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Corresponding Author: Professor Juan Garcia-Serna, Ph.D.

Corresponding Author's Institution: University of Valladolid

First Author: Gianluca Gallina, MEng.

Order of Authors: Gianluca Gallina, MEng.; Enrique Regidor Alfageme, BEng.; Pierdomenico Biasi, Dr.; Juan Garcia-Serna, Ph.D.

Abstract: A flow-through reactor for the extraction of hemicelluloses with hot pressurized water was scaled up. Experiments were conducted with the two systems using catalpa wood as raw material at different temperatures, to determine the effectiveness of the scale-up. The one pilot reactor system was subsequently upgraded by designing and building a manifold system capable of working in series. Technological innovations implemented, permitted a continuous operability, minimizing downtime when replacing the biomass during loading and unloading phases. A study was performed to determine the evolution of the composition and molecular weight of the extracted solution, by varying its residence time within the system. The plant worked homogeneously and there were no deviations in the characteristics of the liquid product flowing from one unit to the next. The main objective of this work was to verify the possibility of using the plant set-up for an industrial process by comparing two scales.

Suggested Reviewers: Hideki Kanda Dr. Professor, Chemical Engineering and Materials Science, University of Nagoya kanda@nuce.nagoya-u.ac.jp Expert in extraction and sub and supercritical fluids

Irina V. Smirnova Dr. Professor, Chemical Engineerin, Technische Universitat Hamburg-Harburg irina.smirnova@tuhh.de World expert in biomass technology. Expert in flow reactors for biomass

Madapusi P Srinivasan Dr. Professor, Chemical Engineering, RMIT University srinivasan.madapusi@rmit.edu.au Expert in biomass conversion technology and flow reactors

Andrew R Zimmerman Dr. Professor, Chemical Engineering, University of Florida azimmer@ufl.edu Expert in producing biochar using hydrothermal treatments **Cover Letter**





Well-respected Editor and Reviewers,

We offer our piece of research to publish in Bioresource Technologies (70.040: Other thermochemical processes).

"Hydrothermal extraction of hemicellulose from lab to pilot scale"

In this research, a pilot multistage flow-through reactor for the liquid hot water extraction of hemicellulose from lignocellulosic biomass was designed, built and tested.

A laboratory-scale plant was initially scaled with a factor of 72 and the effectiveness of the scale-up was verified through experiments with the two systems.

The pilot plant was implemented with technological innovations to become a multistage pilot plant with a continuous operability, minimum downtimes and easiness in the operation.

The evolution of the characteristics of the liquid extract was studied, when changing the liquid and solid residence time within the system, and the operating temperature.

The main fields considered in the paper and the innovation level are:

Process innovative scale-up

Hydrothermal fractionation

Process improvement



We strongly believe that our findings would appeal to the readership of Bioresource Technologies as in this work we propose and test a totally new plant set-up for biomass pretreatment, demonstrating its manageability and speed of operation, key features in an industrial process.

It is the original work of the authors, not previously submitted to BITE. All the authors mutually agree that it should be submitted to BITE.

Sincerely yours,

The authors.

Departamento de Ingeniería Química y Tecnología del Medio Ambiente. Escuela de Ingenierías Industriales (Sede Mergelina). Universidad de Valladolid



HIGHLIGHTS

- Novel pilot plant for hydrothermal pretreatment of lignocellulosic biomass.
- Optimization of reactor set-up to minimize downtimes in hemicellulose extraction.
- Verification of scale-up efficacy through experiment at different conditions.
- Evolution of the liquid extract when changing its residence time in the system.

1	Hydrothermal extraction of hemicellulose from lab to
2	pilot scale
3	Gianluca Gallina ^ª , Enrique Regidor Alfageme ^ª , Pierdomenico Biasi ^{b*} and Juan García-Serna ^{ª*}
4	
5 6	^a Department of Chemical Engineering and Environmental Technology, High Pressure Processes Group (hpp.uva.es), University of Valladolid, Valladolid, ES-47011, Spain
7	^b Process Chemistry Centre, Laboratory of Industrial Chemistry and Reaction Engineering, Åbo
8	Akademi, Biskopsgatan 8, Turku/Åbo, FI-20500, Finland
9	*To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: jgserna@iq.uva.es (J. García-Serna)
10	bpierdom@abo.fi (P. Biasi)
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18 Abstract

A flow-through reactor for the extraction of hemicelluloses with hot pressurized water was scaled up.
 Experiments were conducted with the two systems using catalpa wood as raw material at different
 temperatures, to determine the effectiveness of the scale-up.

The one pilot reactor system was subsequently upgraded by designing and building a manifold system capable of working in series. Technological innovations implemented, permitted a continuous operability, minimizing downtime when replacing the biomass during loading and unloading phases.

A study was performed to determine the evolution of the composition and molecular weight of the extracted solution, by varying its residence time within the system. The plant worked homogeneously and there were no deviations in the characteristics of the liquid product flowing from one unit to the next.

29 The main objective of this work was to verify the possibility of using the plant set-up for an industrial 30 process by comparing two scales.

31

32 Keywords

33 Pilot plant; hemicelluloses; fractionation; biorefinery; hydrothermal.

35 **1. Introduction**

Hemicellulose is a biopolymer naturally synthetized by most of the existing trees and plants; its presence in all lignocellulosic biomasses with percentages between 15 and 35% makes hemicellulose the second polysaccharide with the highest abundance in nature after cellulose (Gatenholm et al., 2004). Unlike cellulose, which has technological interest in many fields such as plastic, pharmaceutical and paper industry, hemicellulose applications are being investigated and the interest for this polymer is growing in recent years.

42 It was demonstrated that hemicellulose polysaccharides have interesting properties in the manufacturing 43 of food additives (Masutake et al., 1994), emulsifiers (Nakamura et al., 2000), plastic film for the 44 protection of foods (Gatenholm et al., 2008) or superabsorbent hydrogels (Zhang et al., 2015). The 45 monomers that constitute hemicellulose are also of great interest. Xylans, present mainly in hardwoods, 46 grasses and straws, are mainly composed by xylose, precursor of high-value products such as xylitol or 47 furfural. Xylitol is produced by hydrolysing xylans and subsequently hydrogenating the xylose 48 monomers. The use of xylitol as a substitute to traditional sugar can help in preventing tooth decay and 49 promote remineralisation of small lesions (Makinen et al., 1995). It can even be of help for osteoporosis 50 prevention (Mattila et al., 2002). Furfural, a dehydration product of xylose, is used as a solvent in 51 petrochemical industry to extract dienes (such as those used to produce synthetic rubber) from other 52 hydrocarbons and it is also an intermediate product in the production of solvents such as furan 53 (Hoydonckx et al., 2000).

54 Because of its non-crystalline morphology, in contrast to that of cellulose, hemicelluloses are generally 55 broken and degraded during conventional pulping processes. However, thanks to biomass pre-56 treatments and novel separation processes it is possible to obtain and isolate hemicellulose oligomers 57 with suitable characteristics to fabricate several specialised materials.

- 58
- 59
- 60

Traditional methods used for the extraction of hemicelluloses from biomass involve the use of mineral acid solvents. For instance, acid hydrolysis with concentrated H_2SO_4 or HCl is an effective way to extract and convert approximately 100 % of cellulose and hemicellulose into monomers. Yet, special equipment resistant to corrosion and a recover of acid after hydrolysis are required under such conditions.

Dilute acid hydrolysis is a wide used method. H_2SO_4 or HCl with concentration in the range of 2-5 % are generally used (pH close to 0), at 160 to 230°C. This treatment extracts hemicellulose from biomass effectively and hydrolyses it into monomeric sugars and often into degradation product such as furfural or 5-hydroxymethylfurfural (Ur-Rehman et al., 2015). These processes are suitable if the main purpose is to obtain a high yield of monosaccharides. Nonetheless, if the aim is to obtain oligomers of hemicellulose for fabrication of specialised materials such as gel or plastics, other pre-treatments are required.

74 Hydrothermal treatment is a technique with several advantages over the methods previously mentioned. 75 Depolymerisation of oligomers and degradation of monomers is notably reduced. Furthermore, as the 76 unique solvent employed is water, the environmental impact is reduced. Pressurized water at 77 temperatures above 120 °C is subjected to an ionization process forming H_3O^+ ions that induce the 78 partial depolymerisation of hemicellulose. Hemicellulose has acetyl groups alternatively embed in its 79 pentose-hexose structure. Cleavage of acetyl groups consequently leads to the further formation of 80 H_3O^+ ions that catalyses the depolymerisation of hemicellulose. This process, called autohydrolysis, fits 81 very well when the main purpose is to obtain hemicellulose oligomers with higher selectivity over 82 monomers formation and monosaccharide degradation (Garrote et al., 1999).

83

84 Hydrothermal extraction plants

85 There is a huge number of examples regarding hydrothermal hydrolysis of biomass at laboratory scale.

86 In most cases, the process is carried out in batch reactors (dos Santos Rocha et al., 2017; Garrote et al.,

87 2001b; Lu et al., 2017; Sánchez-Bastardo et al., 2017), being a minor number of researches conducted

88 with semi-continuous flow-through reactors (Gallina et al., 2016; Tanaka et al., 2012; Yedro et al.,

89 2015a) or continuous reactors (Cantero et al., 2015; Kazachkin et al., 2014).

90 Flow-through pre-treatments were recognised to be the best in terms of extraction efficiency and energy 91 economy: thanks to a more effective mass transfer, they allow highest extraction yields respect to batch 92 reactors, and they do not require extreme milling of biomass and suspension pumping such in the case 93 of continuous-flow reactors.

94

95 Pilot plants for hydrothermal extraction of hemicellulose are not many. One example is the Integrated 96 Biomass Utilization System (IBUS) which converts biomass into sugars and lignin, and then to ethanol 97 and energy, by using three reactors (Larsen et al., 2008; Petersen et al., 2009; Thomsen et al., 2008). 98 This system uses a particle pump to move the biomass into the high-pressure systems. 99 In a previous project developed by our research group, a laboratory-scale flow-through reactor was 100 developed, operated and optimised (Gallina et al., 2016; Yedro et al., 2015a; Yedro et al., 2015b). That 101 rig, similarly to most of the existing lab plants, including pilot plant reactors (Kilpeläinen et al., 2014; 102 Reynolds et al., 2015), consisted of a stainless steel tube filled with biomass, axially crossed by a 103 constant flow of pressurized hot water. 104 One of the main difficulties in this kind of system was to properly load the raw material and discharge 105 the spent solid contained in the reactor once the extraction process was completed. In fact, the wet 106 biomass swells and agglomerates inside this kind of reactors, forming a compact structure difficult to 107 remove without stopping the operation and being necessary to open the reactor. 108 Sometimes brute force methods, such as drilling, are necessary to extract the compacted-swollen spent 109 solid. In an industrial context, this implies long periods of inactivity and consequently an economic 110 disadvantage. An example can be found in delayed coking, where the coke vessels operate in semi-batch 111 and high pressure water cutting is needed to recover the final coke product (Predel, 2000).

A good technique to solve this problem is to introduce biomass into a cartridge, which can be inserted and removed quickly, as in the system designed by Smirnova et al. (Reynolds et al., 2016; Reynolds et al., 2015; Zetzl et al., 2012).

Results obtained with our laboratory-scale installation, drove our group to design a semi-continuous pilot plant. Initially, a scaled-up reactor was built, with a volume 73 times bigger than our laboratory unit, where biomass could be replaced thanks to the insertion and removal of a cartridge through a ball valve placed on the bottom of the reactor.

The system was then integrated with some characteristics of a batch-wise cascade reactor located in Åbo Akademi (Finland) (Grénman et al., 2011; Rissanen et al., 2014a). That system consisted of 5 Parr units containing biomass, in which a flow of water circulated in closed loop. Each unit could be excluded

122 from the system thanks to a valve system that allowed to deviate the water flow.

After further improvements, we designed a plant consisting of five semi-continuous reactors, each one working in series with the others or with the option of being excluded from the system. A manifold of valves and cartridges, which will be explained later in this work, made possible to extract hemicellulose from biomass without needing to stop the plant. It was even possible to cool down and disassemble the reactors separately during the loading and unloading phases, thus minimizing downtime. The extraction process could be carried out in a pseudo-continuous way, replacing rapidly the raw material and entirely recollecting the spent solid.

In the first part of this paper, we will focus on the scale-up of a laboratory equipment, we will discussthe scale-up criteria and how we verified the efficiency of the scale up.

132 Subsequently, we will explain how the pilot reactor was implemented to become a multistage flow-

133 through reactor.

134 The system was then comprehensively tested by a temperature study, analysing the yield of

135 hemicellulose extraction and its molecular weight. This operation allowed to study the variations in the

136 characteristics of extracted hemicelluloses varying the residence time of the liquid product within the

137 system. It was also studied the depolymerisation and degradation of oligosaccharides varying their

138 residence time inside the plant. The objective of this work was to create a system able to operate in a

139 continuous and fast way, allowing to obtain a product with constant characteristics and composition, and

140 being considered for an industrial production of hemicellulose by hydrothermal extraction.

141 **2. Experimental**

142 **2.1 Raw material characterization**

143 *Catalpa bignonioides* wood used as the main raw material in all the experiments was originated from 144 Valladolid (Spain). This species was chosen for its abundance in the Castilla y Leon area and the 145 easiness to find pruning residues.

Dry wooden branches were grinded with a chipper, obtaining wood chips with variable particle size between 0.6 and 3.5 cm (showed in Supporting Information). They were kept in a dry room inside closed bags until the day of the tests. No bark removal was carried out, since the goal was to start off from low cost biomass, which had undergone a minimum number of pre-treatments.

150 The composition of the raw material in terms of structural carbohydrates, extractives, ashes, humidity 151 and lignin were determined according to the standard methods published by National Renewable Energy 152 Laboratory (NREL) (Hames et al., 2005; Sluiter et al., 2008a; Sluiter et al., 2008b; Sluiter et al., 2008c). 153 Dried biomass was treated with water in a Soxhlet equipment, in order to remove the water soluble 154 extractives, and lately with ethanol to remove remaining extractives. 300 mg of dried and free-155 extractives solid were hydrolysed in 3 mL of 72% wt sulphuric acid solution for 60 min at 30 °C. The 156 mixture was diluted using 84 mL of Milli-Q water and heated in autoclave at 120 °C for 60 min. Solid 157 was separated from the liquid solution by vacuum filtration and placed in a muffle at 550 °C for 24 h. 158 The remaining residue was weighted before and after this step to calculate the insoluble lignin and the 159 ash content of the sample. A liquid aliquot was analysed with UV-Vis spectrophotometer at 320 nm with extinction coefficient of 34 $Lg^{-1}cm^{-1}$ (Sun, Cao, Li, Xu, & Sun, 2014) to calculate the amount of 160 161 soluble lignin. Another liquid aliquot was neutralized to pH range 6 to 7, filtered using a 0.2 µm membrane and analysed by HPLC to determine the carbohydrates composition. 162

164 **2.2 Analytical methods**

165 **2.2.1 Analysis of liquid samples composition**

The total number of compounds contained in the liquid samples was determined by hydrolysing oligomers extracted during the process. 0.8 mL of sulphuric acid (72%) and 15 mL of Milli-Q water were added to 5 mL of liquid samples. This solution was autoclaved at 121 °C for 1h. Prior to the HPLC analysis, liquid samples were filtered (Pore size 0.22 m, Diameter 25 mm, Nylon; FILTER-LAB) (Sluiter et al.).

Original liquid samples (before acid hydrolysis) obtained by the extraction process were also filteredand analysed with HPLC.

173 The column used for the separation of the compounds was SUGAR SH-1011 Shodex at 50.0 °C with a

174 flow of 0.8 mL/min, using a solution of 0.01N of sulphuric acid and water Milli-Q as mobile phase. A

- 175 Waters IR detector 2414 and Waters dual λ absorbance detector 2487 (210 nm and 254 nm) was used to 176 identify the sugars and their derivatives.
- The calibration reagents used for HPLC analysis were: cellobiose (+98%), glucose (+99%), fructose (+99%), glyceraldehyde (95%), pyruvaldehyde (40%), arabinose (+99%), glycolaldehyde (+98%), 5hydroxymethylfurfural (99%), lactic acid (85%), formic acid (98%), glucuronic acid (99%), mannose (+99%), xylose (+99%), galactose (+99%), rhamnose (+99%), galacturonic acid (+99%), furfural (+99%), acetic acid (+99%), all of them purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used without further modification.
- For the analysis of sugars, sulphuric acid (96%) and calcium carbonate (+ 99%), purchased from
 Panreac were used.
- 185

186 **2.2.2 Analysis of molecular weights**

187 Molecular weight of the hemicelluloses in the liquid extract was determined by Size Exclusion 188 Chromatography (HPLC-SEC). The column used was a GPC column (SB-804 HQ; Shodex) protected 189 by a guard column (SB-G; Shodex) at 35 °C with a flow rate of the mobile phase (NaNO3 0.1 M +

190	NaN3 0.02% in Milli-Q water) set at 0.5 mL min-1. A Waters IR detector 2414 was used for the
191	determination of the molecular weight of the extracted hemicelluloses. Calibration curve was obtained
192	with a set of eight pullulan standards (STANDARD P-82; Shodex) ranged between 6.1 and 642 kDa of
193	average molecular weight, dissolved in milli-Q water.
194	
195	2.2.3 Determination of pH
196	The pH of the extracted solution (hydrolysate) was measured online, with intervals of 1 minute in the
197	liquid outlet. An electronic pH-meter (Crison CRI10123.99) was used.
198	
199	2.3 Raw Material Composition
200	Humidity, determined after drying a sample of wood in a convection oven at 105 °C, was calculated to
201	be 14% wt. Dry raw material was composed by: 20.8% of extractives, 16.2 % of lignin, 0.3% of ashes,
202	32.3% of cellulose (glucose), 23.7% of hemicelluloses (xylose, arabinose and acetic acid) and 6.8% of
203	pectins (galacturonic acid). Amounts of single compounds are represented in Table S1 in the Supporting
204	Information.
205	Along the manuscript, xylose will be chosen as the monosaccharide representing the hemicelluloses, as
206	xylans constitutes the main hemicelluloses proceeding from hardwoods like Catalpa bignonioides
207	(Yoon et al., 2016).
208	Wood proceeding from branches and bark is known to have a great amount of extractives respect to
209	stem wood (Krutul et al., 2014; Nurmi, 1992) and these results were confirmed by our composition
210	analysis.
211	46.3% of extractives was water soluble, while the remaining 53.7% was soluble in ethanol. This
212	proportion is similar to that found from other authors in other species like Eucalyptus globulus (Morais
213	& Pereira, 2012).
214	12.9% of the water soluble extractives were monosaccharides and sugar acids (32.0% glucuronic acid,
	9

215 28.0% glucose, 14.0% xylose and 26.0% arabinose).

216 **2.4. Experimental set-up and operation**

217 This section is explained later within section 3 (lab and pilot scale for 1 reactor) and section 4 (dedicated

to the pilot 5-reactor system manifold), as the scale-up was one of the objectives of the work.

219

220

221 **3. Reactors scale-up: from lab scale to pilot scale**

The set-up and the operational tips of both the laboratory scale and pilot scale reactors are described in this section; the criteria for the scale up is explained in detail. A discussion on the characterization of the hydrolysate effluents produced with these systems is included at the end of the section, comparing the results and assessing the effectiveness of the scale-up.

226

227 **3.1 Laboratory scale flow-through reactor**

228 Laboratory-scale reactor is schematized in Figure 1. A PU-2080 HPLC pump (P-01) took water from a 229 deposit (D-01) and propelled it through a concentric tube heat exchanger working in counter-current 230 mode (E-01, 2m length, 1/8"-1/4"). Then water passed through a pre-heater (H-01, 200 cm of 1/8" SS 231 316 pipe, electrically heated by two electric resistors of 300 W) which ensured a uniform temperature at 232 the reactor inlet. Water entered from the top of the reactor (R-01), consisting of a SS316 pipe (R-01, 38 cm length, 1/2" O.D., 0.38" I.D.), charged with wood chips. Reactor was covered on the top and on the 233 234 bottom by two metallic filters, in order to avoid the loss of solid particles during the experiments. The 235 reactor was heated by three electric clamp resistors of 300 W/each, placed axially along a machined 236 aluminum bar with 5.08 cm O.D. Outlet flow passed through a concentric tube heat exchanger E-01 237 (preheating the inner flow).

Pressure was controlled by a Go-back pressure valve (BPV-01) installed at the liquid outlet. The outer
flow pH was measured online using an electronic pH-meter (Crison PH 29).

241 **3.1.1 Operation of laboratory reactor**

242 Wood from *Catalpa bignonioides* was used as raw material; 6 g of chips with a medium particle size of 243 about 0.6 cm were loaded in the reactor R-01. A cold liquid pressure test was made before each 244 experiment: cold water was circulated through the system for 5 min in order to check the presence of 245 leaks and to ensure the wetting of the wood. After that, the pump was switched off, while electric heater 246 and clamp resistances placed along the reactor were set at a temperature of 20 °C above the operating 247 temperature. When the temperature was reached, water was pumped through the system, starting the experiment (time 0). Experiments carried out with other raw materials in the laboratory scale reactor 248 249 (Gallina et al., 2016), indicated that the optimal flow to get a good mass transfer with the minimum 250 amount of water, corresponded to 3.5 mL/min; the same flow rate was used in this work.

The first sample (time 0) was collected as soon as the first drop of liquid came out from the system. Water reached the operating temperature in about 7 min from the taking of the first sample. Samples were collected after 5, 10, 20, 30, 40, 60 and 90 minutes from the beginning of the operation. At the end of the process, the heating was turned off and fresh water was passed through the system to cool down the reactor. When a temperature of 50 °C was reached, the pump was switched off, the system was depressurized and water was let to flow out. The reactor was finally dismounted, placed in a mechanical grip and, using a steel punch and a hammer, the wet solid was removed.

258

259 **3.2 Scale-up to single stage pilot reactor**

The scale-up of the laboratory reactor was made by following the criteria indicated in Table 1. The volume of the pilot reactor was 2000 mL, 73 times bigger than the laboratory-scale reactor. Geometrical similarity between the two systems was maintained, by keeping constant the ratio between length and internal diameter (L/ID). An optimal flowrate of 250 mL/min was set in the pilot system to have the same superficial velocity of water as in the lab-system. The porosity of the bed was also preserved in both reactors, to have the same residence time of the liquid (aprox. 6.0 min).

267 One of the objectives of this work was to minimize the difficulties of replacing the biomass in the 268 extractor in order to ease the operation and maintenance of the pilot reactor. At laboratory scale, there 269 are many methods that can be used to remove the spent solid (some of them are 'brute-force' methods, 270 e.g. drilling, pushing out with compressed air, etc.) that are difficult to use at pilot or industrial systems. 271 To facilitate the replacement of biomass in the flow-through reactor, a cartridge mode has been 272 implemented. 273 The reactor unit consisted of 3 main parts (Figure 2a): 274 An open cylinder, constructed with a wire mesh (7) that could be opened longitudinally. Internal 275 diameter of the cylinder was 4 cm and length was 159 cm. Two stainless steel cylinders with the same diameter (4 and 5), one of which (5) had several 276 • orifices (with a diameter of 1 mm) at the bottom (6), working as a filter. A glass wool layer 277 278 could be placed over the holes to decrease the dimension of the voids. 279 The wire mesh was inserted between the two cylinders, forming a cartridge, which was filled 280 with biomass. The inner diameter of the two cylinders was 4.3 cm; so that the mesh adhered 281 perfectly to the walls. The cylinders thickness was 2 mm. 282 An outer stainless-steel cylinder (2) with two opening (A and B) closed at the upper end with a • 283 mechanized flange (1) with an opening (C), and with a ball valve (3) screwed on the lower end. 284 Internal diameter of the valve and of the cylinder was 5.1 cm, so that the cartridge could be 285 introduced from the bottom and inserted completely into the system. 286 This system greatly facilitated the replacement of biomass, which could be removed from the system by 287 simply opening the valve and pulling out the cartridge. The longitudinal opening of the wire mesh, 288 moreover, reduced the effort required to remove the wet biomass from the cartridge. 289 A flow diagram of the single-stage pilot system is represented in Figure 2b. A constant flow of water 290 was drawn from a vessel (D-01) and propelled with a Tuthill DGS.68 pump (P-01) through the external

tubes of a system composed by three concentric tube heat exchangers E-01 to E-03 (18 m total length,

292 1/4" internal tube-3/8" external tube) and then through an electric heater H-01 with a maximum power

293 of 5 kW.

Given the high power of the heater, a special procedure was designed to avoid the overheating of this unit. Unlike in the laboratory scale system, where the heater was left over for a time heating with no contact with water, in the case of the pilot plant, water flowing through a coil was in constant contact with the heater wall.

A three way valve (3V-01) was placed between the heater and the reactor, which could direct the liquid flow to the inlet of the reactor (placed on the top) or out of the system. A ball valve (V-01) was placed just after the outlet of the reactor.

301 During the preheating phase, the 3-way valve was turned so that water did not enter the reactor, while
302 valve V-01 was closed to prevent water from returning in the reactor through its output.

Water stream entered subsequently in the inner part of the concentric tube heat exchangers (E-01 to E-03), where it was cooled down by the feeding water flowing countercurrent in the external part, before leaving the system through a Go-back pressure valve (BPV-01). In this way it was possible to pre-heat

306 the water to the desired temperature before introducing it into the reactor.

Reactor R-01 was homogeneously coated with four clamp resistors, which power was 250 W/each (total
nominal power was 1 kW).

309 The entire system was thermally insulated with a layer of 2 cm glass wool, protected with aluminum310 foil.

311 Temperature of water entering and leaving the reactor was measured with two thermocouples placed at 312 the inlet and at the outlet of R-01.

313 A flow-meter was placed after the pump to measure the liquid flow rate. An online pH-meter was placed 314 after the Go-back pressure valve to measure the pH of the solution produced by the process.

315

316

321	3.2.1 Operation of single stage pilot reactor
322	The cartridge was assembled by introducing the wire mesh between the two half cylinders then. 250 g of
323	chips with a medium particle size of about 2.0 cm were placed inside. The quantity and size of the
324	particles was selected to maintain the same porosity as in the laboratory system.
325	At the beginning of the operation, the cartridge was introduced into the reactor through the bottom, and
326	the ball valve (3) was closed.
327	A flow of cold water was pumped inside the reactor from the top, until it was completely filled. During
328	this procedure, ball valve V-01 was closed to keep the water inside the reactor.
329	Another ball valve (V-02), was connected to an outlet (B) of the reactor placed on the top. This valve
330	was opened during the filling procedure, and was connected to a plastic container (C-01). When water
331	wet the container the reactor could be considered completely filled. At this moment, the ball valve V-02
332	was closed and the valve (V-01) was opened, letting water exiting from the reactor.
333	A cold liquid pressure test was made, by increasing the pressure of the system to 17 bar. Subsequently,
334	the three-way valve was switched and the valve (V-01), so that the flow of water by-passed the reactor.
335	Heater was turned on to heat-up the liquid flow 20 °C above the operating temperature; water contained
336	in the reactor was preheated to 95 °C through the clamp resistances which wrapped it around.
337	Temperature of water inside the reactor was set to a value minor than 100 °C to avoid the extraction of
338	structural carbohydrates.
339	When the water reached the desired temperature, the three-way valve was switched, and the flow was
340	directed into the reactor; at the same time, the ball valve (V-01) was opened, letting water exiting the
341	reactor.

342 Time 0 (zero) was set at this moment and sample 0 (zero) was collected from the system outlet. Other
343 samples were collected after 5, 10, 20, 30, 40, 60 and 90 minutes from the starting of the operation.

At the end of the process, the heating system was turned off and fresh water was passed through the system to cool it down. When a temperature of 50 °C was reached, the pump was switched off, the system was depressurized and water was let to flow out. The ball valve (3) on the bottom of the reactor was opened and the cartridge containing biomass was extracted and dismounted to remove the solid.

348

349 **3.3** Comparison between results obtained with laboratory and pilot reactor

Hydrothermal extraction was carried out with the laboratory scale and with the pilot reactor at 160 and 170 °C. Figure 3a represents the cumulative yields of total xylose, produced with the two systems after the extraction process and the acid hydrolysis of the solution obtained. Yield was calculated as the ratio between the total mass of the xylose extracted and the total mass of xylose in the wood contained in the reactor at the beginning of the experiments.

A cumulated yield of 33.9% was obtained after 90 minutes of operation, using the laboratory scale reactor at 160 °C; a yield of 35.7% was reached with the pilot reactor at the same temperature and extraction time.

In experiments conducted at 170 °C, the yields increased in both cases, reaching final values of 38.8% and 41.7% when using the lab-scale and the pilot reactors respectively. Yields of all the compounds extracted are represented in Table S2 in the Supporting Information.

The positive effect of temperature in increasing the extraction yield is well known and widely documented (Nitsos et al., 2016; Qian et al., 2015; Yedro et al., 2017). However, in this work, the main concern was to identify the differences that occurred when the process was scaled-up.

Figure 3b shows the percent deviation between the yields obtained with laboratory scale and pilot scale
reactors, at 160 and 170 °C.

At both temperatures, the deviations followed a decreasing trend: it was 100% at time 0, after 5 min it decreased to 64.0 % in the experiment at 170 °C and 44.0 % at 160 °C. After 20 min the deviations reached negative values and then tended to 0.

369 The "100% deviation", found at time 0 was associated to the fact that while with the laboratory system 370 no xylose was produced, small amounts were detected in the solutions proceeding from the pilot plant at 371 the very beginning of the extraction. The presence of this monosaccharide, rather than to hemicelluloses 372 breakdown, was almost certainly due to the free sugars contained in the biomass, which can be extracted 373 at temperatures below 100 °C (Alañón et al., 2009). Considering the composition of water soluble 374 extractives, determined as explained in the section 2.3, it was calculated that xylose extracted at time 0 375 with the pilot reactor, corresponded to the 25.8% of the monomeric xylose in the raw material. This initial yield of monomeric xylose is the same in the experiments carried out at 160 and 170 °C, as 376 377 temperature of water inside the reaction chambers was always set at 95 °C (as explained in section 3.2.1) 378 at the beginning of the operations.

The deviations between the yields obtained with pilot scale and laboratory scale plants were higher during the first 10 minutes of extraction. This behaviour could be due to: (1) the different temperature profile followed during the process, as represented in the Supporting Information and (2) the differences in the time scale due to the piping, which length change have more influence at the beginning of the process, when the slope in the extraction curve is high.

The warming up to the operating temperature occurred faster in the pilot plant (3 minutes less) in comparison with the laboratory scale system. This delay, due to the different method employed in the heating, is responsible for the initial deviation between the yields obtained in the two systems. In the pilot plant, the wood particles were completely submerged in water before starting the process. Then, they had undergone to a preheating to 95 °C, during which their structure weakened and released part of the water-soluble compounds. On the other hand, in the laboratory scale plant, part of the water that was injected during the pressure control step left the system during the preheating phase, when the pump was switched off. Thus, chips impregnation was less effective than in the pilot reactor, leading to a less breakdown of the wood particles (Bäckström et al., 2016; Malkov et al., 2001). The lower amount of water inside the reactor also resulted in a greater inertia to reach the operating temperature, as it took about 5 min to completely fill the system and then warm it up.

Figure 3c represents the cumulative yield of monomeric xylose obtained at different times of extraction in the pilot and laboratory scale plant. As it is known, temperature favours the extraction of hemicellulose oligomers and increases hydrolysis and formation of monosaccharides (Rogalinski et al., 2008), which is in according with the results shown in Figure 3c. An increasing in temperature from 160 to 170 °C meant an increasing in the yield of around 2%.

401 Comparing subplots in Figure 3 it is possible to deduce that the yield was slightly higher in the pilot 402 reactor than in the lab scale in general. The higher differences appeared during the first 20 minutes of 403 extraction, attributable mainly to the different preheating procedure. No degradation product, such as 404 furfural (from xylose cyclodehydration) or 5-hydroxymethylfurfural (5-HMF from glucose 405 dehydration), were detected in the experiments, suggesting that the temperatures and residence times 406 tested were not strong enough to decompose the monosaccharides.

407

408 **4. Multistage pilot flow-through reactor**

After establishing the effectiveness of the scale-up, several modifications were made in the pilot plant, aimed at conducting the hydrothermal extraction in a continuous and rapid way: the single stage flowthrough pilot plant was implemented to become a multistage flow-through pilot plant.

This section will explain the setup of the manifold-system and the standard operating mode for which it was designed. Finally, a study was conducted to verify the possibility of a continuous production of hemicellulose.

415

416 **4.1 Set-up of multistage reactor**

The complete layout of the plant is shown in Figure 4. Five reactors with the same geometry and operating principle as the one shown in Figure 2a, were connected in series (R-01 to R-05). A three-way valve (3V-01 to 3V-05) was placed before each reactor (manifold). Each valve could divert the flow to the reactor inlet or to the next 3-way valve, by-passing the reactor. Ball valves (V-01, V-03, V-05, V-07 and V-09) placed after the reactors could be closed to prevent water return.

Right after the outlet of each reactor, needle valves (NV-01 to NV-05) connected to concentric tube heat exchangers (ES-01 to ES-05) allowed for the withdrawn of liquid samples from the reactors. Liquid solutions flowed through the internal pipe of heat exchangers (1 m length, 1/8" internal tube- 1/4" external tube) when needle valves were open, and were cool-down by tap water flowing through the external pipe.

- A centrifugal pump Marathon Electric 5KH36 (P-02) took fresh water from a vessel (V-02) and transferred it through a pipe, ball valves (V-11 to V-15) could be opened to let water enter into the reactors. Valves V-02, V-04, V-06, V-08 and V-10, connected to plastic containers (C-01 to C-05) worked as level control system: reactors were filled when first drops wetted the containers.
- Pump P-01 (Tuthill DGS.68) transferred water from a vessel (D-01), to the external section of three
 concentric tube heat exchangers E-01 to E-03 (18 m total length, 1/4" internal tube-3/8" external tube)
 and then through an electric heater H-01 with a maximum power of 5 kW.

Each reactor was coated with four clamp resistors with a total power of 1 kW/reactor. The water left the system after being cooled down in heat exchangers E-01 to E-03, and depressurized through a Go backpressure valve (BPV-01). A pH meter placed after the valve measured online the pH of the final solution every minute. The whole system was thermally insulated with a layer of glass wool (about 2 cm) covered with aluminum foil.

439

440 **4.2 Standard operation of multistage reactor**

- 441 In a standard operation, three reactors (R-01, R-02 and R-03) were charged with biomass by inserting
- 442 the cartridge, as explained in section 3.2.
- 443 *System preparation*
- 444 Valves (V-01, V-03, and V-05) placed after the outlet of the reactors were closed.
- 445 Centrifugal pump P-02 was turned on, valves V-11, V-12, and V-13 were opened to let water enter into
- 446 the reactors (dotted arrows), and valves V-02, V-04 and V-06 were also opened to let water flow-out to
- 447 plastic containers (C-01 to C-03) when reactors were completely filled.
- 448 When reactors were filled, the pump P-02 was switched off, while valves V-11, V-12, V-13 and V-02, 449 V-04, V-06 were closed.
- 450 At this time, pump P-01 was turned on and set to the desired flow rate, feeding the system with fresh 451 water.
- 452 3-way valves 3V-01, 3V-02 and 3V-03 were set in order to let water enter into the reactors, valves V-453 01, V-03, and V-05 were opened to let water flow out.
- 454 The direction of the flow is represented by the continuous arrows in Figure 4: water flowed through the
- 455 external pipes of heat exchangers (E-01 to E-03), through the spirally wound pipes around the heater H-
- 456 01, entered reactor R-01 from the top and left it from the bottom, passing through the biomass 457 contained.
- 458 3-way valve 3V-02 and 3V-03 connected reactors R-02 and R-03 in series with R-01.
- 459 Water by-passed reactors R-04 and R-05, entered into the internal pipes of heat exchangers (E-01 to E-
- 460 03) and left the system.
- 461 Pressurization and warming up
- 462 Pressure of the system was increased to 17 bar and a cold liquid pressure test was made, stabilizing at 463 the same time the liquid old-up of the system.
- 464 When the liquid flow-rate (measured through a flow-meter placed after pump P-01) was constant, 3-way
- 465 valves (3V-01 to 3V-03) were switched to make water by pass the reactors R-01 to R-03, while valves
- 466 V-01, V-03 and V-05 were closed to avoid water return.

467 Circulating water flow was pre-heated to 20 °C above the operating temperature (by turning on the 468 heater H-01), while water contained in reactors R-01 to R-03 was heated to 95 °C by turning on the 469 clamp resistors which covered the reactors.

470 *Extraction*

471 After reaching the desired temperature, 3-way valves 3V-01 to 3V-03 were switched and hot water
472 flowed through the three reactors, extracting soluble compounds from biomass.

473 Liquid samples could be withdrawn from each reactor at regular times, by opening the needle valves474 (NV-01 to NV-03).

When it was desired to interrupt the extraction in one of the reactors, i.e. R-01, the unit was isolated from the system, by switching the 3-way valve that preceded it (3V-01) and closing the ball valve V-01 simultaneously. Needle valve (NV-01) was opened to remove the water contained in the reactor and to depressurize it. Ball valve on the bottom of the reactor was opened and the cartridge containing the biomass was discharged.

Meanwhile, a new cartridge could be loaded in another reactor (i.e. R-04), which was filled with fresh water through pump P-02 and warmed up to 95 °C. When extraction process ended in reactor R-01, circulating solution was let to enter in reactor R-04, by switching the 3-way valve 3V-04 and extracting compounds from the new biomass.

This operation could be repeated for each unit in the system, in this way each reactor could be integrated into the extraction process or could be by-passed. The system allowed continuous operation: each time that a reactor was stopped to replace the feedstock, another reactor could operate. Removal of the raw material was easy and fast, and it could be done without the necessity of disassembling the extraction unit. Moreover, all the solid could be recollected at the end of the extraction.

489

490 **4.3 Extraction in series in the multistage pilot reactor**

491 To assess the ability of the plant to work in a continuous way, with the possibility to quickly replace the

492 biomass, as described in the paragraph 4.2, it was necessary to verify that the reactors worked in a

homogeneous manner and that there were no alterations in the composition of the effluent produced bythe individual reactors.

495 Another important matter to study was the evolution in the composition of the extracted products, 496 varying their residence time within the system, to understand if there was degradation or 497 depolymerization of the hemicelluloses extracted when flowing from one unit to the other.

Experiments were carried out at four different temperatures (140, 150, 160 and 170 °C), using three reactors connected in series, with a constant water flow of 15 L/h. Temperature profiles inside the reactors are depicted in the Supporting Information. The temperature of the water flow over time is plotted (see SI): before the heater (after preheating in the heat exchangers), after the heater (before reactor R1), after the reactors (before cooling through the heat exchangers) and at the system outlet (after cooling). In the system, 78% of the heat was recovered in the pre-heating, while 100% of the heat was dissipated during cooling.

505 The reactors were loaded with their respective cartridges, each one filled with 250 g of catalpa wood-506 chips with an average particle size of 2 cm. Reactors R1 to R3 were then pre-filled with distilled water 507 and pre-heated to 95 °C.

A water stream was also preheated to about 20 °C above the operating temperature (thus 160, 170, 180 and 190°C) and, at time 0, it was injected inside the first reactor; which outlet flow was entering into the second unit, connected in turn with the third unit in series.

511 In about 3 minutes, the three reactors reached the same operating temperature with a constant water 512 stream flowing through them and preheating the feeding water before exiting the system.

The whole operation lasted 90 minutes. Liquid samples were collected at regular intervals of time (0, 5, 10, 20, 30, 40, 60 and 90 minutes) from each of the three reactors. After 90 min, the three units were isolated from the system. Then, they were emptied and the cartridges containing the biomass were removed. Pretreated wood proceeding from each unit was entirely collected, dried in an oven at 105 °C and finally weighted. No replacement of biomass was made (although the system is ready for a pseudocontinuous operation). The whole liquid extract proceeding from each experiment was collected in a tank; six vials were filled with 2 mL of every solution and lyophilized to determine the average concentration of all the compounds extracted; the difference between this value and the concentration of hemicellulose in the final solution allowed to calculate the amount of lignin and extractives also resulting from the process.

523 Liquid samples withdrawn from each unit at various residence times were analyzed to determine the 524 composition, the molecular weight and the ratio between monomers and oligomers contained in the 525 products.

The mass balance was verified by adding the weight of the processed wood remaining at the end of the experiments and the mass of the total solid extracted during the experiments. The mass of the total solid extracted was calculated as the concentration of solid in the final solution multiplied by the total volume of liquid leaving the system during the experiments.

530

531 4.3.1 Temperature study in multistage pilot reactor

Figure 5a shows the cumulative yields of total xylose obtained in the multistage pilot plant at four different operating temperatures. Table S3 in the Supporting Information shows the results for all the compounds.

The residence time of liquid in the system was 6 min after crossing the unit R1, 12 min after R2, and 18
min after crossing R3.

537

538 4.3.1.1 Yields of extracted hemicelluloses

539 Yields were calculated as the ratios between the mass of total xylose detected after acid hydrolysis of 540 the liquid samples collected from each reactor and the total xylose contained in the biomass processed 541 respectively in R1, R2 and R3. Figure 5a shows that, as expected, the highest temperatures leaded to the 542 highest yields. Furthermore, the reaction rates increased, since temperature influenced the mass transfer 543 by increasing the diffusion coefficient inside the wood particles and opening the pore structure 544 (Rissanen et al., 2014a).

545 In addition, at constant temperature, the yields were very similar and the variation was minimal at 546 increasing the liquid residence time in the system, as the values were very similar in the samples 547 obtained from the three reactors.

Average values of cumulative yield after 90 min of operation were: $9.3\pm0.7\%$, $22.0\pm0.5\%$, $35.1\pm1.6\%$ and $40.6\pm1.4\%$, respectively, at 140, 150, 160 and 170 °C. The values indicate the average yields and the standard deviations between R1, R2 and R3. Thus, the experimental error was very low (between 2.2 and 7.9%).

552 During the process, the extracted products accumulated in the effluent flowing from one reactor to the 553 nextr. The system operated as a long reactor divided into three equivalent sections where the extraction 554 took place homogeneously. Moreover, there was no perturbation in the composition of the liquid 555 effluent flowing from one unit to another.

556 4.3.1.2 Molecular weight of extracted hemicelluloses

557 Since the aim of this work was to verify the possibility of using the plant set-up for an industrial 558 process, it was necessary to check if the effluent was homogeneous not only in terms of product yield, 559 but also in terms of composition and length of the oligomers.

The molecular weight of the outputs from the three units during the process at different extractions times was then analysed. Values obtained at different temperatures from units R1, R2 and R3, are depicted in figure 5b. Results are represented in Table S4 in the Supporting Information. In all cases, the molecular weight exhibited an upward trend during the first 10 minutes of extraction, and then it remained constant or decreased with the extraction time. An exception occurred in the experiment 565 carried out at 140 °C, wherein the higher molecular weights were obtained after 30 minutes of 566 extraction.

In general, the molecular weight decreased with an increasing in the operating temperature. After 90 minutes of extraction, the molecular weight of hemicellulose oligomers extracted presented values of 4078±23, 2963±142, 1922±95 and 1417±41 Da at 140, 150, 160 and 170 °C, respectively. Experimental errors were between 0.6 and 5.0%. This behavior was consistent with the results of other authors who worked with other tree species (Rissanen et al., 2014b; Yedro et al.). An increase in temperature is responsible for a higher cleavage of the hemicelluloses, thus reducing the size of the oligomers that detach from the matrix.

574 A similar consideration can be made also by observing the polydispersity index (Mw/Mn) shown in the 575 Supporting Information, which decreased when increasing the temperature.

Hemicelluloses break more intensely and faster at high temperatures, for this reason, smaller and more
homogeneous molecules were solubilized in experiments at 160 and 170 °C.

In the experiment conducted at 140 °C, polydispersity index increased from 1.2-1.7 during the first part of the reaction, reaching a maximum value of 2.5-3.2 after around 30-40 minutes, and then decreasing down to 2.2-2.4 till the end of the experiment. It seems that the extraction started with removing small molecules; as reaction time increased, larger molecules were broken, until their molecular weight was small enough to make them soluble.

583 4.3.1.2 Acidity of extracted hemicelluloses

As explained so far, the rupture and hydrolysis of the hemicelluloses occurred initially inside the wood chips, because of the kinetics enhanced temperature and catalyzed by the acetyl groups integrated the matrix. Subsequently, the oligomers solubilized in the liquid phase, experience a further hydrolysis catalyzed by the dissolved acetyl groups in the bulk liquid. Higher temperatures favored a greater release and solubilization of acetyl groups, and hence, a stronger and faster hydrolysis of hemicellulose oligomers. Figure 5c shows the instantaneous yield of acetic acid produced in the system during the experiments at different temperatures. The amount of acetic acid increased along with temperature, enhancing the hydrolysis of the oligomers in the liquid phase. Moreover, while the formation of acetic acid at 140 and 150 ° C was almost linear over time, at 160 and 170 ° C there was a maximum production within 5 to 20 minutes from the beginning of the process. Therefore, the molecular weight of the extracted oligomers decreased from the first minutes of reaction at highest temperatures.

The variation of acetic acid extracted is reflected also in the pH of the solution leaving the reactor, measured online every minute. Values of pH are depicted in the Supporting Information; more acidic solutions were obtained when increasing the operating temperature. At 140 and 150 °C, pH decreased during the whole reaction, while at 160 and 170 °C it reached a minimum value at around 20 minutes and then increased slowly.

At constant temperature, the molecular weights of the hydrolysate solutions extracted from the three units had similar values over time. This behaviour can suggest two hypotheses: 1) oligosaccharides extracted from biomass contained in a unit are further hydrolysed in the next unit, in which extraction of new oligosaccharides restored the average molecular weight value, 2) there was a simple accumulation of oligosaccharides and monosaccharides between one unit and the next one, and the oligosaccharides were not subsequently hydrolysed (when their residence time in the system increased passing through the next unit).

To solve this question, the ratio between the monomeric xylose extracted during the process and the total extracted xylose in each unit was analysed. In this way, it was possible to determine whether the extracted oligomers were hydrolysed when flowing from one unit to the next one, as shown next.

610

611 **4.3.1.3 Monomers content in the liquid product**

612 Figure 5d shows that the ratio between monomeric xylose and total xylose increased slightly with the 613 residence time of the liquid within the system, with an increasing slope when temperature increased. 614 Values are referred to the cumulative amount of sugars extracted from each unit at the end of the 615 experiments (after 90 min of operation). The highest difference between the maximum and the 616 minimum value resulted at 170 °C, where the ratio of monomeric xylose to total xylose was 0.18 after 6 617 min and 0.21 after 18 min of liquid residence time. Considering the average values of the ratios at the 618 various temperatures, it can be seen that between 140 and 160 °C, the values were very similar. However, at 170 °C, there was a general increasing in monomeric xylose compared to the total xylose 619 620 extracted. Other authors have found only a slight formation of monomeric xylose from xylans 621 hydrolysis at temperatures lower than 190 °C and residence time below 20 minutes (Garrote et al., 622 2001a; Liu & Wyman, 2004; Lloyd & Wyman, 2003). The phenomena may be due to the temperature 623 itself, the main responsible of the cleavage of hemicelluloses, and to the presence of acetic acid, which 624 at temperatures above 160 °C increased its concentration in the aqueous medium catalysing the 625 breakdown of the solubilized oligomers.

Degradation products as furfural or 5-HMF were under the detection limit at the conditions used in these experiments. Therefore, it can be stated that there was an accumulation of the compounds extracted from one unit to the next, while a weak hydrolysis of the oligosaccharides occurred with increasing the liquid residence time, more accentuated at high temperatures.

The final mass balance of the four experiments is shown in Figure 6. The errors (the highest error was below 10.5%) which is in the order of other authors in the field. As the temperature rose, an increasing in the solubilized material was noticed, both of the hemicelluloses and of the other compounds, mostly made up of lignin and extractives.

The raw material had no ideal characteristics for extracting hemicellulose in a laboratory-level study, as the extractives and lignin content was high and the particle size was large; however, the material could be well used in an industrial context where only a minimal number of treatments is necessary, in order 637 to reduce the costs. The disadvantages represented by this choice are reflected in the low purity of the 638 extract of hemicellulose due to the considerable amount of extractives in the raw material, and in a 639 lower yield respect to other experiments in which the wood particles were smaller and diffusion limitations played a minor role (Kilpeläinen et al., 2014; Rissanen et al., 2014a). A possible solution to 640 641 improve the process without excessively increasing the operational expenditure (OPEX) could be to 642 perform a first hydrothermal pre-treatment at a temperature between 120 and 140 °C, during which part 643 of the undesirable soluble compounds would be eliminated without extracting the hemicellulose. Post-644 treatments to concentrate and fractionate the hydrolysate would be also necessary. Although some 645 improvements are needed in the operations, to obtain products more pure in hemicellulose, the plant 646 described in this document has proved to be versatile and suitable for its intended purpose and can be 647 considered in industrial technology.

648

649 **4.** Conclusions

In this work, we have established the basic criteria for the scale-up of a process from a 27.5 mL lab extractor to a 2000 mL pilot extractor for extraction of hemicellulose from biomass with hot pressurized water.

A shape parameter of L/D=40, with a bed porosity of 0.71 and a liquid residence time of 6.0 min are efficient for such purpose.

From the results obtained, we constructed a manifold of 5-reactors that can operate in series. It was verified that the reactors can work continuously, without changings in the composition of the product.

657

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- 799 List of Tables
- 800 **Table 1.** Scale up criteria from lab-scale to pilot-scale reactor.
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Figure 1. Schematic flow diagram of the lab-scale experimental system. Equipment: D-01 water deposit, P-01 pump, E-01 concentric tube heat exchanger, H-01 electric heater, R-01 flow-through reactor, BPV-01 Go-back pressure valve.

Figure 2. a) Section of reactor composition: 1. Cap of the outer SS cylinder; A,B,C. Openings; 2.
External SS cylinder; 3. Ball valve; 4. Superior internal cylinder; 5. Inferior internal cylinder; 6. Bottom
with orifices of the inferior cylinder, 7. Metallic mesh. b) Schematic flow diagram of the pilot-scale
experimental system. Equipment: D-01 water deposit, P-01 centrifugal pump, E-01, E-02, E-03
concentric tube heat exchangers, H-01 electric heater, R-01 flow-through reactor, 3V-01 three way
valve, V-01, V-02 ball valves; BPV-01 Go-backpressure valve, C-01 plastic container.

Figure 3. a) Yield of xylose extracted at 160 and 170 °C with a lab-scale and a pilot-scale reactor; b) Percentage error between yields of xylose obtained with lab-scale and pilot-scale reactor at 160 °C and 170 °C. c) Cumulative yields of xylose monomers extracted with a lab-scale and a pilot-scale reactor at 160 and 170 °C.

Figure 4. Schematic flow diagram of the multistage pilot flow-through reactor where three units are operating in series. Equipment: D-X water deposits, P-X pumps, E-X concentric tube heat exchanger, ES-X concentric tube heat exchangers for sample withdrawn, H-X electric heaters, R-X flow-through reactors, 3V-X three way valves, BPV-X Go-back pressure valves, V-X ball valves, NV-X needle valves, C-X plastic containers. Liquid flow entering in reactors R-01, R-02 and R-03 connected in series and by-passing reactors R-04 and R-05.

Figure 5. a) Cumulative yield of total xylose extracted, obtained from units 1, 2 and 3 during 90 min of operation. b) Molecular weight of hemicelluloses extracted obtained from units 1, 2 and 3 of the system during 90 min of operation. c) Instantaneous values of acetic acid yield obtained from unit 3 of the system during 90 min of operation. d) Ratio between monomeric xylose obtained after the hydrothermal

- 826 treatment and total xylose extracted after 90 min of operation, as a function of the residence time of the
- 827 extracted solutions within the system.
- 828 **Figure 6.** Mass balance calculated at the end of extractions at 140, 150, 150, 160 and 170 °C.

Table 1.

Parameter	Unit	LAB SCALE	PILOT SCALE
Flow rate	mL/min	3.5	250
Internal diameter	cm	0.96	4
Length	cm	38	159
Volume	cm ³	27.5	2000
L/ID		40	40
Liquid Residence time	min	6.0	6.0
Porosity		0.71	0.71





Figure 3





Figure 4





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