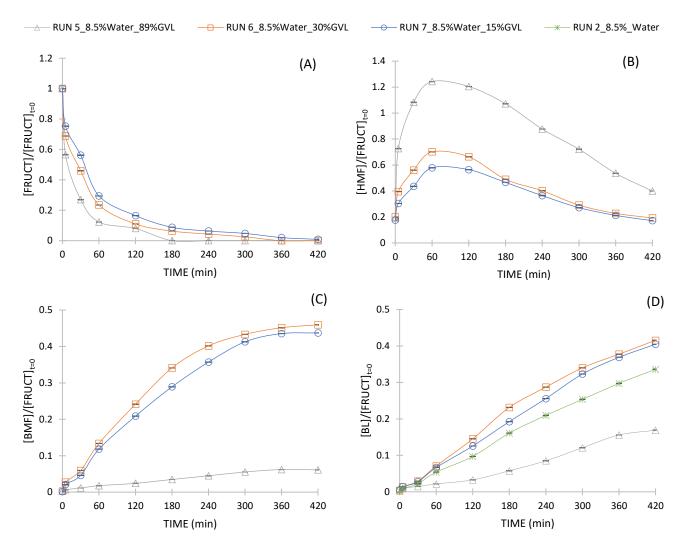


Fig. 8. Effect of GVL concentration on the concentrations (normalised with respect to the fructose concentration at time zero): (A) fructose, (B) HMF, (C) BMF, and (D) BL.

## Butanol-GVL in the absence of water

Previous results showed that water does not improve the fructose alcoholysis to butyl levulinate. From Run 6, the addition of 30 w% of GVL increases the BL yield. A further investigation was done by performing an experiment with 30 w% of GVL in the absence of water (Run 8). Fig. 9A shows that fructose consumption in a 30 wt% GVL (Run 8) is slower than pure butanol. This result may be due to GVL ability to limit unwanted degradation reaction to humins, resulting in higher selectivity to reaction intermediates such as HMF and BMF. In fact, the production of HMF and BMF is more important at 30 wt% of GVL (Figs 9B and C). In 30 wt% GVL, HMF is still present in moderate concentration after 7 hours, whereas in pure butanol, it rapidly reaches complete conversion. As with fructose, this could be due to the role of GVL in stabilising the HMF intermediate and limiting its degradation. This is also

reflected in the reduction of the moles of fructose lost, which are approximately zero in the presence of GVL and greater than 1% in pure alcohol, as shown in Table 8. This observation is confirmed by Fig. 9D where the concentration of BL increases at 30 wt.% of BL. Although the consumption kinetics of fructose and intermediates are slower in the presence of GVL, the production of BL is higher and faster than in pure butanol.



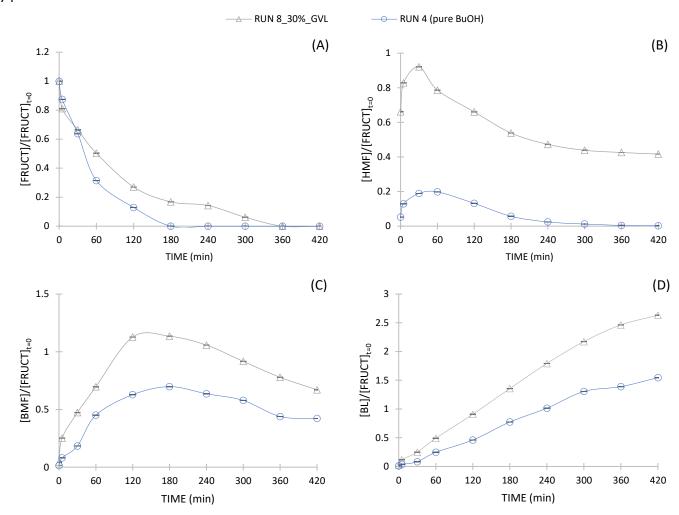


Fig. 9. Effect of BuOH/GVL concentration on the concentrations (normalised with respect to the fructose concentration at time zero): (A) fructose, (B) HMF, (C) BMF, and (D) BL.

Table 8: Comparison fructose moles lost in run 4 and 8 (110 °C, fructose initial conc. 11 g/L, catalyst loading 35 g/L).

Run	Butanol wt%			Fructose lost mol%		
4	100	0	0	1.5		
8	70	0	30	0		

3.5 Comparison with literature data

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Table 9 compared the literature data of fructose solvolysis to BL over different solid acid catalysts with the most promising obtained in this study. Since other reaction conditions are used, the comparison is not directly straightforward. Considering the same cross-linking grade (DVB%=8), since it directly affects the catalytic activity [43], Amberlite IR120 has been compared with Amberlyst 39 and Dowex 50Wx8. In the presence of water, the yield of BL obtained with Amberlite IR120 (entry 3) is slightly higher than the corresponding with Dowex50Wx8 (entry 5) and Amberlyst 39 (entry 6), considering a higher catalyst loading but a lower temperature and a lower acid capacity (4.4 m<sub>eg</sub>/g versus 4.83 m<sub>eg</sub>/g of Dowex 50Wx8 and 4.82 m<sub>eg</sub>/g of Amberlyst 39, respectively [43]). The elimination of water from the solvent mixture drastically affects the production of BL, increasing the yield to 57.5 % (entry 2) in pure butanol, from 30.0 % (entry 3) in the presence of 17 wt% of water. This is due to the role of water in the degradative consumption of fructose leading to up to 22% of fructose moles lost, and secondly, its possible inhibiting effect on the catalytic activity of the resin. As shown, the BL yield increased significantly, reaching values comparable to those in the literature for other solid acid catalysts. An et al. [33] reported a 62.8 % of BL yield in the presence of Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> at 190 °C; Kuo et al. [72] obtained 67 % of BL yield by using TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles at 150 °C; Balakrishnan et al. [73] found lower yields by using Dowex 50Wx8 resin, maybe due to the high catalyst loading. Table 9 shows that the BL production is further improved by introducing GVL in butanol solvent system (30/70 wt%), leading to 60.4 % yield (entry 1). The presence of GVL also led to an increase in HMF and BMF selectivity, resulting in a higher residual concentration of these intermediates after the reaction time compared to the case of pure butanol. The addition of GVL determined a strong reduction in fructose moles lost, up to 7% less in a solvent system with water (Table 7, run 2 versus 6), and no moles lost in BuOH/GVL solvent system (table 8, run 8). The effect on fructose moles balance and the residual intermediate concentrations may suggest that GVL prevents the consumption of fructose and HMF by secondary reactions, such as degradation to humins, and that even higher BL yields could be expected by increasing the contact time. In summary, fructose alcoholysis on Amberlite IR120 achieved good BL yields, comparable to those obtained in other studies but significant in energy savings under more moderate temperature conditions. The use of GVL in the alcohol medium increased the butyl levulinate production and resulted in faster dissolution of fructose, promising benefits from the perspective of considering production from higher concentrations of fructose.

Table 9: Comparison with literature data on fructose alcoholysis to butyl levulinate.

Entry	Catalyst	T (°C)	t (h)	Fructose (g/L)	Solvent (w	rt%)	ω <sub>CAT</sub> (g/L)	X <sub>fruct</sub>	Y <sub>BL</sub> %	Ref.
1		110	7	11	BuOH/GVL	70/30	35	100	60.4	
2	Amberlite IR120	110	7	11	BuOH	-	35	100	57.5	This study
3		110	7	11	BuOH/Water	83/17	35	100	30.0	
4	Dowex	110	30	72	BuOH	-	260	97	14.0	[73]
5	50Wx8	120	6	21	BuOH/Water	83/17	14.3	>99.5	24.2	
6	Amberlyst 39	120	6	21	BuOH/Water	83/17	14.3	>99.5	25.3	[43]
7	Fe <sub>2</sub> (SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	190	3	25	BuOH	-	5	>99	62.8	[33]
8	TiO <sub>2</sub>	150	1	20	BuOH	-	5	100	67.0	[72]
9	CNT-PSSA	120	12	12.5	BuOH	-	5	99	78.0	[29]

#### 4. Conclusions

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414 The alcoholysis of biomass-derived fructose into promising fuel additive n-butyl levulinate over ion 415 exchange resins was studied in this research, showing the benefits of polar aprotic solvent GVL in terms 416 of fructose dissolution and production of BL. 417 The swelling behavior of the catalyst was studied and found to be independent of the nature of the 418 solvents tested. Furthermore, it has been shown that the influence of external and internal mass transfer 419 can be neglected using 800 rpm of rotating speed and the native particle size distribution by using our 420 experimental setup. Among the solvent mixtures tested, BuOH/GVL (70/30 wt%) has increased fructose dissolution 421 422 compared to pure butanol. Fructose dissolution was faster in BuOH/GVL (70/30 wt%) between 20 and 423 100°C, achieving complete dissolution at 100 °C. Temperature higher than 110 °C results in significant 424 degradation of fructose in both solvents. 425 The influence of water and GVL co-solvent (polar aprotic) were investigated on the kinetics of fructose, 426 HMF, BMF and BL. The addition of water did not improve BL production kinetics, although it promotes 427 the rapid dissolution of fructose even at low temperatures. At the contrary, BL yield increased from 30 428 % with 17 wt% of water to 57.5 % in the absence of water. Finally, the yield was further increased to 429 60.4 % by adding 30 wt% of GVL in butanol. 430 Considering the fructose dissolution and kinetic results, the use of BuOH/GVL (70/30 wt%) solvent is 431 the best solution in the alcoholysis of fructose to butyl levulinate over solid acid catalyst.

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