

Low temperature supercritical water gasification of biomass constituents: glucose/phenol mixtures

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Abstract

Supercritical water gasification (SCWG) is an interesting technology for the production of energy from wet and residual biomass. To date, the complete understanding of the fundamental phenomena involved in SCWG is still an open issue. An interesting aspect to be investigated is represented by the interactions among the single constituents of biomass, such as cellulose and lignin. This can be accomplished by using glucose and phenol as model compounds. In the present study, four glucose/phenol mixtures were utilized. All mixtures presented a constant organics concentrations of 5 wt. %, where the relative phenol content ranged from 0 wt. % (pure glucose) to 30 wt. %. The mixtures were gasified at 400 °C and 25.0 MPa in a continuous tubular reactor, with a residence time between 10 and 240 s. Results showed that, at the considered reaction conditions, phenol mostly behaves as a sort of inert in terms of total gas production, although it plays an inhibitory action towards H₂. The analysis of the liquid phase revealed that phenol likely inhibits Cannizzaro and de-carbonylation reactions and it advantages the pathways involving de-hydration reactions.

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1. Introduction

Biomass, that is every material resulting from a living being, is an interesting feedstock which can be used for the chemistry of tomorrow. A large part of world’s available biomass is wet, with a moisture content even higher than 70% [1]. This is the case, for example, of many residual materials deriving from agriculture and agro-industry. Traditional thermochemical technologies, such as combustion, gasification and pyrolysis, are not suitable for such kind of feedstock. Indeed, they require a dry material in order to reduce the energy needs of the operations and, thus, to ensure the economic sustainability of the whole process [2]. The only possibility for the energy conversion of wet biomass is currently represented by biochemical processes (e.g. anaerobic digestion), relying on microorganisms to produce biogas. Although biochemical technologies are quite popular, their efficiency is limited, since they are only effective for the fraction of bio-materials that can be degraded by bacteria.

A possible solution for the energy valorization of wet biomass is offered by supercritical water gasification (SCWG) [3]. SCWG involves the reaction of biomass with water at supercritical state, that is at a temperature higher than 374.1 °C and at a pressure above 22.1 MPa. Under these conditions, water exhibits a very peculiar behavior, with properties intermediate between those of liquids and gases. Moreover, the dielectric constant of water reduces significantly [4], thus enabling it to dissolve also non-polar compounds. A very homogeneous reaction environment can thus be established, with chemical processes taking place in a single, supercritical phase. This is highly beneficial for reaction rates, and it ensures high gas yields, avoiding the formation of unwanted compounds like char and tar [5].

In the literature, a number of studies have been presented, concerning several different biomass feedstock [6-10]. One difficulty of conducting experimental studies with biomass is represented by

1 the high heterogeneity of such material. Indeed, biomass composition is potentially highly variable,
2 including an exceptionally large number of organic compounds. Such aspect represents a strong
3 limitation for the study of the fundamentals of the process. In order to overcome such issue, a
4 common approach is to utilize standardized model compounds, able to mimic the constituents of
5 real biomass. In this way, it is possible to achieve a fixed and controlled composition, allowing for
6 an easier observation of the basic phenomena involved in SCWG. Cellulose and lignin, that is the
7 main constituents of ligno-cellulosic biomass, have been often schematized through glucose [11-15]
8 and phenol [16], respectively. Indeed, glucose is the monomer of cellulose, while phenol represents
9 one of the constituting building blocks of lignin. Other sugars were also adopted, especially as
10 model compounds of hemicelluloses [17, 18]. Protein-containing biomass (e.g. animal residues or
11 algae) has been modeled through amino acids, like glycine [19].

12 Glucose and phenol could be thus considered as model compounds for the main constituents of
13 ligno-cellulosic biomass. Through such schematization, it is also possible to investigate the mutual
14 effects played by the different biomass constituents. This is a fundamental issue: indeed, since
15 biomass is an agglomerate of several compounds, it is useful to understand the interactions taking
16 place among such constituents. Among the works showing the interactions among different biomass
17 constituents, a first example is provided by the work by Goodwin and Rorrer: the authors gasified
18 xylose and phenol in a micro-structured device [17]. Another example is represented by the work by
19 Yoshida and Matsumura [18], where ternary mixtures of cellulose, xylan and lignin were gasified.

20 As far as glucose/phenol mixtures are concerned, a fundamental work is represented by the
21 experimental tests by Weiss-Hortala et al. [20]. In this work, the authors gasified water solutions of
22 glucose and phenol at 1 wt. % at different temperatures, ranging from 450 °C to 550 °C, in the
23 presence of K₂CO₃ catalyst. They observed that, compared to the single compounds, the SCWG of
24 their mixture gave a gas yield lower than their sum: in other words, phenol was observed to play an
25 inhibitory effect on glucose gasification, which was attributed to the activity of phenol as a free
26 radical scavenger. Some issues are still open. First of all, it is interesting to observe how the same

1 system would behave at lower SCWG temperatures, where radical pathways are competing with
2 ionic ones [21]. Furthermore, it would be important to evaluate the effect of increasing phenol
3 concentrations on the gasification yields. Finally, a systematic analysis of both gaseous and liquid
4 products at varying residence times would give precious information about the reaction pathways
5 involved.

6 In the present work, the gasification of glucose/phenol mixtures was carried out in a continuous
7 tubular reactor. Four different glucose/phenol mixtures were adopted, with increasing phenol
8 content but with the same overall organics concentration (5 wt. %). The tests were conducted at 400
9 °C, at a pressure of 25.0 MPa, with residence times ranging from 10 to 240 s. Gaseous and liquid
10 products were sampled and then characterized by means of analytical chemistry techniques.
11 Possible reaction schemes were sketched on the basis of the analytical results.

12

13 **2. Materials and methods**

14 In the present section, details are given about the experimental apparatus (Section 2.1) and the
15 analytic procedures utilized to characterize the reaction products (Section 2.2).

16

17 **2.1 The experimental apparatus**

18 The apparatus utilized is a continuous system for SCWG, based on a heated pressurized tubular
19 reactor. A scheme of the plant is depicted in Figure 1.

20

21 Figure 1

22

23 The plant was fed by a bottle filled with the water solution to be gasified (glucose and phenol in
24 different relative concentrations). The liquid was pumped by means of a HPLC (high performance
25 liquid chromatography) pump to the desired pressure of 25.0 MPa and passed through a pre-heater,

1 constituted by three electrical resistors of 250 W each. Control loops, involving thermocouples and
2 PID controllers, allowed holding the temperature of each resistor at the constant value of 250 °C.
3 After the pre-heater, the reacting mixture entered the reactor, constituted by a tube of stainless steel
4 (length: 320 mm; internal diameter: 8.2 mm). The reactor was placed inside a heater constituted by
5 a ceramic shell with four electrical resistors of 500 W each. This heating element was able to
6 increase the temperature of the fluid up to the reaction conditions (400 °C). Inside the tube, a K-
7 type thermocouple, located at approximately 150 mm along the axis of the reactor, was used to read
8 the inner temperature.

9 After reaction, the products were cooled down to room temperature by means of a cooling loop.
10 Then, a back-pressure valve (TESCOM® 26-1721-24A) expanded the products to atmospheric
11 pressure. The whole pressure control loop consisted of a digital manometer reading the reactor
12 pressure, a controller, and the back-pressure valve driven by compressed air at a variable pressure.
13 The loop allowed to keep the reactor pressure at the desired set point value (25.0 MPa). After
14 expansion, a three-way valve allowed selecting the desired output (liquid or gaseous) for sampling
15 (see Section 2.2).

16 Four different aqueous glucose/phenol mixtures were considered for the experiments. All of them
17 were characterized by a constant concentration in organics of 5 wt. %, the remaining part being
18 Milli-Q water. The composition in organics of each mixture was varied, with the relative fraction of
19 phenol ranging from 0% to 30%: Table 1. Glucose monohydrate (Merck KGaA, Germany) and
20 phenol for synthesis with purity higher than 99% (Merck-Schuchardt, Germany) were utilized for
21 preparing the mixtures.

22

23 Table 1

24

1 The tests were executed at different residence times (10, 20, 40, 60, 120, 180, 240 s) by varying the
2 flow rate of the HPLC pump. The residence time τ was calculated as the ratio between the mass of
3 the mixture inside the reactor, and the mass flow fed to the reactor:

$$4 \quad \tau = \frac{\rho V}{W} \quad (1)$$

5 Where ρ is the density of water at 400 °C and 25.0 MPa (166.5 kg m⁻³ [22]), V is the reactor volume
6 and W is the mass flow delivered by the pump. For sake of simplicity, the residence time was
7 calculated as that of pure water. Such simplification is reasonable, since the investigated mixtures
8 are considerably diluted.

9 During the start-up phase, the plant was run with pure water, put under pressure, and then very
10 slowly heated-up to the desired reaction temperature. This procedure was adopted in order to
11 prevent the risk of organics polymerization during the heat-up phase, which could cause rapid
12 reactor clogging.

13 Only after the temperature had been reached (usually after 1-2 h), the feed was switched from pure
14 water to glucose/phenol solution by means of a three-way valve. After that, a running time between
15 20 and 150 min, depending on the flow rate, was adopted before sampling, in order to allow the
16 system to reach steady-state conditions.

17

18 **2.2 Sampling and measuring procedures**

19 Product sampling at ambient temperature and pressure was performed by means of a three-way
20 valve placed at the end of the outlet pipe. If the gaseous products were required, the outlet pipe was
21 directed into a bottle filled of water, with a cylinder inside. The gaseous products were then bubbled
22 inside such cylinder, where they gathered and then they were sampled by means of a gas trap. When
23 liquid products were required, the outlet pipe was simply allowed pouring inside the sampling vials,
24 where around 20 ml of liquid products were sampled.

1 First, gas flow rate was measured by means of a water gasometer. By using this device in
2 combination with a chronometer, the time required to produce a fixed volume of gas was measured,
3 thus obtaining the gas flow rate. For each experimental run, such measure was repeated at least four
4 times in order to ensure its reproducibility.

5 After that, the three-way valve was switched and the liquid started dropping inside a sampling vial,
6 allowing a straightforward sampling. The amount of residual phenol in the liquid phase was
7 determined by means of a HPLC device (VWR-Hitachi), equipped with a column Phenomenex
8 Kinetex PFP[®] and a detector DAD. The determination of the residual glucose and fructose was
9 made by using an enzymatic test (R-Biopharm[®]), according to DIN 10381. Organic acids, alcohols
10 and aldehydes were measured through HPLC Rezex[®], while furfurals were characterized through
11 HPLC Merck-Hitachi[®], with a column Merck LiChroCART[®] 250-4, equipped with a UV detector.
12 HPLC measures were characterized by a confidence level of $\pm 5\%$. In order to obtain an overall
13 estimate of the organics in the liquid phase, total organic carbon (TOC) was determined by means
14 of the TOC analyzer DimaTOC[®] 2000 (Dimatec, Germany).

15

16 **3. Results and discussion**

17 The results of the SCWG tests are shown in the present section. Section 3.1 presents the results
18 relative to the gaseous phase, while Section 3.2 shows the results concerning the analysis of the
19 liquid products. In Section 3.3 a simplified reaction mechanism is reported.

20

21 **3.1 Gaseous products**

22 The results concerning the production of gases are reported in Figure 2.

23

24 Figure 2

25

1 Gas production generally increases with residence time. This is the result of the ongoing conversion
2 of liquid substances into gaseous products, due to the gasification reactions. Although the overall
3 trend is always increasing, two different trends can be clearly individuated for all the four mixtures.
4 In a first stage, that is up to a residence time of 40 s, the rate of gas production is very high. The
5 production of gas is maximum in the case of glucose alone and it diminishes as the phenol content
6 of the mixture increases. Mixture M0 provides a specific gas production of approximately 80 mL/g,
7 while the mixture M30 reaches a value which is around the half (about 40 mL/g). A second stage is
8 then observed, for residence times above 40 s. In the case of glucose, gas production remains
9 practically stable at around 80 mL/g. For all the other mixtures, a moderate increase occurs. Such
10 increase is slight for M10 (from 63.5 to 73.4 mL/g), and it is more relevant for the other mixtures:
11 for M30, gas production increases from 42.6 mL/g to 60.0 mL/g.

12 The effect of phenol addition on gas production is evident. A higher phenol content results in a
13 reduced gas production (Figure 2a).

14 Therefore, does phenol simply not yield significant amounts of gases, and therefore it can be
15 considered as a sort of inert, or does it play a real inhibitory effect on glucose gasification?

16 In order to obtain such information, in Figure 2b the production of gases is referred to the sole
17 amount of glucose fed: the trends look very different from those of Figure 2a. The four curves are
18 indeed much more grouped and sometimes they also overlap. The experimental points relevant to
19 the mixture with only glucose testify a slightly higher initial gas production with respect to the
20 others. From 120 s onward, the experimental points almost overlap.

21 Thus, phenol seems to behave as a sort of inert in terms of syngas production. More precisely,
22 without excluding the possibility that some reactions involving phenol could produce gases, phenol
23 is preferably converted into other liquid intermediates (see Section 3.2 and [16]).

24 In Figure 3, the production of the most representative gaseous species, that is H₂, CH₄, CO and
25 CO₂, is presented. Data are expressed as moles of gas per unit glucose fed and are based on total gas
26 production and gas composition.

1

2 Figure 3

3

4 In all the plots of Figure 3, the two stages of gasification are evident: one characterized by high
5 production rates and the other where gas production is more contained. All the four gaseous
6 molecules analyzed reflect such behavior, though with some significant differences.

7 The H₂ trend exhibits some peculiar aspects (Figure 3a). Here, the four investigated mixtures
8 behave in a considerably different way. Mixture M0 yields all H₂ in the first stage of gasification.

9 The H₂ production is much higher for M0 than the other mixtures. After 60 s, pure glucose yields
10 around 440 mmol_{H₂}/kg_{glucose}, while the other three mixtures yield around 200 mmol_{H₂}/kg_{glucose}.

11 Nevertheless, in the second stage H₂ yields are almost constant for M0, while they increase for the
12 mixtures containing phenol. As a whole, the higher is the concentration of phenol in the feed, the
13 lower the H₂ yield. Figure 3a thus clearly shows that phenol plays an inhibitory effect on H₂
14 production or leads to H₂ consumption, in a way similar to that observed for lignin [18].

15 Such inhibitory effect can be hardly noticed for the other gaseous species. When observing the
16 production of CH₄ (Figure 3b), the four curves mostly overlap, especially in the first stage. For
17 longer residence times, a higher content of phenol in the mixture causes a higher CH₄ production:
18 such preference for CH₄ formation was also previously observed [23]. The molar production of CH₄
19 is lower than that of H₂: maximum values are in the range 100-140 mmol_{CH₄}/kg_{glucose}.

20 The highest molar yields are obtained for CO and CO₂. On a molar basis, more than 80% of the gas
21 produced consists of CO and CO₂. CO trends (Figure 3c) practically do not depend on phenol
22 concentration. On the other hand, CO₂ (Figure 3d) shows a particular trend. At the end of the first
23 stage of gasification, the lower is the phenol concentration in the feed, the higher the CO₂
24 production. Afterwards, CO₂ is still produced for M20 and M30, while for M0 and M10 the CO₂
25 production remains stable at approximately 1200 mmol_{CO₂}/ kg_{glucose}.

1 It is interesting to compare the data about gas production with equilibrium forecasts. To this
2 purpose, the thermodynamic equilibrium model presented in [24] was utilized to calculate the
3 equilibrium composition of the gas. The values are presented in Table 2, where they are compared
4 with the experimental results obtained at 240 s residence time.

5

6 Table 2

7

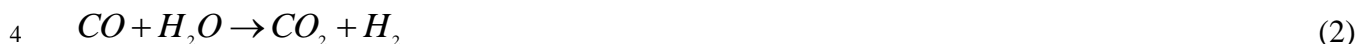
8 The thermodynamic equilibrium model foresees that the whole mixture fed is converted into
9 permanent gases. The experimental data obtained are very far from such prediction, since the
10 measured gas production after 240 s is around 10 wt. % of the organics fed.

11 As far as the gas composition is concerned, relevant differences can be pointed out. No CO is
12 foreseen at equilibrium. Conversely, CO is the most relevant gaseous compound found
13 experimentally. A specular situation occurs for CH₄. According to equilibrium, its percentage
14 should be very relevant, always above 40 vol. %. Measured data reveal a concentration only slightly
15 above 3 vol. %. However, for CH₄, the results of the thermodynamic equilibrium model correctly
16 foresee the dependence on phenol content: increasing the concentration of phenol in the feed
17 enhances CH₄ production. The molar fraction of H₂ and CO₂ experimentally measured and
18 predicted at equilibrium are extremely similar. The experimental H₂ volume percentage shows
19 approximately the same dependence on phenol content as that predicted by the model: higher
20 phenol concentrations disfavor H₂ production. As far as CO₂ is concerned, model data tend to
21 slightly overestimate its production: they expect a concentration in the range 47.6 - 49.6 %, while
22 measured data oscillate from 35.9 to 44.5%.

23 The comparison with equilibrium data reveals that equilibrium is very far from being reached. Such
24 conclusion is evident (Table 2), and reinforced by the fact that a large part of the original feedstock
25 is actually converted into liquid products (see Section 3.2). The amount of CO represents the main

1 difference between experimental and model data. CO is practically not found at equilibrium, and
2 this can be explained by key reactions taking place during the process.

3 Water-gas shift (WGS) has been reported to be one of the most important reactions of SCWG:



5 It has been also stated that most H₂ obtained in SCWG is actually produced by such reaction [25].

6 The occurrence of WGS is evidently not observed in the experimental tests carried out in the
7 present work. The reason should be found in the intrinsic kinetics of such reaction. Indeed, at the
8 considered reaction conditions, the rate of WGS is very low. This was also observed in a previous
9 study by our group, where complete removal of CO among the SCWG reaction products was
10 observed only after a few hours of reaction [14]. The slow kinetics of WGS could thus explain why
11 CO is present in high amounts at the considered residence time.

12 Another reaction through which CO can be consumed is represented by CO-methanation (Eq. 3):



14 By looking at the equilibrium values displayed in Table 2, where CH₄ is reported as one of the most
15 significant products at equilibrium, it can be hypothesized that such reaction could play an
16 important role, possibly in strong relationship with WGS. However, the data of Table 2 testify that
17 CO-methanation does not occurs to a significant extent, due to the short residence time of the
18 experimental tests.

19

20 **3.2 Liquid products**

21 The liquid products include those molecules which are dissolved in the liquid phase after
22 condensation of the products from SCWG. In this treatise, they are referred as “liquid compounds”
23 even though, at reaction conditions, they are most likely found in the supercritical phase.

24 The spectrum of compounds arising from SCWG is very wide and it is practically impossible to
25 characterize each of them. Glucose and phenol, indeed, undergo reactions transforming them into

1 several other organic compounds, whose number is extremely high. However, it is possible to
2 quantify the overall amount of organics present in the liquid phase by resorting to TOC, which
3 provides the concentration of organic carbon present in that phase. In Figure 4 the TOC values are
4 reported. Since the analyses also involved the measure of some organic compounds (see Section
5 2.2), the contribution of the single compounds to the TOC is reported in Figure 4. Such operation
6 was performed by calculating, for each compound measured through the HPLC technique, its
7 contribution in terms of carbon. The part of TOC that was not possible to attribute to any of the
8 measured compounds was labeled as “unknown”.

9

10 Figure 4

11

12 For all the four mixtures, the trend of TOC decreases at increasing residence time. Time $t = 0$ refers
13 to the initial mixtures, where all the organic compounds are in the liquid phase, since the feedstock
14 is perfectly dissolved. After then, a fraction of carbon is transferred to the gaseous phase, in the
15 form of the gaseous products shown in Section 3.1. The trend of TOC mirrors that of gas
16 production: TOC removal is maximum in the first phase of SCWG, while it becomes less
17 significant as the reaction goes on. The four mixtures do not present any relevant difference, as the
18 relative conversion of TOC is approximately the same.

19 The analysis of the single species contributing to the TOC values provides interesting information.

20 Looking at Figure 4, glucose and its isomer fructose are practically never found among the reaction
21 products. The only occurrence is with M0 after 10 s of reaction time. Because of that, it is not
22 possible to draw any conclusion about the kinetics of glucose degradation, which takes place in the
23 very first seconds of reaction, as also reported in the literature [26].

24 Conversely, when phenol is utilized, it is largely found among the reaction products. Averaging all
25 the measures at different residence times ($0 < \tau \leq 240$ s), phenol represents 22% of TOC for M10,
26 39% for M20, and 54% for M30. As a matter of fact, phenol converts very slowly.

1 In Figure 5, the conversion of phenol for the three phenol-containing mixtures is reported.

2 Conversion values were calculated by means of Eq. 4:

$$3 \quad X = \frac{C_0 - C(t)}{C_0} \quad (4)$$

4

5 Figure 5

6

7 Phenol conversion increases approximately from 0.1 to 0.5 at increasing residence times. Even after

8 240 s, more than half of the phenol fed to the SCWG reactor is still found among the reaction

9 products. Phenol is very stable at the considered reaction conditions. Assuming first-order kinetics,

10 phenol conversion data can be described by the relation:

$$11 \quad X = 1 - \exp(-k\tau) \quad (5)$$

12 where k represents the kinetic constant of phenol degradation. The optimization of the value of k in

13 best fitting the experimental data allowed to obtain $k = 2.72 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$: the relevant fitting curve is

14 reported in Figure 5. Such value is in quite good agreement with those by Weiss-Hortala et al. ($k =$

15 $5.48 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$) [20] and by Yong and Matsumura ($k = 5.89 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$) [27]. In other experimental

16 works, significantly different values were obtained: it is the case of Goodwin and Rorrer ($k = 6.21 \times$

17 10^{-8} s^{-1}) [17] and Huelsman and Savage ($k = 3.83 \times 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1}$) [28]. However, in such works the

18 reaction conditions were much different from those adopted in the present study.

19 It is worth noticing that phenol can be a product of glucose degradation: phenol may indeed be

20 produced from furfurals, which are intermediates in glucose degradation reactions [29]. Such

21 behavior was actually observed here during the SCWG of pure glucose. However, the amount of

22 phenol produced was very small. In the experiments with pure glucose, the maximum concentration

23 of phenol found among the products was of approximately 57 mg/l, value which does not contribute

24 enough to the TOC to be visible in Fig. 4a. It is therefore reasonable not to consider glucose-derived

25 phenol, as it contributes in a negligible way to the total amount of phenol found after reaction.

1 Among the other gasification products, it can be observed a decrease in the aldehydes (formed in
2 the first instants of reaction), and a production of both organic acids and alcohols as the residence
3 time increases (Figure 4). It is noteworthy the occurrence of methanol, which is produced in
4 relevant amounts. Methanol alone represents 39% of TOC in the case of pure glucose. Such
5 percentage lowers when glucose/phenol mixtures are considered: 28%, 21% and 19%, for M10,
6 M20 and M30, respectively.

7 Importantly, the extent of the so-called “unknown” compounds is relatively low (Figure 4). The
8 only significant occurrence of such compounds is for reaction times from 120 s ahead, where the
9 value of “unknown” is around 20% on an average basis. Such result highlights that the choice of the
10 organic compounds to be measured (see Section 2.2) is effective, as they represent a significant part
11 of the total amount of organics found in the liquid after SCWG.

12 As far as the liquid products are concerned, it is interesting to analyze the yields of some of the
13 typical products associated with the degradation of glucose in supercritical water: Figure 6. As it
14 was done for the production of gases (Figure 3), in Figure 6 the amount of the liquid species is
15 reported in terms of moles produced per unit glucose fed.

16

17 Figure 6

18

19 Glucose degradation in supercritical water takes place by means of several pathways. According to
20 Kabyemela et al. [30], among the other reactions, glucose can undergo dehydration into 5-HMF or
21 conversion into two molecules of glyceraldehyde. In Figure 6a and 6b, 5-HMF and glyceraldehyde
22 are shown, respectively. During the first stage of gasification, 5-HMF shows a trend specular to that
23 of gas formation. At first, its concentration decreases quite fast, down to a value of approximately
24 400 mmol/kg_{glucose}. After that, it continues diminishing, but in a much slower way. A slightly higher
25 relative 5-HMF production is obtained from the mixtures where a higher phenol content is present.
26 Glyceraldehyde exhibits a quite complicated trend. Its value is maximum for pure glucose. Then,

1 when phenol is added (M10), a strong diminution of glyceraldehyde is observed. However, a further
2 increase in phenol content results in a higher glyceraldehyde production.

3 The differences in trend become more evident in the case of glycolic acid (Figure 6c). When pure
4 glucose is utilized, the trend strongly increases, showing a maximum point of 2000 mmol/kg_{glucose}
5 occurring at 120 s; after then, it decreases to a value of approximately 1000 mmol/kg_{glucose}. The
6 trend of the curves relevant to the phenol containing mixtures is completely different. In the first
7 phase, glycolic acid shows a first apparent maximum point at around 20 s and then a minimum at 40
8 s. In this phase, the three curves are practically superposed. After then, the three curves start
9 increasing in an almost linear way. The higher is the phenol content, the lower is the rate of glycolic
10 acid production, even though the differences among the three mixtures are rather reduced.

11 The production of methanol is really remarkable: Figure 6d. Methanol is the product yielded in the
12 highest amount. Its concentrations are impressive: with M0, methanol concentration reaches 22.6
13 g/L, corresponding to around 45% of the feedstock loaded. The curve exhibits the clear trend of a
14 reaction intermediate. The trend increases in the first phase, it reaches a maximum, and then it starts
15 decreasing. The mixtures with phenol generate quite similar trends, though methanol concentrations
16 are lower.

17 In Figures 6e and 6f the trends of two different organic acids are reported. Acetic acid (Figure 6e)
18 shows a trend similar to that of gas production, with a first production stage followed by a sort of
19 plateau. Acetic acid could be produced by several organic reactions and, once formed, it is quite
20 stable at 400 °C [31]. In Figure 6f, formic acid is shown. Here, the behavior is opposite to that of
21 gas production. Formic acid is produced in the earlier phase of the reaction, before 10 s, and it is
22 consumed as far as new gases are formed. It can be inferred that formic acid has an active role in
23 gas production. Actually, as it was reported by Akiya and Savage [32], at the considered
24 temperature and in the presence of water the de-carboxylation reaction is favored. Therefore, formic
25 acid decomposes mainly into H₂ and CO₂. Interestingly, the number of moles of H₂ produced
26 (Figure 3a) is comparable with the number of moles of formic acid depleted (Figure 6f), especially

1 for the mixtures with higher phenol content. This is a clue that formic acid de-carboxylation is an
2 important reaction for H₂ formation in SCWG.

3

4 **3.3 A possible reaction mechanism**

5 On the basis of the analysis of Section 3.2 and taking also into account the literature in the field [13,
6 30, 33], a simplified reaction mechanism for the degradation of glucose can be postulated. Such
7 mechanism is visually presented in Figure 7.

8

9 Figure 7

10

11 Glucose can be converted into smaller organic compounds through retro-aldol condensation. In this
12 way, erythrose and glycolaldehyde are formed. The former compound, which presents a furanic
13 ring, is the basis from which furfurals can be produced. The latter is a C₂ aldehyde, which can
14 undergo several reactions. First, it can be simply de-carbonylated into methanol. Another
15 possibility, which is common to many aldehydes in supercritical water, is represented by the
16 disproportionation reaction. Such reaction involves two aldehydes, one of which is reduced into the
17 corresponding alcohol and another one which is oxidized to the corresponding organic acid
18 (Cannizzaro reaction).

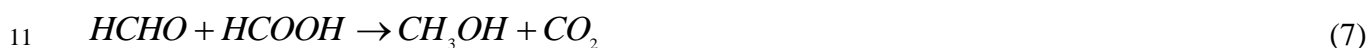
19 Glucose may also undergo isomerization into fructose, which can be dehydrated into 5-
20 Hydroxymethylfurfural (5-HMF), by losing three molecules of H₂O. Such pathway can lead to the
21 formation of heavy compounds, through chemical condensation. Another possibility is the
22 degradation of 5-HMF into levulinic acid and formic acid. From formic acid, H₂ and CO₂ can be
23 produced by thermal degradation, at the considered reaction conditions [31, 34].

24 Fructose can form two molecules of glyceraldehyde, a C₃ aldehyde. Also in this case, several
25 reactions are possible. First, glyceraldehyde can undergo de-carbonylation and subsequent thermal
26 degradation to give formaldehyde and methanol. Formaldehyde is quite unstable in supercritical

1 water at 400 °C and it can be completely converted into other compounds [35]: indeed,
2 formaldehyde was found here only in negligible amounts among the reaction products.
3 Formaldehyde can produce gases by direct conversion into CO and H₂. However, the main reaction
4 pathway of formaldehyde in supercritical water is represented by disproportionation. For the case of
5 formaldehyde, two possible disproportionation reactions are documented in the literature [36]. First,
6 the self-disproportionation of formaldehyde into methanol and formic acid, which is also known as
7 the Cannizzaro reaction:



9 Another possible way is the cross-disproportionation between formaldehyde and formic acid, giving
10 methanol and CO₂:



12 Morooka et al. [36] found that cross-disproportionation is the prevailing pathway at 400 °C.

13 However, both reactions lead to the formation of methanol, which was found to be the most
14 abundant reaction product in the present study, in particular during the first 60 s of operations (see
15 Figure 6d).

16 Considering Figure 7 and the reaction mechanisms above discussed, it is clear that many pathways
17 leading to the formation of methanol are possible. Methanol is a relatively stable product in
18 supercritical water at 400 °C; thus, once it is formed, it is hardly gasified. A possible explanation to
19 the fact that methanol concentration decreases in the second stage of gasification could be the
20 occurring of reactions involving other organics present in the liquid phase. Methanol could provide
21 methyl groups to other organics. Further research is needed to investigate about the interactions
22 between methanol and the other organic compounds at supercritical conditions.

23 Glyceraldehyde can also be dehydrated to form pyruvaldehyde and, hence, acetic acid. Acetic acid
24 is a relatively stable product at the considered reaction conditions [31]. From Figure 6e, it can be

1 clearly observed that acetic acid is produced in first stage of gasification, and its amount remains
2 almost constant during the second stage.

3 Given the simplified reaction scheme of Figure 7, the role of phenol during gasification can be
4 addressed. In Section 3.2 it was highlighted that large differences are encountered when comparing
5 the trends of glycolic acid and methanol, whose formations are much more reduced for phenol
6 containing mixtures in comparison with a feed with only glucose (Figures 6c and d). Conversely, a
7 slight increase (in relative terms) in the production of 5-HMF is observed for the phenol-containing
8 mixtures (Figure 6a). Looking at the reaction schemes here depicted, this implies that the
9 introduction of phenol penalizes those pathways in which water is a reactant, such as the hydration
10 of glyceraldehyde to glycolic acid, or the hydration of pyruvaldehyde to acetic acid. On the
11 contrary, de-hydration reactions are favored.

12 A possible explanation could be that phenol reduces the availability of water molecules. Indeed,
13 phenol needs a quite elevated number of water molecules in order to be solvated. Water is thus less
14 available and this causes dehydration reactions to be favored. It is interesting to notice that such
15 effect does not show a linear dependence on the amount of phenol loaded. As far as the reaction
16 goes on, water is slowly made available to the reacting compounds. This can be observed looking at
17 the different trends of glycolic acid, where a stable increase is observed in the longer times for the
18 phenol-containing mixtures.

19 Another explanation could be that phenol as an acid influences the reaction pathways. Cannizzaro
20 reaction and other reactions involving carbonyl-groups need strong bases in water at ambient
21 conditions, and they occur without any addition or with weak acids at hydrothermal conditions [37].
22 Phenols are weak acids at ambient conditions, while they become stronger at increased temperatures
23 [37]. On the other hand, together with other acids, like acetic acid, a buffer system might be formed.
24 Up to now, not enough knowledge exists about these systems and their consequences on chemical
25 reactions for a precise evaluation of the effect on the observed results.

1 For this discussion is relevant that, at 400 °C and 25 MPa, there are still ionic reactions in the
2 solution. A discussion only based on free-radical reactions, like in [20], is therefore not useful for
3 the present case.

4

5 **4. Conclusions**

6 In the present work, mixtures of glucose and phenol as model compounds of biomass constituents
7 were gasified in supercritical water at 400 °C and 25.0 MPa. Liquid and gaseous products were
8 sampled and characterized. The results clearly show that the addition of phenol reduces the gas
9 yield obtainable from the feedstock. However, as far as the production of gases is concerned, the
10 inhibitory effect of phenol was relatively low. In other words, when phenol-containing mixtures are
11 utilized, gas yields are lower mainly because the amount of glucose fed is lower. The role of phenol
12 seems more active when the liquid products are considered. Here, phenol interferes with the
13 mechanism of glucose degradation, by favoring the pathways involving de-hydration reactions.
14 Further research should be conducted in order to understand in a detailed way how such inhibition
15 takes place.

16 The performed tests also highlighted that, at 400 °C, the SCWG of glucose/phenol mixtures at 5 wt.
17 % takes place over two distinct stages: the former, with a duration of 40-60 s, where a fast gas
18 formation occurs; the latter, for longer residence times, where gas yields are practically unchanged
19 and mainly reactions in the liquid phase occur. The reactions taking place in the second stage
20 should deserve more attention and further research in the future. An interesting issue could be the
21 investigation of the fate of methanol, which is an abundant product at hydrothermal conditions, and
22 whose degradation kinetics in SCWG has been already investigated [38]. Trying to enhance
23 methanol degradation into gaseous products rather than liquid intermediates could be crucial for the
24 overall efficiency of biomass SCWG.

25

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5

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