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Xylochemicals and where to find them

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This article surveys a range of important platform and high value chemicals that may be considered primary and secondary 'xylochemicals'. A summary of identified xylochemical substances and their natural sources is provided in tabular form. In detail, this review is meant to provide useful assistance for the consideration of potential synthetic strategies using xylochemicals, new methodologies and the development of potentially sustainable, xylochemistry-based processes. It should support the transition from petroleum-based approaches and help to move towards more sustainability within the synthetic community. This feasible paradigm shift is demonstrated with the total synthesis of natural products and active pharmaceutical ingredients as well as the preparation of organic molecules suitable for potential industrial applications.

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Introduction

Humankind's discovery and use of petroleum (from medieval Latin, from Latin *petra* 'rock' (earlier Greek) plus Latin *oleum* 'oil') likely substantially predates recorded history. Some of the earliest known records already contain mentions of "rock oil" in one form or another, with some of the earliest references relating its use as a fuel (light source).¹ An early (but, in context a relatively 'modern') textual reference to petroleum refining is

found in a 1596 translation by J. Frampton of reports by Nicolás Monardes "De Las Drojas De Las Indias"² As a fuel source, the combustion of petroleum releases heat, light, oxides of carbon, and water. This latter use remained the chief utility (excepting occasional application as a salve or ointment) of petroleum for most of the history of modern humans. Only much later did the science of chemistry – specifically, organic synthesis – develop sufficiently that the very limited structural types found in petroleum could be adequately elaborated into the range of functionality and reactivity required to produce modern materials and pharmaceuticals.³ Previously, contemporaneous biomass provided chemists with a wealth of functionality, reactivity and structural types that were elaborated into manmade materials. A chief disadvantage of biomass is that a



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suitable starting point (material) must be found in the natural pallet of chemicals. Furthermore, the chemistry developed for one particular natural starting material will likely not be applicable for reaching the same end from a different starting point. Petroleum, though structurally simpler than most natural products, provides a relatively well-defined and abundant starting point, from which more sophisticated chemicals can be assembled. The diversity of structural types that can now be derived from petroleum is a result of the wide variety of synthetic transformation and optimization that have been developed in the most recent 200 years.

To date, petrochemical feedstocks such as natural gas, coal and petroleum are the fundament for the majority of all chemical raw materials, that may lead to carbon imbalance in the ecosphere (besides depletion of underground deposits) and ecological risks in terms of production. Some of the potential consequences like alterations in vegetation and soil, changes in the composition of the atmosphere and global water balance may have already emerged in the late 20th century.⁴ The result has been a paradigm shift recorded in the Rio Declaration on



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Environment and Development in 1992.5 Based on this, Anastas and Warner developed their well-known 12 principles of green chemistry^{6,7} in 1998, which evolved as general guidelines for more eco-friendly methodologies, syntheses, technologies and processes over the past 20 years.⁸⁻¹⁰ Additionally, more metrics and terms have been developed in the early 1990s to describe the extent of sustainability as well as the "greenness" of a given reaction.¹¹ For example, Trost's Atom Economy concept describes the molar mass ratio of the desired product and the total sum of all molecular masses of all the substances produced according to the chemical equation.¹²⁻¹⁴ This was followed by the Environmental Factor (E-Factor) by Sheldon, indicating the environmental impact of a given process by describing the mass ratio of total waste and product production.¹⁵⁻¹⁹ Even though the earliest available sources for pure organic compounds were animals, microorganisms and plants, the 19th and 20th century were dominated by the exploitation of fossil carbon sources for the emerging chemical industry.^{20,21} Since the last 30 years, the need for renewable resources and especially for alternative carbon atom sources is constantly growing, displaying one of the major aspects of the field of Green Chemistry. One approach within this topic is to use wood as such a renewable alternative ('Xylochemistry'), as it can be considered a source of atmospherically-bound CO₂, and can be counted as CO₂-neutral when no further fossil carbon is involved.^{22,23} With a worldwide production of 5×10^9 m³,^{24,25} wood provides a broad variety of valuable oxygen-containing functionalities, e.g. hydroxyl or carbonyl groups as well as (enantiomerically pure) building blocks in contrast to fossil fuels, which lost the majority of their heteroatomic functionalities and their stereo-information through the process of kerogenesis.²⁶ Hence, their chemical diversity is limited and functional groups must be reconstructed in cost- and resourceintensive reaction sequences, which leads to additional purification steps, energy consumption and waste production.



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Anthony J. Arduengo is presently Professor of the Practice in the School Chemistry and of Biochemistry at the Georgia Institute of Technology in Atlanta, Georgia. Не was graduated from Georgia Tech in 1974 with a BS in Chemistry and in 1976 with a PhD. He has held numerous positions in industry and academia over the course of his career. He is a co-founder (together with Till Opatz) of the STANCE consortium (Technology

for a Sustainable Chemical Economy) focusing on sustainable chemical technologies employing biomass. Current research efforts in the Arduengo group have significant focus in the pharmaceutical synthesis area.



Till Opatz

Till Opatz holds a chair of Organic Chemistry at IGU Mainz. He graduated from Frankfurt University in 1997 and completed his PhD with H. Kunz in Mainz in 2001. After a postdoctorate at Utrecht University (Netherlands), he returned to JGU for his habilitation (2006). In 2007, he was appointed associate Professor at Hamburg University in 2007 and returned to Mainz as a full Professor in 2010. His research interests are method development,

natural product synthesis and sustainable chemistry.

In contrast, wood mainly consists of cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin, that affords the opportunity to use already existing waste-streams from paper production or agricultural waste products as well as wood itself. Furthermore, wood-derived materials act as renewable feedstocks for high value and platform chemicals alongside biofuels, while there is no competition with food production.^{27–33} As there is already a rich body of existing literature concerning the topic of lignin valorization/depolymerization,^{34–42} the reader shall be referred to this literature to gain a more detailed information about this spacious research field.^{39,42–46} (Oligo)peptides, (oligo)saccharides as well as (oligo)nucleotides will not be discussed in detail in this context either, as the natural origin of these substances is evident and the criterion of transcendence is not fulfilled in these cases.^{47–49}

Xylochemical synthesis approaches are not only of interest for future industrial scale processes, but have also found their way into laboratory scale synthesis methodologies, particularly in natural product total synthesis. Since the term 'Xylochemistry' was coined in 2015, several natural product total syntheses such as ilicifoline B,23 (-)-oxycodone,50 (-)-thebaine,51 lamellarin G trimethyl ether,52 shancigusin C and bletistrin G⁵³ as well as 2-aminophenoxazinone-type natural products⁵⁴ have been described. Additionally, antibacterial balsacones have been reported by the Pichette group,⁵⁵ while some current HIV protease inhibitors⁵⁶ as well as colorants and polyamides⁵⁷ have been reported by the Opatz group. The Sperry group demonstrated the use of chitin and chitosan as naturally occurring sources of nitrogen that can be implemented in a variety of N-substituted heterocycles.^{58,59} Among other groups, the Barta lab worked on the valorization of lignin and its model compounds⁶⁰ to build up naturally occurring alkaloid scaffolds. Another approach was reported by the Moeller group, who made use of wood waste streams by developing an electrochemical synthesis of value-added building blocks from sawdust.⁶¹ One of the most recent examples for the implementation of xylochemical strategies in organic chemistry and its impact on daily consumables is the application of cashew nut shell liquid as a supplier for UV absorbers in sunscreen.⁶²

To the best of our knowledge, there is no current publication that summarizes a large multiplicity of (standard) chemicals and reagents that can be considered primary xylochemicals and additionally demonstrates their natural sources until this date. Furthermore, important secondary xylochemicals are listed, which are accessible via straightforward chemical transformations from primary xylochemicals. Thus, this review article should provide such an overview in tabular form and act as a work of reference.

Registry of xylochemicals

As described by Arduengo and Opatz, xylochemistry uses woodor plant-based biomass as a source of raw materials for chemical synthesis instead of fossil carbon sources.^{22,63} The following registry depicts the first 100+ xylochemicals with their molecular structures and lists their corresponding natural origin.^{21,64} All substances are arranged in ascending order by

Table 1 Xylochemicals and their natural sources, ordered by the number
of carbon atoms. The following abbreviations and synonyms were used:
wood vinegar: wv; fermentation: fmt.; depolymerization: depol.; carbohy-
drates: sugars

	Compound	Natural source
P	H OH Formic acid	wv, ⁶⁵ oxidation of sugars (75%) ^{65,66}
Р	Me—OH Methanol	Dry distillation of wood, ⁶⁷ hydrogenation of lignin ⁶⁸
Р	Me OH Acetic acid	wv, ⁶⁵ fmt. of sugars, ⁶⁹ oxidation of carbohydrate biomass (up to 27%), ⁶⁶ wood pyrolysis ⁶⁵
S	Ethylene	Ethanol dehydration (>98%) ^{27,70-72}
S	Me ^{-/S} _Me Dimethyl sulfide	From Kraft black liquor with elemental sulfur ⁷³
S	Me OH Ethanol	ABE-fmt. of sugars ^{27,74,75}
S	Ethylene oxide	Catalytic oxidation of ethanol (up to 96%) ⁷⁶
S	HOOH Glycolic acid	Microwave-assisted processes (18%), sugar cane, sugar beets ⁷⁷
Р	HO O Oxalic acid	Wood-sorrels (Oxalis), ⁷⁸ from sawdust ⁷⁹
Р	HO Allyl alcohol	wv ⁶⁵
S	O Acrolein	Catalytic conversion of glycerol/ water mixtures (up to 62%) ⁸⁰
S	O OH Acrylic acid	Dehydration of 3-hydroxypropionic acid (derived from biomass) ^{81,82}
Ρ	Me Me Propionic acid	wv, ⁶⁵ fmt. of sugars $(71.8 \text{ g L}^{-1})^{69,83,84}$
Р	ОН	From biomass ⁸²

3-Hydroxypropionic acid

Table 1 (continued)

Table 1 (continued)

	Compound	Natural source		Compound	Natural source
Р	HO OH Malonic acid	Leaves of lucerne and green/ growing wheat plants, ⁸⁵ mature Leguminosae leaves, green alfalfa plants ^{86,87}	Р	HO OH HO OH Malic acid	Green alfalfa, ⁸⁶ wheat, ⁸⁷ fmt. of sugars $(37.9 \pm 2.6 \text{ g L}^{-1})^{107}$
S	ме ОН Lactic acid	fmt. of sugars (up to 90%), corn or sugar beets, ^{75,88} oxidation of carbohydrate biomass ^{66,77}	Р	O Me Butanoic acid	wv, ⁶⁵ fmt. of sugars (21 g $\mathrm{L^{-1}})^{69,108}$
S		Oxidation of D-fructose and L-sorbose (85%) ⁸⁹	S	ноон Maleic acid	Dehydrated malic acid, oxidation of furfural (47%), butanol, levulinic acid, hydroxymethylfurfural ^{109,110}
Р	Glyceraldehyde	ABE-fmt. of sugars, ^{27,90} wood pyrolysis with addition of calcium carbonate ⁶⁵	Р	HO O Fumaric acid	fmt. of sugars (16.2 \pm 0.2 g L ^{-1}), ¹⁰⁷ Fumaria officinalis ⁶⁹
S	OH HOOH Glycerol	Co-product of biodiesel production $(50 \text{ wt\%})^{91,92}$	Р	Me O Me Angrelic acid	wv ⁶⁵
S	Me OH Acetoin	fmt. of sugars (>40 g L^{-1}) ⁹³	Р	Me Valeric acid	wv, ⁶⁵ distillation of valerian root ⁶⁹
Р	1,3-Butadiene	Catalytic gas phase synthesis from grain-/potato-based ethanol ⁹⁴	S	Me O Levulinic acid	Lignocellulose ¹¹¹ (60–70% based on hexose content), ¹¹² sugars ^{113,114}
S	HOMe 1-Butanol OH	ABE-fmt. of sugars $(34 \text{ wt\%})^{27,74}$	S	но он	fmt. of sugars (glucose), ⁷⁵ by product of the pyrolysis of citric acid ¹¹⁵
S	Me OH (2R,3R)-butanediol	fmt. of sugars (up to 25%) ^{95,96}	S	Itaconic acid OH HO OH	Hydrogenation of arabinose from hemicellulose (up to 78%) ^{31,75}
S	G Furan O	furfural (>98%) ⁹⁷	Р	О́Н О́Н Xylitol Me	Mosses, ferns, trees, polyisoprenes from rubber tree, ¹¹⁶ pyrolysis of
Р	Me OH Crotonic acid	WV ⁶⁵		Isoprene 00	From levulinic acid through
Ρ		fmt. of sugars, ^{75,98–102} dry distillation of amber, ¹⁰³ biochemical transformation of sugar (1.3 mol succinate per mol glucose) ¹⁰⁴	Р	Me γ -Valerolactone	lignocellulose ¹¹⁹
Р	OH O HO O O Tartaric acid	Cleavage of ascorbic acid, ¹⁰⁵ grapes (berries) and wine, Geraniaceae, Vitaceae and Leguminosae families ¹⁰⁶	Р	Furfural	rentose-containing biomass like corn cobs, sugar cane residues, ^{97,109,111,120} wood hydrolysates ¹²¹

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Compound

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ble 1 (continued)	
Compound	Natural source
Me Sorbic acid	wv, ⁶⁵ rowan berries ^{141,142}
Me 0 0 Parasorbic acid	Rowan berries (132 mg/100 g), ¹⁴³ cranberry (0.12% of dry plant) ¹⁴⁴
HO Aconitic acid	Apparent in plants, also available from citric acid ⁸⁷
HO OH OH Citric acid	Green alfalfa, ⁸⁶ growing wheat, ⁸⁷ industrially through fmt. of sugars (up to 100%), ^{69,145} citrus juice and pineapple waste ⁶⁹
HO HO OH Isocitric acid	fmt. of sunflower oil (93 g L^{-1}) and purification by esterification ¹⁴⁶
Cyrene	Green solvent alternative for DMF or NMP, from cellulose (from larch log, poplar wood, bagasse, corn cob, bilberry presscake), ¹⁴⁷ via hydrogenation of levoglucosenone (up to 100%) ^{147,148}
0 Me 5-Methyl-3-methylene- dihydrofuran-2(3 <i>H</i>)-one	From biomass derived levulinic acid and formaldehyde (up to 92%) ¹⁴⁹
CI CHO 5-(chloromethyl)furfural	From biomass derived glucose, sucrose, cellulose (up to 76%) ^{150,151}
HO CHO 5-(hydroxymethyl)furfural	Fructose and other sugars (85%) ^{75,114,152–154}
Benzaldehyde	Fruit kernels, ¹⁵⁵ peach leaves, ¹⁵⁶ from cinnamaldehyde ¹⁵⁵

ОН Cresoles



Me 0 Hydrogenation of furfural¹²² 2-Methyltetrahydrofuran 0 wv,65 fractionation of coconut oil69 Me OH Caproic acid ОН OН Hydrogenation of glucose, 75 from cellulose (up to 85%)^{31,75} ОН HO ŌН Ōн Sorbitol Juice of manna-ash (*Fraxinus ornus* l.), olive trees/leaves,^{123,124} catalytic ΟН ŌН OH hydrogenation of glucose-fructose HO mixtures or cellulose (up to 85%)75 он ŌН Mannitol ОН Dry distillation of *Acacia catechu*,¹²⁵ lignin^{126,127} OH Catechol Lignin depol.,¹²⁸ pine wood lignin (9.6 mol%)¹²⁹ OH Phenol OH HO Wood tar¹³⁰ Resorcinol OH From phloretin,¹³¹ (apple tree leaves, manchurian apricot)^{132,133} HO OH Phloroglucinol O Oxidation of hydroxymethylfurfural/ methoxymethyl-furfural (59%)^{134,135} HC юн Furan-2,5-dicarboxylic acid Depol. of kraft lignin (175 g kg⁻¹),¹³⁶ wood combustion^{137,138} Benzene HO Raw wv from *Pinus tabulaeformis* carr¹²⁷ ОH Hydroquinone Green shell of walnuts,¹³⁹ citrus fruits¹⁴⁰ OH HO он он

Natural source

Ascorbic acid/vitamin C

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Table 1 (continued)

Table 1 (continued)

	Compound	Natural source		Compound	Natural source
Р	но он он	<i>Caesalpinia spinosa</i> pods (25% yield), ¹⁵⁹ <i>Rhus chinensis</i> ¹⁶⁰	Р	OH R ¹ = R ² = Me Xylenoles	wv, ⁶⁵ wood tar ¹⁷⁰
Р	Gallic acid	<i>Eucalyptus</i> wood extracts (detected via LC-MS), ¹⁶¹ <i>Terminalia myriocarpa</i> extracts ¹⁶²	Р	MeO HO Vanillic acid	Oxidation of vanillin from lignin ^{169,171}
Р	OH Methyl gallate	Wood combustion, ^{65,163} tolu balsam ^{164,165}	Р	MeO HO Vanillin	Lignin (4.5–7.0%, ¹⁷² 2.8% ¹⁷³), ¹⁷⁴ aspen wood (0.95–17.5%), ¹⁷⁵ Eucalyptus wood ¹⁷⁶
Р	ОН	Raw wv from <i>Pinus tabulaeformis</i> carr ¹²⁷	Р	MeO MeO Veratrole	Wood pyrolysis (detected via GC) ¹⁷⁷
Р	OH OH	Raw wv from <i>Pinus tabulaeformis</i>	Р	Me I Xylenes	Birch wood (combustion) ¹⁶³
Р	OMe 3-Methoxycatechol	Raw wv from <i>Pinus tabulaeformis</i>	Р	OMe OH OMe 2,6-Dimethoxyphenol	Raw wv from <i>Pinus tabulaeformis</i> carr ¹²⁷
Р	4-Methylcatechol	Distillation of guaiac resin, ^{65,166} wood tar oil, ⁶⁵ wv, ⁶⁵ bio-oil from lignin pyrolysis (up to 26%) ¹⁶⁷	Р	MeO HO MeO Syringic acid	Leaves of <i>Syringa vulgaris</i> (2.5% via GC), ¹⁷⁸ <i>Quercus infectoria</i> , ¹⁷⁹ acai palm oil (1073 \pm 62 mg L ⁻¹) ¹⁸⁰
Р	O Benzoic acid	From gum benzoin ^{69,103}	Р	O H	Cinnamon bark, ¹⁸¹ (1.5% of dried bark), ¹⁸² <i>Pseudocinnamomum</i> ¹⁸³
Р	CO ₂ H OH Hydroxybenzoic acids	From Salicaceae ^{168,169}	Р	Cinnamaldehyde	Cinnamon bark ¹⁸⁴
Р	CO_2H $R^1 = R^2 = OH$ Dihydroxybenzoic acids	From Alchornea cordifolia ¹⁶⁹	Ρ	HO <i>p</i> -coumaryl alcohol	Lignin depol. ¹⁸⁵

Table 1 (continued)

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Table 1 (continued)			Table 1 (continued)			
	Compound	Natural source		Compound	Natural source	
Р	HO p-coumaric acid	Grapevine pruning (0.15%) , ¹⁸⁶ wheat straw (0.66%) , ¹⁸⁷ maize stems $(1.08\%)^{187}$	Р	MeO HO Ferulic acid	Rice straw (0.87%) , ¹⁸⁷ rice bran ²⁰¹ (178.3 µg mg ⁻¹), ²⁰² grapevine pruning (0.41 mg g ⁻¹), ¹⁸⁶ wheat straw $(1.24\%)^{187}$	
Р	HO HO MeO Syringaldehyde	Lignin oxidation, poplar lignin (30%), ¹⁸⁸ aspen wood (0.77–36.2% at temperatures between 100–215 °C), ¹⁷⁵ maple wood (Klason lignin, 31.8%) ¹⁸⁹	S	MeO MeO Asaronic acid	Oxidation of asarone (65%) ^{203,204}	
Р	Me 4-Propylcyclohexanol	Hydrogenation of hardwood lignin (76%) ⁶⁸	Р	Me Ascaridole	<i>Chenopodium</i> oil (67%), ²⁰⁵ <i>Peumus</i> boldus oil (31%) ²⁰⁶	
Р	MeO HO	Raw wv from <i>Pinus tabulaeformis</i> carr ¹²⁷	Р	Me Me p-cymene	Sulfate turpentine, ²⁰⁷ Origanum acutidens oil (ca. 2%), ²⁰⁸ Chenopodium ambrosioides oil (26%) ²⁰⁹	
	MeO 2,6-Dimethoxy-4- methylphenol O		Р	Me Me Camphor	Camphor wood ^{69,208}	
Р	MeO WeO Veratraldehyde	From wood of <i>Abies sibirica</i> ¹⁹⁰	Р	Me Me (iso)borneol	Blumea balsamifera leaves (0.5% (–)-borneol, less isoborneol) ²¹⁰	
Р	Me Me 1,8-Cineol	Fractional distillation of <i>Eucalyptus</i> oil from leaves (1.0–2.4% of fresh weight) ¹⁹¹	Р	MeO HO Eugenol	Clove (leaves and buds, 180 mg g ⁻¹), 211,212 bay leaves, cinnamon bark and leaves 213	
Ρ	MeO MeO OMe	Roots of <i>Lactuca sativa</i> var. <i>Angustana</i> cv. (3.7 mg/228 g dried plant), ¹⁹² leaves of <i>Chloranthus anhuiensis</i> ¹⁹³ and <i>alpinia flabellate</i> (11 mg/800 g dried plant) ¹⁹⁴	Р	MeO HO Isoeugenol	Clove (leaves and buds, 180 mg g ⁻¹), 211,212 bay leaves, cinnamon bark and leaves 213	
Р	Trimethoxybenzaldehyde	Sassafras oil ¹⁹⁵ (80-93%), ^{196,197} Ocotea odorifera oil (42%) ¹⁹⁸	Р	HO Me Me Thymol	Turkish <i>Origanum acutidens</i> , ²⁰⁸ thyme oil (up to 50%) ⁶⁹	
S	O Isosafrol	From safrol (98%) ¹⁹⁹	Р	Me Me Carvacrol	Origanum acutidens oil (87%), ²⁰⁸ Satureja montana extracts (53-66%), ²¹⁴ oils of thyme (up to 60%), majorana (49%), Origanum dictamnus (up to 82%) ²¹⁵	
Ρ	HO HO Coniferyl alcohol	Reduction of ferulic acid (68%), ²⁰⁰ lignin depol ¹⁸⁵	Р	Me Me Myrcene	Turkish <i>Origanum acutidens</i> , ²⁰⁸ <i>Cotinus coggygria</i> oil (8.8%), ²¹⁶ or leave distillates (52%) ⁶⁹	

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Table 1 (continued)

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Table 1 (continued)





 ${\rm Scheme~1}$ Cashew nut shell liquid derived potential UV-Absorbers synthesized by Opatz and de Koning et al. 62



Scheme 2 Total Synthesis of ilicifoline B (11) and (–)-dihydrocodeine (15) using a xylochemical approach. 23,262



Scheme 3 Xylochemical total synthesis of (–)-thebaine (18) and (–)-oxy-codone (19). 50,51

materials, a xylochemical version of a synthesis developed earlier (Scheme 2).²⁶² Both syntheses demonstrate that the use of woodderived building blocks can be a sustainable alternative in classical synthetic approaches. In the case of dihydrocodeine, the hitherto most efficient asymmetric synthesis could be surpassed in terms of overall yield even though no carbon input from fossil sources was required with the exception of solvents and reagents.²²

Another example for the application of xylochemical synthesis strategies was reported in 2019.⁵⁰ (–)-Oxycodone (**19**), a naturally occurring²⁶³ but mostly semisynthetic opioid related to naturally occurring thebaine,^{264,265} was synthesized starting from wood-derived methyl gallate (**14**) and vanillin via the regio- and diastereoselective formation of a 4a-2'-coupled morphinandienone **17** as the key step, followed by Ru-catalyzed Noyori asymmetric transfer hydrogenation (Scheme 3).^{266,267}

Nevertheless, nitrogen-containing fine chemicals remain a challenging task for xylochemical synthesis approaches, as they are not directly attainable from lignocellulosic biomass. To this end, the Sperry group has used chitin (20), the second-most abundant biopolymer, as a cheap natural source of nitrogen, to show a proof-of-concept synthesis of the anticancer alkaloid proximicin A (23) in seven steps.⁵⁹ Additionally, all of the reagents applied in this synthesis sequence are traceable back towards renewable resources. With this strategy, the group was also able to demonstrate the synthesis of various 3-aminocyclopentanones, 4-aminocyclopentene-1,3-diones and a 4-aminocyclopentenone by applying the chitin-derived furfural 22 in a Piancatelli-like rearrangement (Scheme 4).²⁶⁸

By applying acidolysis strategies to lignin, the Barta group managed to directly afford three different substance classes of aromatic compounds that can be used as valuable aromatic monomers in further synthesis (Scheme 5). To this end, lignin model compounds 47, representing the β -O-4 linkage in natural lignin, were subjected to strong acids, and the resulting reactive





Scheme 4 Chitin/Chitosan-derived starting material 22 and products thereof by Sperry et al. 59,268

intermediates were converted into more stable products in situ through either reaction with diols furnishing acetals, dehydrogenation to afford the respective diol, or through decarbonylation.²⁶⁹

In 2019, the same group reported the construction of ligninderived tetrahydro-2-benzazepines (58) through selective catalytic amination followed by cyclization using formaldehyde and choline chloride (ChCl)/oxalic acid (OA) as deep eutectic solvent.⁶⁰ These substances show promising biological activities²⁷⁰ and represent a scaffold in naturally occurring alkaloids²⁷¹ such as galanthamine,²⁷² among others.

In 2015, the Moeller group reported the use of sawdust for the electrochemical, sustainable construction of synthetic building blocks bearing electron-rich aromatic rings.⁶¹ Solvolysis of the crude sawdust material lead to either cinnamyl ether or aryl aldehyde products, depending on the reaction conditions (Scheme 6). One substance of each class of ligninderived products was exemplarily converted electrochemically into a series of value-added synthetic substrates, which



Scheme 5 (a) Cleavage pathways of lignin through acidolysis followed by in situ conversion into stable products. (b) Construction of lignin-derived tetrahydro-2-benzazepines **58**.^{60,269}

themselves could act as platform chemicals for the construction of diverse drugs (38a and 38b) and alkaloids (39-41), as monomers for polymer synthesis (42 and 43), as structural elements found in numerous biological systems (44) or as substrates for electrochemical oxidations (45 and 46).

Concluding remarks

This review provides an overview of a variety of platform chemicals that may be obtained from wood-based biomass rather than from petrochemistry. Moreover, a variety of existing



Scheme 6 Solvolysis products of sawdust and conversion into electron-rich and value-added synthetic building blocks by the Moeller group.⁶¹

syntheses of natural products, drugs and everyday consumer products based on xylochemicals is presented. Nevertheless, there remains room for new discoveries and the improvement of existing technologies to reach the envisioned transition from optimized petroleum-based processes towards sustainable xylochemical approaches. Apart from renewable starting materials, as discussed in this review, the use of alternative, ideally sustainable solvents and reagents as well as work-up procedures, that suit the principles of green chemistry, are a major goal to bear in mind when planning a synthesis. Recommendations on the substitution of carcinogenic, toxic and otherwise undesirable solvents have already been published and adopted on industrial scale but are often disregarded in research laboratories.²⁷³ Until alternatives for problematic solvents and reagents are developed, recycling remains the responsible alternative. We hope this article will catalyze thinking and activity in the direction of renewable resources and sustainable chemistry. For the chemical community specifically, and for society in general, it would be advantageous to have access to renewable commodities containing nitrogen (e.g. pyridine, urea, guanidine, aniline, quinoline, phenylenediamine etc.), second row hetero elements (S, P) as well as the industrially and pharmaceutically relevant halogens (F, Cl, Br). The development of industrial processes for the isolation of monomeric building blocks (e.g. ethylene oxide, styrene, ethylene glycol, adipic acid, phthalic anhydride etc.) from woody biomass on an industrial scale would constitute a significant improvement over the current state of the art. In addition, there are numerous important simple substances and platform chemicals for which "green" industrial scale solutions are not yet available on larger scale (e.g. cyclohexanedione and the class of nitriles and isonitriles). Developments in this direction would constitute important additions to the xylochemical toolbox and can be regarded as attractive xylotargets for future chemical innovation.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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