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DOI: 10.1002/cssc.201000163 Conversion of Levulinic Acid and Formic Acid into γ-Valerolactone over Heterogeneous Catalysts

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The current chemicals, materials, and energy base of our world depending on fossil resource will change drastically over the next decades.^[1] Thus it is necessary to develop biomass-derived compounds to meet our practical demand for chemicals and liquid fuels. In this aspect, γ -valerolactone (GVL) has drawn increasing attention because of its benign properties and versatile functions.^[2] It can be converted to monomers for the synthesis of nylon and polymer of high thermal stability.^[3] As fuel additive, Horvath et al. demonstrated that GVL is a sustainable liquid with low volatility, minimum toxicity, and good stability.^[2] Recently, two new directions for high-grade liquid fuel production have been proposed, both establishing a value chain based on pentenoic acid derived from GVL.^[4] Combining hydrolysis of cellulose to levulinic acid (LA, precursor of GVL), hydrogenation to GVL, further hydrogenation to valeric acid and esterification, Lange et al. presented the synthesis of "valeric biofuels" and carried out a 250000 km road trial run on the mixture of 15 vol% ethyl valerate and gasoline.^[5] More importantly, Dumesic et al. have developed an integrated catalysis process to convert GVL to liquid alkenes without using external hydrogen or noble metals. However, they also suggested that though the process is efficient and inexpensive, the synthesis of GVL from biomass should be optimized in order to minimize the cost of GVL feed.^[6] In our opinion, two key problems concerning GVL production need to be solved. First, LA should be obtained from cellulosic feed by a "green" dehydration process. Second, LA formed in aqueous medium should be reduced to GVL via a robust catalysis. Focusing on the second key problem, many efforts have been contributed to the hydrogenation of LA using high pressure H₂ and supported noble metal catalysts or homogeneous catalysts.^[7] With the aim of replacing H₂ by formic acid which is a byproduct of LA, Horvath et al. developed a novel catalytic system in which excess formate was used for transfer hydrogenation of LA to GVL and 1,4-pentanediol catalyzed by $[(\eta^6 < C - > C_6Me_6)Ru$ -(bpy)(H₂O)]SO₄ in water.^[8] More recently, Antonietti et al. found that transfer hydrogenation from formic acid to LA can be catalyzed by cheap sodium sulfate as a temperature-switchable

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base under hydrothermal conditions.^[9] Heeres et al. reported that fructose can be transformed to GVL with a medium yield in one step by using a catalyst system containing Ru/C, tri-fluoroacetic acid, and formic acid.^[10] However, excess formic acid was still employed, which means that the hydrogen source could not be supplied solely from the dehydration process to produce LA. In the previous study, we have demonstrated a new route in which a simple RuCl₃/PPh₃ catalyst can be used to produce GVL from 1:1 (molar ratio) aqueous mixture of LA and formic acid or the mixture arising from dehydration of glucose.^[11] The success of using formic acid as hydrogen source not only avoids the external hydrogen supply but also generates usable high pressure CO₂ to mitigate the greenhouse gas emission.^[6]

With the consideration of reducing the catalyst cost and simplifying the pretreatment for further conversion, improved methods employing heterogeneous catalysts have been developed in this work (Scheme 1). The previously examined aque-



Scheme 1. Transformation of LA with equimolar formic acid to GVL over heterogeneous catalysts.

ous solution of LA and formic acid can be transformed to GVL, H_2O , and CO_2 selectively in the presence of an immobilized Ru catalyst in one step. More importantly, in a two-step process, the efficiency of the whole catalytic process and the performance of recycle catalytic runs were improved obviously by using an immobilized catalyst for formic acid decomposition and Ru/TiO₂ for LA hydrogenation separately. Therefore, the heterogeneous catalysis makes the atom economic route more practical and sustainable.

We began our study by catalyst preparation via immobilizing RuCl₃ with functionalized silica according to Scheme 2. By anchoring noble metals on support, their loss can be minimized and catalyst separation can also be facilitated. Based on the observation of rapid increase of pressure inside the autoclave when formic acid was used as hydrogen resource, it is believed that the conversion of the mixture of LA and formic acid is carried out in two stages: 1) selective decomposition of fomic acid catalyzed by the Ru-based complex at the beginning of



Scheme 2. Synthesis of immobilized Ru^{II} catalysts.

the reaction and 2) the following hydrogenation of LA in the presence of high pressure H_2 and CO_2 as well as the catalyst.

Thus the three immobilized catalysts were tested in both reactions separately. The decomposition of formic acid was carried out in 4 M formic acid (HCOOH/HCOONa=9:1) aqueous solution at $120 \,^{\circ}$ C. Table 1 (entries 1–3) shows that the immobilized catalysts can decompose formic acid in water with high

Table 1. Transformation of LA and formic acid over heterogeneous catalysts.							
Entry	Catalysts	TOF of formic acid $[h^{-1}]^{[a]}$	TOF of LA [h ⁻¹] ^[b]	Overall TOF of LA $[h^{-1}]^{[c]}$			
1	Ru–N/ SiO ₂	1428	76	112			
2	Ru—S/ SiO ₂	7357	142	173			
3	Ru-P/ SiO ₂	3295	583 (453) ^[d]	447 (96%)			
4	Ru/C	< 10	5345 (5638) ^[d]	69 (7%)			
5	Pd/C	<10	68				
6	Pt/C	< 10	16				

Reaction conditions: [a] 4 M formic acid (20 mL; HCOOH/HCOONa=9:1) and catalyst (0.01 mmol, based on metal content) at 120 °C for 1 h. [b] LA (80 mmol), H₂O (10 g), 4 MPa H₂ and catalyst (0.06 mmol; 0.01 mmol Ru/C) at 150 °C for 1 h. [c] LA and formic acid (80 mmol), H₂O (10 g), NaOH (8 mmol), and catalyst (0.06 mmol) at 150 °C for 1 h; the value in parentheses is the yield of GVL obtained under the same conditions for 12 h. [d] The value in parenthesis is obtained under 4 MPa H₂ and 4 MPa CO₂.

efficiencies. The highest turnover frequency (TOF) of formic acid was 7357 h⁻¹ using Ru–S/SiO₂ and even the worst one, Ru–N/SiO₂, gives a TOF of 1428 h⁻¹ which is still much higher than the TOFs of LA for hydrogenation. The decomposition of formic acid in the presence of immobilized catalyst is carried out selectively and no CO was detected by GC (see the Supporting Information, Figure S7). Similar results were also reported by Laurenczy et al. with an aim of developing H₂ storage system.^[12] On the other hand, 4 MPa H₂ was used for hydrogenation of 4 M LA aqueous solution at 150 °C. The hydrogenation performances of the three catalysts decreased in the order $Ru-P/SiO_2 > Ru-S/SiO_2 > Ru-N/SiO_2$. The $Ru-P/SiO_2$, which is a simulate of $RuCl_3/PPh_3$ or $[Ru(PPh_3)_3Cl_2]$, showed the highest activity (TOF = 583 h^{-1}) whereas the Ru–S/SiO₂ and Ru–N/SiO₂ gave TOFs of 142 and 76, respectively. Thus it is clear that the hydrogenation of LA in water is the rate determining step for the conversion of LA and formic acid in the presence of Ru-P/ SiO₂ or Ru–S/SiO₂ or Ru–N/SiO₂. Furthermore, Ru/C, Pd/C and Pt/C were also tested under 4 MPa H₂ atmosphere. Remarkably,

compared to the other catalysts, Ru/C showed excellent performance of hydrogenation giving a TOF of 5345 h⁻¹. However, the yield of GVL from the mixture of LA and formic acid catalyzed by Ru/C was rather low (only 7% for 12 h), which could be attributed to its inability to catalyze the decomposition of formic acid for H₂ generation and the low efficiency of transfer hydrogenation at 150 °C. The TOF of formic acid over Ru/C was less than 10 h⁻¹ and only 1% of formic acid was converted after 12 h.

Regarding the fact that CO_2 derived from formic acid may promote the Ru-catalyzed hydrogenation of LA, a mixture gas of H₂ and CO₂ (1:1, 8 MPa) was employed for the hydrogenation test with Ru–P/SiO₂ or Ru/C. However, the TOFs of LA (Table 1, entries 3 and 4) indicated no obvious positive effect on both catalysts under the reaction condition in this study.

As we predicted, when using the Ru^{II} catalysts for transforming the aqueous mixture of LA and formic acid, the overall TOFs of the combined reactions decreased in the same order as in LA hydrogenation. Compared to the other two catalysts, Ru-P/SiO₂ gave higher overall TOFs due to its better performance for LA hydrogenation. By prolonging the reaction time to 12 h, Ru-P/SiO₂ gave a yield of 96% which is the highest record in conversion of aqueous LA solution using equimolar formic acid and demonstrated that Ru-P/SiO₂ is a bifunctional catalyst. Moreover, only 42 ug ml⁻¹ Ru was detected in the resulting mixture, corresponding to 1.4% Ru leaching of fresh Ru-P/SiO₂. According to a control experiment in which Ru-P/ SiO₂ was separated from the mixture after 1 h and fresh formic acid was added, less than 1% of GVL was generated in the presence of the leached Ru species, indicating the reaction was catalyzed by Ru–P/SiO₂, not by leached Ru species.

Based on combined transmission electron microscopy (TEM) microphotographs and energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectroscopy, ruthenium is presented atomically in Ru-P/SiO₂ without detectable clusters or nanoparticles (see the Supporting Information, Figure S1). The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) revealed that the Ru species in fresh Ru-P/SiO₂ catalysts were present in the Ru^{II} state, corresponding to the peaks with binding energies of 286.55 eV and 282.13 eV in $3d_{3/2}$ and $3d_{5/2}$ levels, respectively (Figure S2). The CP-MAS ²⁹Si NMR (CP= cross-polarization, MAS = magic angle spinning) measurements clearly showed that Ru-P/SiO₂ gave rise to a strong peak at 111.5 ppm and a weak peak at 65.2 ppm corresponding to the NMR signals of siloxane $[Q^n = Si(OSi)_n(OH)_{4-n}]$ and organosiloxane $[T^m = RSi(OSi)_m(OH)_{3-m}]$. The $T^m/(Q^n + T^m)$ ratio was about 0.06. In addition, the CP-MAS ³¹P NMR spectra of Ru-P/SiO₂ displayed two peaks at 38.7 ppm and 24.9 ppm corresponding to the –PPh₂ groups coordinated with Ru and free –PPh₂ groups. The relative integrated intensities of the two peaks were 0.82:1. Based on this value and total amount of -PPh₂ groups measured by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES) (0.39 mmol g^{-1}), the amount of $-PPh_2$ groups coordinated with Ru was about 0.17 mmolg⁻¹. Compared with the Ru content (0.14 mmol g⁻¹), this suggested that most Ru species were anchored by the -PPh₂ groups. (see the Supporting Information for more details of catalyst characterization).

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When Ru-P/SiO₂ was used repetitively for three times at 150 °C for 12 h, the yield of GVL decreased remarkably to 43%. The hydrogenation of LA was not completed over used catalyst. However, most formic acid could be converted to CO_2 and H₂ according to the pressure inside the autoclave although the reaction rate was lowered. Time needed to reach the maximum pressure increased from 20 min to 45 min by the used Ru-P/SiO₂. The XPS clearly showed that after three catalytic runs, the Ru^{II} species were partially reduced to Ru⁰ state with binding energies of 284.85 eV and 280.75 eV in the $3d_{3/2}$ and $3d_{5/2}$ levels, respectively (see the Supporting Information, Figure S2).

To improve the durability and efficiency of the reaction system for practical applications, we attempted to combine the advantages of both Ru-P/SiO₂ and Ru/C in two stages by adding them together into the aqueous mixture of LA and formic acid. Unfortunately, the yield of GVL was only 30% after 6 h. We suspected the unreacted formic acid (or formate) poisoned Ru/C. Indeed, 50 mmol L⁻¹ formate or formic acid significantly inhibits the hydrogenation of LA catalyzed by Ru/C and the inhibition does not vanish until the concentration of formate is 10 mmol L⁻¹ (Table 2, entries 5 and 6). Thus the amount of formic acid should be controlled carefully for the following hydrogenation of LA. At this point, the concentration of the residual formic acid was analyzed by HPLC after decomposition in water at 150 °C for 1 h; as a result, 39 mmol L⁻¹ formate was observed (see the Supporting Information, Table S2).

Based on these results, a two-step transformation for GVL synthesis has been developed. In the first step, the mixture of LA and formic acid was subjected to $Ru-P/SiO_2$ at $170 \,^{\circ}C$ for 1 h to decompose most formic acid. Then the resulting mixture from which $Ru-P/SiO_2$ was recovered was converted to GVL with 4.5 MPa H₂ (as the H₂ generated in situ) and Ru/TiO_2 which was tolerant to formic acid (Table 2, entry 7). As shown in Figure 1, the molar yield of GVL was over 88% via this two-step transformation. Moreover, recycle catalytic runs have also been performed with high efficiency and no severe deactivation of both catalysts was observed. The yields of GVL in eight recycle runs ranged from 88% to 93%. In principal, the aqueous mixture of LA and formic acid can be processed continu-

Entry ^[a]	Catalysts	Time [h]	Hydrogen source	Molar yield of GVL [%]
1	$Ru-P/SiO_2+Ru/C^{[b]}$	3	Formic acid	21
2	$Ru-P/SiO_2+Ru/C^{[b]}$	6	Formic acid	30
3	Ru/C ^[c]	1	4 MPa H ₂	67
4	Ru/C ^[d]	1	4 MPa H ₂	2
5	Ru/C ^[e]	1	4 MPa H ₂	5
6	Ru/C ^[f]	1	4 MPa H ₂	49
7	Ru/TiO ₂ ^[d]	1	4 MPa H ₂	63

(0.03 mmol). [c] Ru/C (0.01 mmol). [d] Catalyst (0.01 mmol) and formic acid (2 mmol). [e] Ru/C (0.01 mmol), formic acid (1 mmol) or sodium formate (1 mmol). [f] Ru/C (0.01 mmol) and formic acid (0.2 mmol).



Figure 1. Two-step conversion of LA and formic acid to GVL in recycle catalytic runs. Reaction conditions: first step: LA and formic acid (80 mmol), H₂O (10 g) and Ru–P/SiO₂ (0.05 mmol) at 170 °C for 1 h; second step: H₂ (4.5 MPa) and Ru/TiO₂ (0.01 mmol) at 170 °C for 2 h.

ously in a dual-bed ($Ru-P/SiO_2$ and Ru/TiO_2) tubular reactor. Therefore, the two-step transformation seems more attractive and the further attempts of the continuous process are underway.

Finally, a safety issue around the formation of 2-methyl-tetrahydrofuran (2-Me-THF) from the over reduction of GVL was taken into consideration, because this unwanted byproduct readily generates peroxides which are dangerous during production, storage, transportation, and use.^[13] According to the GC–MS analysis, the 2-Me-THF was not observed (<2 mg L⁻¹) under one-step or two-step reaction conditions. Even prolonging the reaction time to 12 h, no 2-Me-THF was detected from the two-step conversion (see the Supporting Information, Figure S6). Thus, the safety of the GVL production, storage, and further applications can be guaranteed.

In summary, we proposed the transformation of LA in water with equimolar formic acid to GVL over heterogeneous Rubased catalysts without using the external H₂. Ru–P/SiO₂ performs as a bifunctional catalyst with the capability to decompose formic acid and hydrogenate LA in one step giving 96% GVL. More importantly, an efficient two-step process has been developed by employing Ru-P/SiO₂ for decomposition and Ru/ TiO₂ for hydrogenation. The two catalysts can be used repetitively for at least eight times without deactivation, indicating the two-step process is more practical for an industrial production of GVL. Furthermore, no hazardous 2-Me-THF is produced in this process.

Experimental Section

All the catalytic experiments were carried out in a 50 mL autoclave made of zirconium alloy or a 50 mL stainless steel autoclave. Before each run, H_2 was used to exclude the air. The mixture of substrates and catalyst was heated to the desired temperature in 20 min with vigorous stirring. To recover the catalyst, the resulting mixture after reaction was filtrated. The used catalyst was added to the mixture of LA and formic acid directly for the next run. After

the reaction, the mixture was analyzed by GC–MS (Thermal Trace GC Ultra with a PolarisQ ion trap mass spectrometer) equipped with a TR-35MS capillary column ($30 \text{ m} \times 0.25 \text{ mm} \times 0.25 \text{ µm}$). The concentration of formic acid was analyzed by a HPLC system consisting of a Waters 1525 pump, a Waters $5C_{18}$ -PAQ column ($4.6 \times 250 \text{ mm}$) and a Waters 2414 refractive index detector. H₂SO₄ (5 mm) was used as the mobile phase at a flow rate of 1 mL min^{-1} or 0.6 mLmin⁻¹. The gas was sampled for analysis using a GC with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and a flame ionization detector (FID). The components were determined by the external standard method using calibration gases (see the Supporting Information for more details).

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