

This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. This Accepted Manuscript will be replaced by the edited, formatted and paginated article as soon as this is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



www.rsc.org/advances



This work prepared a series of novel assembled sulfated zirconia nanoparticles catalysts which were firstly applied in carbohydrate conversion.

1	Catalytic dehydration of fructose to 5-hydroxymethylfurfural over
2	mesoscopically assembled sulfated zirconia nanoparticles catalyst in
3	organic solvent
4	Ningning Wang ^a , Yuan Yao ^a , Wei Li ^a , Yan Yang ^a , Zhanxin Song ^a , Wentao Liu ^a , Haijun
5	Wang ^a *, Xiao-Feng Xia ^a , Haiyan Gao ^a
6	^a The Key Laboratory of Food Colloids and Biotechnology, Ministry of Education, School of
7	Chemical and Material Engineering, Jiangnan University, Wuxi 214122, China
8	
9	
10	
11	Corresponding author: Haijun Wang
12	Address: School of Chemical and Material Engineering, Jiangnan University, Wuxi,
13	Jiangsu, 214122, China
14	Email: wanghj329@outlook.com (HJ. Wang)
15	
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	
-	
23	
24	

25	Abstract: The catalytic dehydration of fructose to 5-hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF) in				
26	DMSO was performed over a sequence of mesoscopically assembled sulfated				
27	zirconium nanostructures (MASZN) derived from zirconyl chloride with a template as				
28	a fastening agent. The materials were characterized by X-ray diffraction, FTIR				
29	spectroscopy, NH3 temperature-programmed desorption, pyridine FTIR spectroscopy,				
30	field emission scanning electron microscopy, transmission electron microscopy, and				
31	N ₂ sorption. The heterogeneous catalysts MASZN with Lewis-Brønsted acid sites				
32	conducted a superior performance in the dehydration of fructose to HMF. With				
33	MASZN-3 as catalyst, a HMF yield of 91.9% with a 98.5% fructose conversion was				
34	obtained at 110 °C for 120 min in DMSO. Finally, the catalyst MASZN-3 was recyled				
35	in four consecutive cycles with scarcely any loss of activity. The excellent catalytic				
36	properties together with its easy synthesis, low cost, and nontoxic nature make this				
37	MASZN a promising catalyst for the development of new and efficient processes for				
38	biomass-based chemicals.				
38 39	biomass-based chemicals. Keywords: Fructose; Degradation; Heterogeneous; Assembled sulfated				
38 39 40	biomass-based chemicals. Keywords: Fructose; Degradation; Heterogeneous; Assembled sulfated zirconium nanostructures; 5-Hydroxymethylfurfural				
38 39 40 41	biomass-based chemicals. Keywords: Fructose; Degradation; Heterogeneous; Assembled sulfated zirconium nanostructures; 5-Hydroxymethylfurfural				
 38 39 40 41 42 	biomass-based chemicals. Keywords: Fructose; Degradation; Heterogeneous; Assembled sulfated zirconium nanostructures; 5-Hydroxymethylfurfural				
 38 39 40 41 42 43 	biomass-based chemicals. Keywords: Fructose; Degradation; Heterogeneous; Assembled sulfated zirconium nanostructures; 5-Hydroxymethylfurfural				
 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 	biomass-based chemicals. Keywords: Fructose; Degradation; Heterogeneous; Assembled sulfated zirconium nanostructures; 5-Hydroxymethylfurfural				
 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 	biomass-based chemicals. Keywords: Fructose; Degradation; Heterogeneous; Assembled sulfated sulfated sulformanostructures; 5-Hydroxymethylfurfural				
 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 	biomass-based chemicals. Keywords: Fructose; Degradation; Heterogeneous; Assembled sulfated zirconium nanostructures; 5-Hydroxymethylfurfural				
 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 	biomass-based chemicals. Keywords: Fructose; Degradation; Heterogeneous; Assembled sulfated zirconium nanostructures; 5-Hydroxymethylfurfural				

49 **1.Introduction**

With the diminishing supply of fossil fuels, much effort has been devoted to the 50 search of innovative strategies and resources for the sustainable production of fuels 51 and chemicals from renewable materials.¹⁻⁴ Biomass with an estimated global 52 production of around 1.0×10^{11} tons per year has received enormous attention due to 53 its considerable potential as a raw material for the production of green fine chemicals, 54 fuels and fuel additives.⁵⁻⁸ Carbohydrates are the major components of biomass. Thus 55 it is highly desirable to convert carbohydrates to platform molecules selectively under 56 mild conditions, which can subsequently be used for the production of various 57 chemicals. 58

59 5-Hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF), a valuable biomass-derived platform compound, 60 is usually derived from degradation of cellulose, and subsequent dehydration of 61 saccharides, can be converted to numerous various chemical products^{9, 10} and liquid 62 fuel or fuel additives,¹¹⁻¹⁴ potentially useful for fine chemicals, pharmaceuticals, the 63 petroleum industry, and furanose-based polymers. This necessitates the development 64 of sustainable processes for the conversion of biomass and carbohydrates into HMF to 65 bridge the growing gap between supply and demand of energy and chemicals.^{15, 16}

In recent years, great progress has been made on effective routes for the synthesis 66 of HMF from C6-based carbohydrates. High HMF yields were obtained from 67 C6-based carbohydrates in various catalytic systems.¹⁷⁻²⁰ Relative to other C6-based 68 carbohydrates, the production of HMF from fructose is much easier because of the 69 70 fact that the fructofuranoic structure is more reactive to dehydration. Therefore, 71 fructose has always been chosen as an ideal model substrate to evaluate the performance of catalytic systems for biomass conversion.²¹ The traditional approach 72 to the synthesis of HMF from fructose requires the use of homogeneous mineral acids, 73

organic acids and ionic liquid.²²⁻²⁵ The use of homogeneous catalysts for biomass 74 conversion has been extensively studied and is known to be highly effective. However, 75 there are several drawbacks to this approach, including catalyst separation, reactor 76 corrosion, and recyclability. In pursuit of economical, simple, efficient, and 77 environmentally friendly HMF production process, various heterogeneous catalysts 78 have been tested under different conditions, such as zeolites,²⁶ functionalized silica,²⁷ 79 $(MOF-SO_3H)$,²⁸ sulfonic acid-functionalized metal-organic frameworks 80 heteropolyacids (HPAs),²⁹ acidic TiO₂ nanoparticles,³⁰ biomass-derived sulfonated 81 carbonaceous materials.³¹ and bifunctional SO₄/ZrO₂.³² 82

Among these heterogeneous catalysts, solid acid ZrO₂ is most widely used and has 83 inspired great interest in carbohydrate dehydration systems. Their advantageous 84 catalytic characteristics stem from not only the strength of the acid, but also the type 85 of acidity³³ (Brønsted and Lewis) ; therefore, enabling enhanced activity and 86 87 selectivity. As a result, much attempt was previously devoted to synthesizing high active sulfated ZrO₂ catalyst. Karen Wilson and co-workers used bifunctional 88 sulfated zirconia as catalyst for the conversion of fructose and glucose to HMF in 8.3 89 and 6.8 % yields, respectively.³² Although the bifunctional SO₄/ZrO₂ solid catalysts 90 are promising in terms of recyclability and easy separation, they suffer from poor 91 92 yield and selectivity. More recently, Yadong Yin reported the synthesis of sulfated ZrO₂ hollow nanostructures with controllable physical and chemical properties and 93 their catalytic application in the dehydration of fructose to HMF (64%).³⁴ 94

It has been demonstrated that catalytic systems that contain both Lewis and Brønsted acidity are more beneficial for HMF production than Lewis or Brønsted acidic catalysts alone.³⁵ Herein, we report the synthesis of mesoscopically assembled sulfated zirconia nanoparticles (MASZN) with special physical and chemical

99 properties and their catalytic application in the dehydration of fructose to 100 5-hydroxymethyfurfural (HMF). A high surface area facilitates the integration of the 101 sulfate functionality and an open framework structure provides easy access to the 102 active sites in the chemical reactions. The flexible synthetic procedure allows easy 103 structural optimization and produces MASZN with higher catalytic performance than 104 solid particles. The mesoporous nano-assemblies provided efficient catalytic 105 reusability in the fructose reaction with negligible loss of activity.

2. Experimental

107 *2.1. Chemicals*

Anionic structure-directing agent $CH_3(CH_2)_{11}OSO_3Na$ (SDS) and Zirconyl chloride (ZrOCl₂·8H₂O), ammonia (NH₃, 28%, aqueous solution), and nitric acid (HNO₃, 60%), fructose (BR) were obtained from the Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co.Ltd. (Shanghai, China). DMSO, 1-allyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride ([AMIM]Cl) and other chemicals (AR) are commercially available and used without further purification unless otherwise stated. Deionized water was produced by using a laboratory water-purification system (RO DI Digital plus).

115 *2.2. Catalyst preparation*

The synthesis involved two steps: 1) the synthesis of ZrO_2 nanoparticles and 2) the fabrication of a mesoscopic nanoassembly architecture.

Preparation of a sol of uniform monodisperse ZrO_2 nanoparticles: ZrO_2 nanoparticles were prepared by using suitable modification of previous work published elsewhere.³⁶ First of all, zirconium hydride $Zr(OH)_4$ was synthesized by dissolving 3.22g of zirconyl chloride ($ZrOCl_2 \cdot 8H_2O$, 10 mmol) in 100 mL distilled water, followed by precipitation with ammonium hydroxide solution controlled at a pH of 10. The precipitate was repeatedly washed with distilled water till free of

chloride and ammonium ions (using AgNO₃ as test reagent). Then the precipitate was transferred to an aqueous acidic (HNO₃) solution and was sonicated until a transparent nanoparticles sol was generated. The final pH of the solution was <1, and the generated particles remained highly dispersible without sedimentation for a prolonged period.

129 Preparation of MAZN: MAZN were constructed by using premade ZrO₂ 130 nanoparticles as building blocks. In the synthetic procedure, premade ZrO_2 131 nanoparticles (1 mmol) were added to SDS solution (0.320 g, 1.1 mmol) in water (80 132 mL) at vigorous stirring at ambient temperature. The slurry was stirred for 2 h at 133 ambient temperature, then stirred further in an oil bath at 353 K for 3 h and slowly 134 cooled down to RT. The self-assembled nanoparticles were filtered and dried at 80 °C 135 overnight, and then calcined at 873 K for 5h in the presence of air to obtain 136 template-free MAZN. This sample was designated as MAZN-1.

The other three materials were prepared by varying the molar ratio of the precursors, such as X ZrO_2/Y SDS/ Z H₂O. In all these cases X = 1, and only Y and Z were varied. The four sets of variation were Y=0.56, Z=2224; Y=0.28, Z=1112; and Y=0.14, Z=556. The sample abbreviations were MAZN-2, MAZN-3, and MAZN-4, respectively.

Preparation of MASZN: Mesoporous sulfated zirconia was synthesized by treating
1 g of the above prepared calcined mesoporous zirconia sample twice with 15 mL of 1
N sulfuric acid followed by calcination in air at 833 K for 2 h.

145 *2.3. Characterisation techniques*

X-ray diffraction (XRD) analyses of the samples were performed by using a D8
Advance Bruker AXS diffractometer operated at 18 kW and calibrated with a standard
silicon sample. XRD patterns were obtained using a X-ray diffractometer with

Ni-filtered Cu-Ka (λ=0.15406 nm) radiation and a beam voltage of 40 kV and 40mA
beam current.

Transmission electron micrographs (TEM) of catalysts were obtained by using a JEOL JEM model 2100 microscope operated at 200 kV. TEM images were obtained by using a CCD camera. Samples were dispersed in ethanol and a drop of the dispersion was placed on a carbon coated copper grid (300 mesh) and allowed to dry. Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) micrographs were taken on a HITACHI S-4800 emission scanning microscope at an accelerating voltage of 3 kV with a beam current of 1 μA.

The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface areas were determined by N_2 adsorption/desorption measurements (Micromeritics ASAP 2020) done at 77 K. Prior to the gas adsorption/desorption measurements, all samples were degassed at 473 K for 4 h to remove water and other physically adsorbed species. Surface areas were calculated using the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method over the range P/P0 = 0.05–0.30, where a linear relationship was maintained. Pore size distributions were calculated using the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) model.

165 NH₃ temperature-programmed desorption (NH₃-TPD) experiments were carried out 166 on a chemisorption apparatus (Micromeritics; AutoChem II 2920) equipped with a 167 TCD detector. Prior to the adsorption of NH₃, ca. 100 mg sample was first preheated 168 at 383 K under flowing He for 0.5 h to remove undesirable physisorbed species, followed by heating under He environment at 873 K for 1 h, then cooled to 393 K. 169 170 Subsequently, the sample was exposed to flowing ammonia gas mixture (5% NH_3 in 171 He) for 1 h, then purged by He gas for 40 min to remove excessive physisorbed 172 ammonia. All NH₃-TPD profiles were carried out by ramping the temperature from 173 373 to 873 K at a rate of 10 K/min.

The FTIR spectra of these samples were obtained by using an IR FTLA2000-104 spectrophotometer from ABB-Bomem Inc. FTIR spectra of adsorbed pyridine were also recorded on this spectrometer. Prior to the measurements, the catalysts were pressed in self-supporting disks and activated in the IR cell attached to a vacuum line at 300 °C for 4 h. Adsorption of pyridine (Py) was performed at 150 °C for 30 min. The excess of Py was further evacuated at 150 °C for 1 h in vacuum.

180 *2.4. Catalytic reactions*

The batch catalytic experiments were conducted in a 50 mL stainless steel 181 182 autoclave with glass liner tube. Fructose (1 mmol) as substrate and 3mL of DMSO as 183 solvent were firstly added in the reactor and then 10 mg of catalyst was added into the 184 mixture, the mixture was vigorously stirred at 110 °C for the desired duration of time. 185 Under these conditions the mass transfer effect was eliminated. When the reaction 186 was completed, the reactor was cooled to room temperature, the catalyst was separated by centrifugation and the post-reaction sample was diluted with deionized 187 188 water, and analyzed by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC).

The liquid samples were analyzed with HPLC using a Agilent Alliance System instrument (1100 Series) equipped with a refractive index detector and a UV detector, and a Shodex SURGER SP0810 (300×8.0) columns for analysis. Deionized water was used as the eluent phase, with a flow rate of 0.7 mL/min and 70 °C column temperature. Product yields were calculated from response factors determined from multi-point calibration curves. Conversion of the reactant, yield and selectivity of the products were calculated as follows:

196 conversion of reactant (%) =
$$[C_{\text{reactant}, t=0} - C_{\text{reactant}}] \div C_{\text{reactant}, t=0} \times 100\%$$

197 yield of product i (%) = $C_i \div C_{\text{reactant, } t=0} \times 100\%$

198 selectivity of product
$$i$$
 (%) = $C_i \div [C_{\text{reactant, }t=0} - C_{\text{reactant}}] \times 100\%$

RSC Advances Accepted Manuscrip

Here, C_i is the molar concentration of species *i*.

3. Results and Discussion

201 **3.1.Catalyst characterisation**





206 TEM and FE-SEM analysis. FE-SEM image of the mesoporous zirconia sample is 207 shown in Fig. 1. (a) and (b). As seen from the figure, this mesoporous zirconia 208 material is composed of similar spherical particles, which shows a regular 209 self-assembled arrangement. Since we sonicated the sample before the TEM 210 measurement, these zirconia nanoparticles lost their regular self-assembled 211 arrangement as seen in the TEM image. The TEM images confirmed the nano-size 212 nature of synthesized ZrO₂ particles (Fig. 1 c, d). In the image, low electron density 213 spots (pores) are seen throughout the specimen, and the particles of size

approximately 7.0-8.0 nm are arranged in a regular mesoscopic order. Interparticle pores as seen in this image (low electron density spots) vary from 4.0 to 6.0 nm in the length scale. The TEM image shows that the powder sample consists of aggregated nanoparticles and estimated pore size were consistent with N₂ adsorption/desorption measurements, as shown in Table 1. Otherwise, the nano singular structure (in Fig.1 d) may be result of the oriented aggregation of nanoparticles.³⁷

220 Powder X-ray Diffraction (XRD). The powder X-ray diffraction patterns for 221 calcined self-assembled zirconia and sulfated self-assembled zirconia materials are 222 shown in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3, respectively. The XRD results for both types of materials 223 exhibited a mixture of well-resolved characteristic of monoclinic and tetragonal phases of individual ZrO₂ nanoparticles.³⁸⁻⁴¹ Calcined MAZN possessed a tetragonal 224 225 phase, which is its major characteristic (Fig. 2). After sulfating integration, the 226 monoclinic phase became more prominent, as observed in the Fig. 3. Thus, integrated 227 sulfate ions had a strong influence on phase modification. Sulfate ions converted the metastable tetragonal phase to its more thermodynamically stable monoclinic phase.³² 228 In the research, the particle sizes of catalysts were calculated by using the Scherrer 229 230 equation. The estimated particle sizes varied from 7.0 to 8.0 nm (see the Electronic 231 Supporting Information). These results were in agreement with the TEM image 232 analysis results (Fig. 1 c, d). Otherwise, more monoclinic ZrO₂ generated via calcination, which had been reported to exhibit predominantly Lewis acidity.^{42,43} 233

 N_2 sorption studies. N_2 sorption studies are important to determine the porous nature of the materials. In the current research, the BET surface area, average pore diameter and pore volume for the calcined and sulfated mesoporous MAZN are shown in Table 1 (entries 1–4 for the calcined MAZN and entries 5–8 for the

238 MASZN). The BET surface area of the calcined MAZN-1, MAZN-2, MAZN-3, and

MAZN-4 were 124.2, 113.7, 102.8, and 66.5 $m^2 g^{-1}$, respectively. The surface area of



240

241 Fig. 2. Wide-angle PXRD patterns of mesoscopic-assembly zirconia samples: a) MAZN-1, b)

242 MAZN-2, c) MAZN-3;d) MAZN-4 (*) monoclinic phase, (°) tetragonal phase.



243

Fig. 3. Wide-angle PXRD patterns of sulfated samples: a) MASZN-1, b) MASZN-2, c)

245 MASZN-3;d) MASZN-4 (*) monoclinic phase, (°) tetragonal phase.

246	the MASZN-1, MASZN-2, MASZN-3 and MASZN-4 were 92.7, 86.3, 95.4 and 53.8
247	$m^2\ g^{\text{-1}},$ respectively. These average pore sizes in Table 1 are consistent with the
248	above-mentioned TEM experimental data. The pore volumes of the corresponding
249	calcined materials decreased after the incorporation of the sulfate group, as shown in
250	Table 1 (entries 5-8). Thus, the surface areas as well as the pore volumes of the
251	calcined matrices decreased upon sulfate integration, which can be attributed to the
252	dispersion of sulfate groups on the surface of the porous framework. Moreover, a kind
253	of pore blocking can also occur. ⁴⁴ Material MASZN-3 acid site concentration of 0.165
254	mmol/g was estimated using the NH ₃ -TPD. The higher acid site concentration of
255	MASZN-3 could be attributed to a high external surface area because of the tiny
256	nanoparticle morphology, large pore size, and high pore volume that expose a larger
257	number of acid sites at the surface of the material, comparing with other MASZN
258	materials.

						• • • [a]
	Entry	Sample type	Surface area	Pore volume	Average pore	Acid concentration ^{erg}
			$[m^2g^{-1}]$	$[cm^3g^{-1}]$	size [nm]	[mmol/g]
	1	MAZN-1	124.2	0.283	5.91	0.032
	2	MAZN-2	113.7	0.245	4.39	0.027
	3	MAZN-3	102.8	0.214	4.36	0.018
	4	MAZN-4	66.5	0.101	4.10	0.022
	5	MASZN-1	92.7	0.175	5.73	0.124
	6	MASZN-2	86.3	0.134	4.57	0.137
	7	MASZN-3	95.4	0.203	4.19	0.165
	8	MASZN-4	53.8	0.127	4.82	0.110

Table 1. Physico-chemical properties of mesoscopic-assembly zirconia and sulfated zirconia
 nanoparticles.

261 [a] Acid concentration values were determined through NH₃-TPD.

FTIR spectroscopy. The IR spectra of the calcined and sulfated MASZN are shown in Fig. 4. The absence of bands at approximately v = 2854 and approximately 2925 cm^{-1} in these samples, which are ascribed to the symmetric and asymmetric vibrations of the C-H groups, indicated the complete removal of SDS molecules after calcination.

RSC Advances Accepted Manuscript

A broad band in the range of $3000 \sim 3600 \text{cm}^{-1}$ and 1620cm^{-1} can be assigned to asymmetric OH stretching vibrations of the adsorbed water molecule, respectively.⁴⁵



268

Fig. 4. FTIR spectra of the sulfated samples: (a) MASZN-1, (b) MASZN-2, (c) MASZN-3 and (d)
MASZN-4. In the inset, the FTIR spectra of MASZN-3 ranging from n=1800 to 600 cm⁻¹ are
shown.

The spectral feature ranging from v = 1400 to 900 cm⁻¹ was very important in 272 characterizing the presence of sulfate moieties in MASZN, and all MASZN materials 273 274 exhibited almost similar spectral features. Vibrational bands are observed attributable to v_s (S-O) at 1010, v_{as} (S-O) at 1128, and v_{as} (S=O) at 1380 cm⁻¹, consistent with 275 bidentate or tridentate $SO_4^{2-.46,47}$ This spectral investigation described the integration 276 277 of sulfate moieties into the ZrO₂ nanoparticles. The partial ionic nature of the S-O bonds was responsible for the strong Brønsted acidity of the sulfate-modified ZrO₂ 278 nanoparticles.48 The non-surface MAZN samples were also investigated by FTIR 279 spectroscopy (see ESI⁺, Figure S4). When the mesoporous ZrO₂ samples were 280 directly calcined at 600 °C without introducing any sulfate ions, it shows only broad 281 absorption bands in the range of 500-650 and 990-1250 cm⁻¹ without any clear peaks 282

related to the sulfate groups. The high surface area of the mesoporous MAZN facilitated the integration of the sulfate functionality to a suitable extent within its framework; hence, acid-catalyzed reactions were accelerated.

Acidity characterization by pyridine-IR spectroscopy and NH₃-TPD. In order to gain more information about acid sites on the surface of these sulfate catalysts, the infrared spectra of pyridine adsorbed on the MASZN samples were recorded and the results were shown in Fig. 5. In the pyridine-adsorption FT-IR spectrum, four peaks



290

Fig. 5. FTIR spectra of pyridine adsorbed over MASZN: (a) MASZN-1, (b) MASZN-2, (c)
MASZN-3 and (d)MASZN-4.

were observed in the region between $1400 \sim 1600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ due to C–C stretching 293 vibrations of pyridine. The peak at 1450cm⁻¹ was assigned to pyridine adsorbed on 294 Lewis acid sites; the peak at 1540 cm⁻¹ and 1640 cm⁻¹ are characteristic of pyridine 295 adsorbed on Brønsted acid sites,⁴⁹ whereas the band at 1495~1500 cm⁻¹ is normally 296 297 attributed to a combination band associated with both B- and L-sites. The results 298 indicate that catalysts MASZN have Lewis-Brønsted acid sites simultaneously. 299 NH₃-TPD experiments were conducted to determine the relative strengths of acid sites 300 of MASZN-3 (see ESI⁺, Figure S1). In this profile, a major desorption occurred

RSC Advances Accepted Manuscript

between 250 to 500 °C, and one broad peak centered at 355 °C was observed. 301 302 Compared to the desorption peak observed for sulfated zirconia supported over mesoporous silica at 257 °C,50 our self-assembled mesoporous sulfated zirconia 303 sample showed a peak at much higher temperature (355 °C). This peak (TCD signal 304 305 maxima) can be assigned because of the formation of strongly bound (chemisorbed) 306 ammonia on highly acidic sulfated zirconia surface.

307 **3.2.** Catalytic study



3.2.1Dehydration of fructose over MAZN and MASZN. 308

310

311 Fig. 6. Fructose transformation into HMF using mesoscopic assembly zirconia and sulfated 312 zirconia nanoparticles as catalysts. Reaction conditions: initial reactant (1 mmol), catalysts (10 313 mg), solvents system DMSO (3 mL), 110 °C.

314 The catalytic dehydration of fructose to HMF in DMSO using MAZN and MASZN 315 as catalysts at 110°C was investigated. Fig. 6 shows the reaction results of the MAZN 316 and MASZN samples varying the molar ratio of X ZrO_2/Y SDS/ Z H₂O,

317 respectively. Obviously, catalytic performance of the catalysts was noticeably affected 318 by the morlar ratio of precursors. The MAZN-1 and MASZN-3 have the superior 319 performance in conversion of fructose into HMF among the series of MAZN materials. When the reaction was carried out at 110 °C, the results showed that the 320 321 catalyst MASZN-3 gave the highest yield of HMF, which is closely related 322 with its structure and surface acidity. The sample MASZN-3 is mesoporous, and it has 323 the higher BET surface area and the highest concentration of acid sites (entry 7, Table 324 1). The Fig. 6 (c) also indicates that HMF yield monotonously increases with the 325 reaction time, attaining the maximum value of 91.9% after 120 min. Nevertheless, 326 higher reaction times barely improve the formation of HMF, possibly due to the 327 preferential formation of soluble polymers and humins, as well as the deposition of 328 residues formed from intermediates condensation on the active sites.

329 *3.2.2 Effect of reaction temperature and MASZN-3 loading on dehydration.*



Fig. 7. (a) Effect of the reaction temperature on the yield of HMF from the dehydration of fructose catalyzed by MASZN-3. Conditions: fructose(1 mmol), DMSO (3 mL), MASZN-3 weight (10mg); (b) Results of the experiment into the dosage of MASZN-3 on the direct transformation of fructose into HMF in DMSO. Conditions: fructose (1 mmol), DMSO (3 mL), T = 110 °C, reaction time: all reactions were performed at the same catalyst space time; blue bar: HMF yield, red bar: Fructose conversion.

337 Temperature and dosage of catalyst as the most critical parameters were initially

338 investigated in the systematic evaluation process. To confirm the best conditions, the 339 degradation of fructose in DMSO media was studied. Firstly, the influence of the 340 temperature on the catalytic reaction has been evaluated by using the MASZN-3 341 catalyst. The catalytic results reflect that HMF yield rises with increase of temperature and time at first, achieving a value close to 92% at 110 °C (Fig. 7 a). Then the drastic 342 343 decreasing in HMF yield from 110 to 130 °C can be explained by the rapid formation 344 of humins on the catalyst surface, thus covering some acid sites and limiting the 345 transformation of fructose; in fact, the catalyst became brown after 20 min of reaction 346 at the highest temperature (130 $^{\circ}$ C). As is shown in Fig. 7 a, both too high temperature 347 and too long time were not conducive to the stability of HMF due to the sidereaction. 348 The highest yield of HMF was 91.9% obtained at 110 °C for 120 min. From these date, 349 110 °C was considered as optimal reaction temperature to study other parameters of 350 the catalytic process.

351 Next, the influence of the MASZN-3 loading at 110 °C for 120 min was evaluated. 352 The variation of the amount of catalyst (5-15mg) shows that the fructose conversion 353 barely improves with increasing MASZN-3 loading, possibly as a consequence of the 354 higher activity of MASZN-3 in conversion of fructose in DMSO (Fig. 7 b). When the dosage of MASZN-3 was 10 mg, the rection time was setted as 2h. The other 355 356 reactions would be conducted at the same catalyst space time (e.g. for double the 357 amount of catalyst taking half the reaction time). Initially, the HMF yield augments 358 with the increase of catalyst weight. However, when the loading of MASZN-3 is 359 above 10 mg, the HMF yield begins to monotonically decrease, while the dosage of 360 MASZN-3 increases, thus meaning that the increased amounts of catalyst has not 361 facilitated the transformation of fructose into HMF but into undesired products such 362 as soluble polymers and humins.

363 *3.2.3 HMF synthesis from various substrates*

364	The promising catalytic activity of the mesoporous MASZN for fructose
365	dehydration has prompted us to test the effectiveness of this catalyst for HMF
366	synthesis from glucose and other carbohydrate such as sucrose, inulin in [AMIM]Cl.
367	The reaction conditions of glucose, sucrose, inulin dehydration reactions and
368	corresponding HMF yields, conversions and HMF selectivity were summarized in
369	Table 2. Under comparable reaction conditions, MASZN-3 catalyzed reaction in
370	DMSO from fructose produced 72.8%, 91.9%, and 73.7% HMF for various reaction
371	time, respectively (entry 1-3, Table 2). These results clearly indicates that mesoporous
372	MASZN-3 is an effective catalyst for HMF synthesis from fructose. Several
373	experiments were designed for screening the catalytic effectiveness of various
374 375	Table 2. Conversion, yield and product selectivity following sugars dehydration over mesoscopic assembly zirconia and sulfated zirconia nanoparticles. ^[a]

Entry	Substrate	Catalysis	<i>t</i> (min)	$T(^{\circ}C)$	Conversion/%	HMF	HMF
						yield/% ^[b]	selectivity/%
1	Fructose	MASZN-3	30	110	97.1	72.8	75.0
2	Fructose	MASZN-3	120	110	98.5	91.9	92.9
3	Fructose	MASZN-3	180	110	99.6	73.7	74.0
4	Glucose	MASZN-1	60	120	42.6	5.6	13.1
5	Glucose	MASZN-2	60	120	67.8	15.4	22.7
6	Glucose	MASZN-3	60	120	45.2	7.4	16.3
7	Glucose	MASZN-4	60	120	49.5	9.2	18.6
8	Sucrose	MASZN-3	180	120	98.8	43.7	44.2
9	Inulin	MASZN-3	120	110	95.3	54.8	57.5

[a] Conditions: initial reactant (1 mmol), each catalyst is 10mg; solvent of fructose is DMSO (3
mL); solvent of other sugar is [AMIM]Cl (3 mL).

378 [b] HMF yield was equal to mol (HMF) / mol (total monomer).

MASZN catalysts for HMF production from glucose in [AMIM]Cl, and MASZN-2 was regarded as the optimized catalyst, leading to 67.8% of glucose conversion, 15.4% of HMF yield and 22.7% of HMF selectivity; this activity could be assigned to the participation of the Lewis and Brønsted acid sites. When MASZN-3 acted as catalyst, 43.7% and 54.8% HMF yields were achieved from sucrose and inulin dehydration in

RSC Advances Accepted Manuscript

Page 20 of

[AMIM]Cl, respectively. Under identical reaction conditions, glucose dehydration
reaction produced less HMF than that of surcose dehydration reaction. The probable
reason is that sucrose is a disaccharide consisting of glucose and fructose, and only the
ketose product (frucose) could efficiently convert into HMF.

388 *3.2.4 Catalyst recycles.*

The stability of the MASZN catalysts as well as the heterogeneous nature of the catalysis were tested by recycling the catalyst. The hot filtration of a MASZN-3 catalyst solution in optimized reaction conditions allowed the separation of the solid catalyst, which was then reused with fresh reagents in the same reaction conditions.



Fig. 8. (a) HMF yields in various runs, upon catalyst recycling for transformation of fructose with
DMSO by using sulfated MASZN-3 catalyst. (b) Recyclability study of the MASZN-3 catalyst for
the conversition of fructose. Reaction conditions: fructose (1 mmol), catalysts (10 mg), solvents
system DMSO (3 mL), 110 °C.

No loss of catalytic activity was observed. After each catalytic run the catalyst was recovered by filtration, washed thoroughly with methanol, and drying in an oven at 373 K overnight. The catalyst was subsequently activated at 473 K for 4 h under air flow, and was then utilized for the following reaction. In all four consecutive catalytic runs, the HMF yield remained constant at about 90–92% for 2h, as shown in Fig. 8 a. Otherwise, the loss of activity of the catalyst, in terms of conversion of fructose, after four cycles was negligible (Fig. 8 b). The loss of activity was mainly caused by the

formation of carbon deposition on the catalyst surface. This clearly demonstrates that the catalytic performance of the MASZN-3 is preserved in the consecutive runs, and that the catalyst system is highly suitable for reuse. Thus, the sulfated mesoporous MASZN described herein have a great potential to be used as a stable and highly active recyclable solid acid catalyst in biomass dehydration.

410 **4. Conclusions**

In summary, we have presented a synthesis route for mesoscopically assembled 411 412 sulfated zirconia nanoparticles with an average diameter of ca. 5.0 nm and high 413 crystalline pore walls of mesoscopic order through evaporation-induced self-assembly 414 method using SDS as the template. The presence of sulfonic acid groups and Lewis 415 acidic ZrO₂ in the material has been confirmed by FTIR and pyridine-desorption 416 FTIR spectroscopy, NH₃ temperature-programmed desorption, XRD, FESEM, TEM, 417 and N_2 adsorption/desorption. The total surface acid density of MASZN-3 was 0.165 418 mmol/g. The material shows a good catalytic activity for the dehydration of 419 biomass-derived glucose, surcose, and inulin to 5-hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF), 420 which enables maximum yields of 21.5, 43.7, and 54.8%, respectively, in a 421 [AMIM]Cl solvent system. MASZN-3 catalyst has demonstrated to be the most active, exhibiting high fructose conversion (98.5%) and HMF yield (91.9%) at 110 °C and 422 423 after 120min of reaction time in DMSO. The recyclability experiments show that the 424 catalyst retained full activity after four consecutive cycles, and the loss in activity, in 425 terms of HMF yield, was only 2%. These newly discovered mesoscopically assembled 426 sulfated zirconia nanoparticles for biomass conversion open up a new avenue of cost 427 effective biomass refinery processes toward the production of affordable biochemicals and biofuels. 428

429 **5. Acknowledgements**

430	The	authors are grateful to the National Natural Science Foundation of China			
431	(21206057), the Natural Science Foundation of Jiangsu Province, China (BK2012118)				
432	and (BK2012547), and MOE & SAFEA for the 111 Project (B13025) for financial				
433	suppor	rt.			
434	6. Re	ference			
435	1.	YS. Jang, B. Kim, J. H. Shin, Y. J. Choi, S. Choi, C. W. Song, J. Lee, H.G.			
436		Park, S. Y. Lee, Biotechnol. Bioeng., 2012, 109, 2437.			
437	2.	A. I. Rushdi, K. F. Al-Mutlaq, S. K. Sasmal and B. R. T. Simoneit, Fuel, 2013,			
438		103 , 970.			
439	3.	D. M. Alonso, J. Q. Bond and J. A. Dumesic, Green Chem., 2010, 12, 1493.			
440	4.	P. N. Vennestrom, C. M. Osmundsen, C. H. Christensen and E. Taarning,			
441		Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl., 2011, 50, 10502.			
442	5.	A. Corma, S. Iborra and A. Velty, Chem. Rev. 2007, 107, 2411.			
443	6.	P. Daorattanachai, P. Khemthong, N. Viriya-empikul, N. Laosiripojana and K.			
444		Faungnawakij, Carbohydr. Res., 2012, 363, 58.			
445	7.	S. Singh, M. A. Nahil, X. Sun, C. Wu, J. Chen, B. Shen and P. T. Williams,			
446		<i>Fuel</i> , 2013, 105 , 585.			
447	8.	A. J. Ragauskas, C. K. Williams, B. H. Davison, G. Britovsek, J. Cairney, C. A.			
448		Eckert, W. J. Frederick Jr., J. P. Hallett, D. J. Leak, C. L. Liotta, J. R. Mielenz,			
449		R. Murphy, R. Templer and T. Tschaplinski, Science, 2006, 311, 484.			
450	9.	J. Lewkowski, ARKIVOC, 2001, p, 17.			
451	10.	Y. Román-Leshkov, J. N. Chheda and J. A. Dumesic, Science, 2006, 312,			
452		1933.			
453	11.	G. Tian, R. Daniel, H. Li, H. Xu, S. Shuai and P. Richards, Energy Fuels, 2010,			
454		24 , 3898.			

21

- 455 12. S. Zhong, R. Daniel, H. Xu, J. Zhang, D. Turner, M. L. Wyszynski and P.
 456 Richards, *Energy Fuels*, 2010, 24, 2891.
- J. P. Lange, E. van der Heide, J. van Buijtenen and R. Price, *ChemSusChem*,
 2012, 5, 150.
- 459 14. M. J. Climent, A. Corma and S. Iborra, *Green Chem.*, 2014, 16, 516.
- 460 15. J.B. Binder and R. T. Raines, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 2009, 131, 1979.
- 461 16. T. Wang, M. W. Nolte and B. H. Shanks, *Green Chem.*, 2014, 16, 548.
- 462 17. H. Yan, Y. Yang, D. Tong, X. Xiang and C. Hu, *Catal. Commun.*, 2009, 10,
 463 1558.
- 464 18. Q. Zhao, L. Wang, S. Zhao, X. Wang and S. Wang, *Fuel*, 2011, 90, 2289.
- 465 19. H. Zhao, J. E. Holladay, H. Brown and Z. C. Zhang, *Science*, 2007, **316**, 1597.
- 466 20. M. Dashtban, A. Gilbert and P. Fatehi, RSC Advances, 2014, 4, 2037.
- 467 21. R. Liu, J. Chen, X. Huang, L. Chen, L. Ma and X. Li, *Green Chem.*, 2013, 15,
 468 2895.
- 469 22. Y.-N. Li, J.-Q. Wang, L.-N. He, Z.-Z. Yang, A.-H. Liu, B. Yu and C.-R. Luan,
 470 *Green Chem.*, 2012, 14, 2752.
- 471 23. Z. Kelemen, O. Hollóczki, J. Nagyc and L. Nyulászi, *Org. Biomol. Chem.*,
 472 2011, 9, 5362.
- 473 24. J. O. Metzger, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed., 2006, 45, 696.
- T. Buntara, S. Noel, P. H. Phua, I. Melian-Cabrera, J. G. de Vries and H. J.
 Heeres, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl.*, 2011, 50, 7083.
- 476 26. J. González-Rivera, I. R. Galindo-Esquivel, M. Onor, E. Bramanti, I. Longo
 477 and C. Ferrari, *Green Chem.*, 2014, 16, 1417.
- 478 27. A. J. Crisci, M. H. Tucker, M.-Y. Lee, S. G. Jang, J. A. Dumesic and S. L.
 479 Scott, *ACS Catalysis*, 2011, 1, 719.

- 480 28. J. Chen, K. Li, L. Chen, R. Liu, X. Huang and D. Ye, *Green Chem.*, 2014, 16,
 481 2490.
- 482 29. S. Zhao, M. Cheng, J. Li, J. Tian and X. Wang, *Chem Commun (Camb)*, 2011,
 483 47, 2176.
- 484 30. C.-H. Kuo, A. S. Poyraz, L. Jin, Y. Meng, L. Pahalagedara, S.-Y. Chen, D. A.
 485 Kriz, C. Guild, A. Gudz and S. L. Suib, *Green Chem.*, 2014, 16, 785.
- 486 31. X. Qi, H. Guo, L. Li and R. L. Smith, Jr., ChemSusChem, 2012, 5, 2215.
- 487 32. A. Osatiashtiani, A. F. Lee, D. R. Brown, J. A. Melero, G. Morales and K.
 488 Wilson, *Catalysis Science & Technology*, 2014, 4, 333.
- 489 33. T. Wang, Y. J. Pagán-Torres, E. J. Combs, J. A. Dumesic and B. H. Shanks,
 490 *Top. Catal.*, 2012, 55, 657.
- 491 34. J. B. Joo, A. Vu, Q. Zhang, M. Dahl, M. Gu, F. Zaera and Y. Yin,
 492 *ChemSusChem*, 2013, 6, 2001.
- 493 35. E. Nikolla, Y. Román-Leshkov, M. Moliner and M. E. Davis, *ACS Catalysis*,
 494 2011, 1, 408.
- 495 36. A. S. Deshpande, N. Pinna, P. Beato, M. Antonietti and M. Niederberger,
 496 *Chem. Mater.* 2004, 16, 2599.
- 497 37. H. Z. Cui, J. Q. Sun and Y. Wang, *Materials Review*, 2009, 23, 138.
- 498 38. H. Chen, J. Shi, Z. Liu, J. Gao, M. Ruan and D. Yan, *Adv. Mater.*, 2005, 17,
 499 2010.
- 500 39. B. M. Reddy, P. M. Sreekanth and P. Lakshmanan, J. Mol. Catal. A: Chem.,
 501 2005, 237, 93.
- 502 40. J. R. Sohn, T.-D. Kwon and S.-B. Kim, *Bull. Korean Chem. Soc.*, 2001, 22, 1309.
- 504 41. Y.-S Hsu, Y.-L. Wang and A.-N. Ko, J. Chin. Chem. Soc., 2009, 56, 314.

- 505 42. C. M. Vera Bolis, Marco Volante, Luciana Orio and Bice Fubini, *Langrnuir*506 1990, 6, 695.
- 507 43. V. Bolis and G. C., Giuliana Magnacca and Claudio Morterra, *Thermochimica*508 *Acta*, 1998, **312**, 63.
- 509 44. M. K. Bhunia, S. K. Das, P. Pachfule, R. Banerjee and A. Bhaumik, *Dalton*510 *Trans.*, 2012, **41**, 1304.
- 511 45. S. K. Das, M. K. Bhunia, M. Motin Seikh, S. Dutta and A. Bhaumik, *Dalton*512 *Trans.*, 2011, 40, 2932.
- 513 46. S. J. HUG, J. Colloid Interface Sci., 1997, 188, 415.
- 514 47. F. Haase and J. Sauer, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 1998, 120, 13503.
- 515 48. T. Yamaguchi, T. Jin and K. Tanabe, J. Phys. Chem., 1986, 90, 3148.
- 516 49. F. Babou, G. coudurier and J. C. Vedrine, J. Catal., 1995, 152, 341.
- 517 50. X.-R. Chen, Y.-H. Ju and C.-Y. Mou, J. Phys. Chem. C, 2007, 111, 18731.
- 518
- 519
- 520