

1 **Engineering Aspects of Hydrothermal Pretreatment: From Batch to Continuous** 2 **Operation, Scale-up and Pilot Reactor Under Biorefinery Concept**

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33 **ABSTRACT**

34 Different pretreatments strategies have been developed over the years mainly to
35 enhance enzymatic cellulose degradation. In the new biorefinery era, a more holistic view
36 on pretreatment is required to secure optimal use of the whole biomass. Hydrothermal
37 pretreatment technology is regarded as very promising for lignocellulose biomass
38 fractionation biorefinery and to be implemented at the industrial scale for biorefineries of
39 second generation and circular bioeconomy, since it does not require no chemical inputs
40 other than liquid water or steam and heat. This review focuses on the fundamentals of
41 hydrothermal pretreatment, structure changes of biomass during this pretreatment,
42 multiproduct strategies in terms of biorefinery, reactor technology and engineering aspects
43 from batch to continuous operation. The treatise includes a case study of hydrothermal
44 biomass pretreatment at pilot plant scale and integrated process design.

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47 **Keywords:** Severity parameter, Bioeconomy, Steam Explosion, Liquid Hot Water, Pilot Plant,
48 Biomass, Autohydrolysis

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57 1. Introduction

58 Natural lignocellulosic biomass is essentially resistant to direct enzymatic saccharification. This
59 is due to the tight bonding and close molecular packing of the polymeric constituents
60 cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin in the cell walls of the biomass as well as the crystalline
61 nature of cellulose. For this reason, in biorefinery processes, a pretreatment step, usually
62 involving treatment of the biomass at increased temperature and pressure (hydrothermal
63 treatment) is introduced for biomass fractionation as first step in a lignocellulosic biorefinery
64 (Sun et al. 2016; Ruiz et al. 2017). These pretreatment processes are mainly intended to
65 enhance the amenability of the cellulose to enzymatic deconstruction, but also induce
66 changes in the plant biomass cell wall structures and alter the biomass composition
67 (Kristensen et al. 2008; Pedersen and Meyer, 2010a; Sun et al. 2016). For large scale
68 processes, hydrothermal pretreatment has the advantage that it is more gentle towards the
69 reactor material than acid and alkaline processes, even though some acetate may form during
70 the hydrothermal pretreatment due to deacetylation of xylan at elevated temperature
71 (Pedersen and Meyer, 2010a).

72 Although originally developed mainly for cellulose-to-ethanol processes, these various
73 hydrothermal pretreatment methods are now being adapted to various lignocellulosic
74 biorefinery processes, which is why their differentiated influence on the biomass composition
75 is of critical significance. In addition to introducing more amorphous regions in the cellulose, a
76 hydrothermal pretreatment invariably results in partial fractionation of the biomass due to
77 solubilization of hemicellulose (mainly xylan) and redistribution of lignin (Kristensen et al.
78 2008; Pedersen and Meyer, 2010b; Ruiz et al. 2012a). Although the hydrothermal
79 pretreatment is intended to improve the enzymatic cellulose saccharification, elevated
80 temperature and higher pretreatment severity also forms inhibitors compounds, mainly
81 arising from xylose self-condensation reactions that form highly potent oligophenolic and
82 bicyclic enzyme inhibitors (Rasmussen et al. 2017a; Rasmussen et al. 2017b). Despite the
83 enhanced formation of inhibitors, overall, at higher severity more hemicellulose is solubilized,
84 and the enzymatic cellulose hydrolysis is generally improved (Yan and Wyman, 2004;
85 Pedersen et al. 2010a).

86 Newer data indicate that surface properties of the pretreated biomass, including the
87 wettability, represented as surface hydrophobicity measured by droplet contact angle
88 measurements, are critical factors affecting enzymatic cellulose biomass saccharification at
89 least for grass biomass lignocellulose (Djajadi et al. 2017). Despite this recent progress the
90 quantitative aspects of the molecular and structural changes occurring in lignocellulosic
91 biomass upon hydrothermal pretreatment are not properly understood. With a new vision to
92 also exploit the lignin more in biorefineries – or even prioritize lignin utilization above
93 cellulose and xylan use the field warrants more research. A deeper understanding of the
94 interplay between the biomass chemistry, biophysical traits, and enzymatic digestibility is a
95 crucial prerequisite for development of new sustainable biorefining processes for the circular
96 economy era. Thus, this review focuses on the most recent works and developments of
97 hydrothermal pretreatment under biorefinery concept for biomass fractionation. The
98 fundamental, structure changes of biomass, multiproduct in terms of biorefinery, reactor
99 technology and engineering aspects from batch to continuous operation, integrated process
100 design using hydrothermal pretreatment are reviewed. A case study for hydrothermal pilot
101 plant in Brazil is also provided.

102 **2. Fundamental and Operation of Hydrothermal Pretreatment**

103 Hydrothermal processing (also known as liquid hot water, hydrothermolysis, subcritical water
104 treatment, autohydrolysis) is applied to lignocellulosic materials (LCM) pretreatment include a
105 wide range of operational conditions, e.g., temperature, resident time, particle size, water to
106 solid biomass ratio, among others and it is usually performed at 150-230°C for 10-50 minutes
107 and pressures (approx. 4.9-20 bars), because the treatment severity is a compromise between
108 the intention to amend the cellulose to enzymatic attack, avoid production of cellulase
109 inhibitors that may retard the enzymatic efficacy and biomass fractionation (Pedersen and
110 Meyer, 2010a; Rasmussen et al., 2014; Aguilar et al., 2018a, Pino et al., 2018).

111 Depending on temperature and pressure, two types of processes can be differentiated:
112 subcritical operations (below the critical point of water, i.e., 373°C and 22.1 MPa) and
113 supercritical processes beyond this point. Hydrothermal pretreatments should comply with a

114 number of attributes that could be desirable for any advances pretreatment method. As
115 described by Bhutto et al. (2017), it must be cost effective (avoiding for example the need for
116 expensive or very resistant construction materials, catalyst, reagents or neutralization steps);
117 require low energy (for example avoiding the need of using feedstock of small size); and easily
118 to be included in a process integrations and intensification scheme.

119 The hydrothermal pretreatment with water or steam brings about auto-ionization of water
120 into H_3O^+ and OH^- , which in turn causes the water to act as a catalyst which induces acetate
121 release from xylan and hydrolysis of the glycosidic bonds in the xylan and the subsequent
122 decrease of the pH of the medium acts as a catalyst for the hydrolysis reactions (Pedersen and
123 Meyer, 2010b; Kapu et al., 2016). These events in combination stimulate depolymerization of
124 the hemicellulose (xylan), but do not cause significant cellulose hydrolysis (Ruiz et al. 2012b;
125 Ruiz et al. 2013a). In any case, the extent of hemicellulose solubilization and
126 depolymerization are influenced by the operational conditions (temperature and time,
127 mainly), which is expressed as severity factor $[\log R_0]$ (Overend and Chornet, 1987; Chornet
128 and Overend, 2017; Ruiz et al. 2017)– the details of the severity factor and its various forms is
129 discussed in Pedersen and Meyer (2010a).

130 Liquid Hot Water (LHW) and uncatalyzed steam explosion (SE) are the two prominent
131 examples of hydrothermal pretreatment processes for LCM. Both use no other chemicals than
132 water, so they do not present negative effects from an environmental point of view. The
133 removal of hemicelluloses is considered the main reason for the changes detected in the SE-
134 pretreated materials, resulting in an improved accessibility to cellulolytic enzymes, while this
135 is attributed to structural and chemical changes in the lignin fraction in the case of LHW
136 pretreatment. Comparing LHW and steam explosion SE pretreatments, the sudden release of
137 the high pressure has been reported to be responsible of the increase of accessibility to the
138 cellulose backbone and thus the improvement of enzymatic hydrolysis. Results obtained
139 applying LHW or SE may differ based on the LCM and operational conditions and it is not clear
140 whether or not the sudden release of pressure in the case of SE produces a beneficial effect
141 (Pielhop et al. 2016). SE combines mechanical effects (steam causes a mechanical fracture on
142 fiber when it is released following pressure drop) with the chemical action derived from the

143 hydrolysis of acetyl groups. Table 1 shows the comparison between LHW and SE
144 pretreatments in terms of operational conditions and process advantages.

145 **2.1 Structure Changes of Cellulose During Hydrothermal Pretreatment**

146 The structure of cellulose, like crystallinity and degree of polymerization (DP), changes slightly
147 during most actual hydrothermal pretreatment process. Sun et al. (2015a) evaluated the
148 effect of hydrothermal pretreatment at 110-210°C for 0.5-2.0 h on the saccharification ratio of
149 sweet sorghum stem. It was found that the crystallinity of the substrates increased to some
150 extent. Similarly, Xiao et al. (2014) pretreated bamboo with hot water at 140-200°C for 10-120
151 min to improve the enzymatic hydrolysis of the pretreated substrates. After the pretreatment,
152 the cellulose crystallinity elevated slightly with the increasing pretreatment severity, but the
153 crystalline cellulose was not remarkably affected by the hydrothermal pretreatment. The
154 increased crystallinity is mostly achieved by the removal of amorphous components (mainly
155 hemicelluloses and lignin).

156 The degradation of cellulose at relatively high hydrothermal pretreatment severity has also
157 been explored to understand its degradation behavior in deep (Pino et al., 2019). Normally,
158 the crystalline cellulose is more difficult to be hydrolyzed than the amorphous cellulose. Yu
159 and Wu, (2010) reported that the glycosidic bonds of the amorphous cellulose started
160 breaking slowly from 150°C, while the cleavage of the glycosidic bonds in the crystalline
161 cellulose occurred from 180°C. Thus, the removal of amorphous cellulose at relatively severe
162 hydrothermal pretreatment conditions can improve the crystallinity of cellulose to some
163 degree. Li et al. (2017) examined the effect of hydrothermal pretreatment severity factors
164 [$\log R_0$] between 3.6 to 4.2 on the chemical-structural alteration of fast-grown poplar (*Populus*
165 *trichocarpa*). The cellulose crystallinity increased 6-9%, while its degree of polymerization
166 decreased 35-65% after the pretreatment. Ma et al. (2013) investigated the degradation
167 behavior of cellulose at 150-180°C with different duration (20-240 min). A slightly higher DP
168 than raw material was observed at low temperature pretreatment because of the dissolution
169 of reactive cellulose with low DP. Treatment at higher temperature ($\geq 170^\circ\text{C}$) caused severe
170 cleavage of cellulose and therefore gave rise to low DP with better solubility. Normally,

171 cellulose with low DP is beneficial to increase the number of reducing ends of cellulose chain
172 and make cellulose more reactive to the enzymes, thus improving its enzymatic hydrolysis
173 efficiency.

174 **2.2 Structure Changes of Hemicelluloses During Hydrothermal Pretreatment**

175 Among the main components of biomass, hemicelluloses are the most thermo-chemically
176 sensitive (Agbor et al., 2011). Hemicelluloses within plant cell walls are thought to 'coat'
177 cellulose-fibrils and the removal of hemicelluloses can significantly increase the accessibility of
178 enzyme to cellulose. Generally, with the increase of the hydrothermal pretreatment severity
179 [$\log R_0$], the removal of hemicelluloses increases constantly, and most hemicelluloses can be
180 dissolved into the liquor phase at 160-180°C. Recently, several studies have explored the
181 effects of hydrothermal pretreatment on the removal of hemicelluloses and the chemical
182 composition of the hydrolysate (Sun et al., 2015b; Wang et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2018). Chen
183 et al. (2018) investigated the degradation behavior of hemicelluloses from wheat straw at
184 120-200°C in the process of hydrothermal pretreatment and reported that the hemicelluloses
185 content gradually decreased from 27.06 to 0.74% as temperature increased. In the
186 hydrolysate (liquid phase), the concentrations of xylose, xylooligosaccharides (XOS) and
187 glucooligosaccharides increased dramatically from 0.34, 2.49 and 3.17 to 6.04, 61.69 and 8.16
188 g/kg wheat straw with the rise of temperature from 120 to 180°C, and then decreased to 1.87,
189 1.27 and 1.08 g/kg wheat straw as the temperature further rose to 200 °C, respectively. After
190 the hydrothermal pretreatment, a small amount of hemicelluloses still remain in the
191 lignocellulosic residues (Sun et al., 2014a; Li et al., 2017). Accompanying with the
192 solubilization and depolymerization of hemicelluloses, the molecular weights of the remaining
193 hemicelluloses exhibited significant reduction (60-75%) after the fast-grown poplar was
194 hydrothermally pretreated at different severity factors ($[\log R_0] = 3.6-4.2$) (Li et al., 2017).

195 **2.3 Structure Changes of Lignin During Hydrothermal Pretreatment**

196 Lignin is considered as the most recalcitrant component of the major plant cell wall
197 biopolymers. At the typically used hydrothermal pretreatment temperatures, the lignin turns
198 into a fluid-like state (depending on its glass transition temperature (T_g)), and the

199 pretreatment heating and subsequent cooling will cause the lignin to relocate within and on
200 the cell wall material and simultaneously, a small amount of lignin will dissolve in the hot
201 water. Droplets of recondensed lignin thus redeposit on the surface of the material after
202 pretreatment (Donohoe et al. 2008). This relocation improves accessibility of the cellulases to
203 the cellulose in the biomass as a larger cellulose area is exposed upon lignin removal and re-
204 deposition. A few reports suggest that the lignin droplets themselves may sterically retard the
205 cellulolytic enzymes attack or partially or temporarily adsorb some of the cellulase enzyme
206 protein molecules (Selig et al. 2007; Li et al. 2014). Therefore, only a small amount of lignin is
207 dissolved in the hydrolysate for most hydrothermal pretreatment process, and the removal of
208 lignin is related to the pretreatment severity (Pu et al., 2013). Sun et al. (2014b) observed that
209 the pretreatment at 100-180°C resulted in 0.9-13.2% lignin removal of thermo-mechanical
210 fiber from *Eucalyptus urophylla*. Likewise, a decrease of 12% lignin from corn stover after the
211 pretreatment at 200°C for 20 min was also reported in a previous literature (Liu and Wyman,
212 2005). Therefore, a relatively comparable or higher lignin and cellulose content could be
213 detected in the hydrothermally pretreated biomass because of the extensive removal of
214 hemicelluloses and/or the formation of pseudo-lignin at much higher hydrothermal
215 pretreatment severity (Xiao et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2018).

216 During the hydrothermal pretreatment, the dominant reactions for lignin are the cleavage of
217 β -O-4 linkages and acid-catalyzed condensation (Pu et al., 2013). Hydrothermal pretreatment
218 with mild severity usually causes a decline in molecular weight of lignin due to the cleavage of
219 β -O-4 linkages. A decrease of 8% in lignin molecular weight was detected when *Tamarix*
220 *ramosissima* stalks were subjected to hydrothermal pretreatment at 170°C for 2 h (Xiao et al.,
221 2012). A decrease of 46-85% for lignin molecular weight in the hydrothermally pretreated
222 poplar at 150-200°C was also observed in a previous work (Samuel et al., 2013), suggesting
223 that depolymerization was the dominant reaction rather than recondensation. However, the
224 broken lignin fragments may be condensed under much severe pretreatment conditions,
225 resulting in an increase in the molecular weight of lignin (Pu et al., 2013). During the
226 hydrothermal pretreatment process, lignin or its dissolved fragments may coalesce and
227 migrate within and out of the cell wall and redeposit on the surface of the lignocellulosic

228 residues (Donohoe et al., 2008). In the process of the following enzymatic hydrolysis, the
229 redeposited lignin hinders the accessibility of cellulase to cellulose via physical barrier and
230 nonspecific adsorption of cellulase on the lignin. Thus, the pseudo-lignin and re-deposition of
231 the formed lignin droplets significantly impact the cellulose hydrolysis (Selig et al., 2007; Ruiz
232 et al., 2011a; Ruiz et al., 2012a; Hu et al., 2012; Pino et al., 2019).

233 **2.4 Distribution Changes on Plant Cell Walls During Hydrothermal Pretreatment**

234 Besides the content and structure changes of the main components in lignocellulosic
235 biomass, various technologies have been developed to explore the microscopic distribution
236 changes of these major components during the hydrothermal pretreatment. The study on the
237 distribution changes of these main components is not only beneficial to understand the
238 dissolution mechanism of different components from the cell walls, but also to design and
239 optimize pretreatment strategies. Therefore, the changes in the distributions of the main cell
240 wall components during hydrothermal pretreatment are discussed in this section.

241 Nowadays, a novel glycome profiling technique has been developed to monitor
242 structural/extractability changes in untreated and hydrothermally-pretreated biomass. Results
243 from this technology demonstrated that during the hydrothermal pretreatment pectins and
244 arabinogalactans were firstly dissolved, followed by the obvious dissolution of xylans and
245 xyloglucans (DeMartini et al., 2011). Ma et al. (2014) investigated the topochemical changes of
246 poplar cell walls before and after the hydrothermal pretreatment (170°C, 0-40 min) by
247 confocal Raman microscopy (CRM). They found that as the pretreatment time prolonged,
248 hemicelluloses and lignin were gradually dissolved from the cell wall, resulting in the exposure
249 of cellulose. Additionally, the micro-distribution of xylan in poplar fiber cell walls during the
250 hydrothermal pretreatment was also studied by Ma et al. (2015) using transmission electron
251 microscopy (TEM) in combination with immunogold labeling. It was reported that the lignin-
252 free xylan was initially removed from the S2 layer, then the S1 layer, and then the xylan
253 covalently bounded with lignin was removed from the S2 layer with the removal of lignin.
254 However, the xylan tightly bound to the surface of cellulose microfibrils was hardly removed.

255 For a better understanding of biomass surface changes during the hydrothermal
256 pretreatment, especially the topochemical variation of lignin distribution, time-of-flight
257 secondary ion mass spectrometry (ToF-SIMS) combined scanning electron microscope (SEM)
258 has been used to provide chemical information directly from the surface of biomass without
259 sample treatment such as matrix application or isotopic labeling (Jung et al., 2018). The
260 topochemical variation of lignin distribution during hydrothermal flowthrough pretreatment
261 at 160 °C for 10-150 min was explored by Jung et al. (2018). Their results showed that more
262 lignin was found on the surface of biomass at the early stage, while the lignin mainly observed
263 at the cell corners was gradually reduced by extended pretreatment time. Additionally, due to
264 the auto-fluorescence properties of lignin, confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) is also
265 used to detect the location and relative concentration of lignin. When *Eucalyptus globulus* was
266 subjected to hydrothermal pretreatment, a substantial amount of fluorescent droplets
267 covered the fiber surfaces, suggesting the migration and re-localization of lignin, and the
268 phenomenon was increased as the pretreatment severity increased (Arévalo et al., 2017).
269 Meanwhile, atomic force microscopy (AFM) showed that the pretreated surfaces appeared
270 roughness and coalescence droplets and this phenomenon was more obvious in the samples
271 treated at more severe conditions (Arévalo et al., 2017). The spatial distribution of lignin,
272 hydroxycinnamic acids (HCA), and cellulose in the cell walls of four energy crops before and
273 after the hydrothermal treatment were measured by CRM at subcellular level *In situ* (Li et al.,
274 2018). It was investigated that after the pretreatment, the concentrations of lignin and HCA in
275 the same cell types were declined as compared to the corresponding raw crops. The removal
276 of lignin mainly occurred in the sclerenchyma fiber (Sf), especially in the secondary wall (SW)
277 layers, as compared with that in the parenchyma (Par). By contrast, cellulose concentrations
278 were increased in the pretreated crops for the same cell types, especially at the Sf, indicating
279 the increased exposure of cellulose. Holopainen-Mantila et al. (2013) also reported that the
280 cellulose concentration increased after pretreatment by the detecting the increment of
281 cellulose Calcofluor staining in the cell wall level, which was due to removal of other cell wall
282 components, thus leading to an increase in the relative amount of cellulose and further
283 improving the subsequent enzymatic hydrolysis.

284 **3. Multiproduct Biorefinery using Hydrothermal Pretreatment**

285 The development and feasibility of a lignocellulosic biorefinery depends on the pretreatment
286 selected for the biomass processing since the recalcitrant structure of lignocellulosic biomass
287 is the first barrier for a marketing of its main fractions (cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin) in
288 terms of biorefinery concept (Garrote et al. 1999; Gullón et al., 2012; Ruiz et al. 2013a; Ruiz et
289 al. 2013b; Ruiz et al. 2017).

290 The last few decades, great efforts have been devoted looking for a cost-efficient
291 pretreatment to produce second generation biofuels or lignocellulosic biofuels for their large-
292 scale commercialization. In this sense, the hydrothermal treatment has been gaining
293 importance. Hydrothermal pretreatment is one of the most referenced treatments used to
294 increase the enzymatic accessibility towards cellulose (Romaní et al. 2010; Ruiz et al. 2013a).
295 The authors approached important factors influencing enzymatic saccharification of
296 hydrothermally pretreated biomass, namely: soluble degradation compounds derived from
297 pretreatment (such as furfural, hydroxymethylfurfural, acetic acid and phenolic compounds),
298 the effect of remained lignin after hydrothermal pretreatment, structural characteristics (as
299 described above), feedback inhibition of cellobiose and the importance to operate at high
300 solid loadings to attain a final ethanol titre, reducing operational cost of distillation (Romaní et
301 al., 2012; Zhuang et al., 2016; Pino et al., 2019). Recently, a horizontal bioreactor was
302 designed to carried out the enzymatic saccharification of hydrothermally pretreated (194°C
303 for 30 min) agave bagasse at 25 % w/v, achieving 195.6 g/L of glucose with a cellulose
304 conversion of 98 % (Pino et al., 2019).

305 Hydrothermal pre-treatment (aqueous extraction) at milder temperatures (as for example
306 130°C) has been reported as a sustainable process for the extraction of non-structural
307 components as extractives (rich in bioactive compounds such as antioxidant phenols,
308 stilbenes, flavonoids and terpenes) (Conde et al., 2014). Despite the low concentration of
309 these bioactive compounds in the lignocellulosic extractives, they are considered high value
310 compounds with application in pharmaceutical, nutraceutical and cosmetic industries, which
311 could improve the economic profitability of a lignocellulosic biorefinery. In this regard, vine

312 pruning residues were submitted to water extraction at 120°C for 40 min using microwave-
313 assisted technology to obtain total phenolic compounds (2.4 g gallic acid equivalent/100 g raw
314 material), composed mainly by flavonoids, with antioxidant activity (Jesus et al., 2019). After
315 this, the extractive-free lignocellulosic biomass could be further processed to separate its
316 main structural components (Figure 1). By using the classic hydrothermal pretreatment as a
317 fractionation technology for obtaining: 1) A hemicellulose rich stream - in most cases this
318 fraction will mainly consist of xylo-oligosaccharides from which a fan of value-added products
319 can be obtained (Figure 1); 2) A cellulose-hydrolysate stream resulting from proper enzymatic
320 degradation of the cellulose in the biomass (Figure 1); 3) A lignin fraction (Figure 1).
321 Combined with new enzyme discoveries, such as CE15 glucuronoyl esterases able to catalyze
322 cleavage of lignin-carbohydrate complexes in biomass (d'Errico et al., 2016; Mosbech et al.
323 2018) it may be possible to improve the resource use further by e.g. polishing the lignin
324 enzymatically to allow new uses of lignin as well, in total generating a sequential biorefinery
325 processing scheme for lignocellulosic biomass (Figure 1).

326 Several feedstocks (such as *Eucalyptus wood*, wheat straw, corn cob) have been submitted to
327 hydrothermal pretreatment under non-isothermal and isothermal conditions to obtain
328 xylooligosaccharides (XOS) (Gullón et al., 2010; Ruiz et al., 2011b; Romaní et al., 2011;
329 Michelin et al., 2018). These XOS are considered functional foods with interesting prebiotic
330 features that have health benefits (Gullón et al., 2010). Products obtained from
331 hemicellulose, cellulose and lignin using hydrothermal processing for the fractionation of
332 lignocellulosic biomass in terms of biorefinery are summarized in Table 2. Recently, a ~50%
333 XOS yield was obtained from hydrothermal pretreatment of sugarcane bagasse at 200°C for
334 10 min (Zhang et al., 2018). Under an isothermal regime (180°C for 20 min [$\log R_0$] =3.85),
335 15.31 g/L of XOS were obtained from hydrothermal pretreatment of agave bagasse (Aguilar et
336 al., 2018b). Hydrothermal pretreatment followed by an acid post-hydrolysis has also been
337 used to obtain monosaccharides as xylose for the production of xylitol, lactic acid and ethanol
338 by fermentation processes (Cubas-Cano et al., 2019; Cunha et al., 2019). Furan compounds
339 (furfural and hydroxymethylfurfural) are other important building blocks (included by U.E.
340 Energy Department in the top value-added chemicals) that can be obtained from

341 hemicellulose by depolymerization of pentoses and hexoses. Hydrolysate obtained from
342 hydrothermal treatment (under non-isothermal regime at 196°C) of *Eucalyptus* wood was also
343 used for furfural production (Peleteiro et al., 2016).

344 Non-saccharides compounds (as lignin-derived phenolic compounds) are present in liquid
345 phase from hydrothermal pretreatments. These phenolics (such as benzoic acid, cinnamic
346 acids and flavonoids) are value-added compounds due to interesting biological activities,
347 including: antioxidant, cardioprotective, neuroprotective, anticancer, anti-inflammation,
348 antimicrobial and antiaging) (Gullón et al., 2017). Amendola et al. (2012) proposed the
349 combination of two environmental friendly processes for the fractionation of grape stalks and
350 they recovered 2% of total phenolics from the hydrolysate obtained by hydrothermal
351 treatment (180°C for 30 min). Recently, the antioxidant and antibacterial effects of phenolic
352 compounds present in autohydrolysis liquor of vine shoots were evaluated (Gullón et al.,
353 2017).

354 Besides the ethanol production from hydrothermal treated lignocellulosic biomass, this
355 process had been used for the production of other biofuels such as butanol (Cebreiros et al.,
356 2019). Recently, autohydrolyzed coffee silverskin for biobutanol production by acetone-
357 butanol-ethanol fermentation using a *Clostridium beijerinckii* CECT 508 (Hijosa-Valsero et al.,
358 2018). Overall, the hydrothermal pretreatment allows to be used alone or combined with
359 other biotechnological processes (organosolv or alkali) to obtain a wide spectrum of
360 manufacturing products (such as biofuels, chemicals and food additives) (Chen et al., 2016).
361 Moreover, the use of water as only reaction media enables the downstream processing.

362 **4. Reactor Technology and Engineering Aspects of Hydrothermal Pretreatment**

363 **4.1 Batch Reactor Technology: Liquid hot water and Steam Explosion**

364 There are different configurations reactors and technologies for hydrothermal pretreatment
365 applied to the fractionation of the main components of lignocellulosic biomass. In general
366 terms, the most common operation mode is the batch configuration reactor at different scale
367 levels from bench (0.025 – 3L) and pilot scale (15 – 350 L). For LHW batch reactor the

368 lignocellulosic biomass (solid particles) and liquid water are mixed and loaded together into
369 the reactor, heat-up and left to react during a certain time of residence. However, this
370 operating condition depends on whether it is an isothermal or non-isothermal regimen.
371 Easiness of operation, non-expensive design, easy scale-up, possibility of fast heat transfer (if
372 direct steaming as steam explosion batch reactor), control system and operation at several
373 Liquid/biomass ratios are mentioned as its main advantages; while large heat consumptions,
374 and challenging heat recovery are the disadvantages. According to Ruiz et al. (2013a) and Ruiz
375 et al. (2017) reported that there are different heat transfer phenomena: conduction,
376 convection or radiation, depending on the heating source used in the reactor as electrical
377 heating, microwave radiation, steam injection, thermal oil jacket, oil bath and fluidized sand
378 baths (Ruiz et al. 2011a; Ruiz et al. 2011b). Aguilar et al. (2017) studied and compared two
379 heating forms as conduction-convection and radiation (microwave) in the production ethanol
380 production using corn residues as raw material, obtaining 87.33% (and 92% of conversion
381 ethanol yield for conduction-convection and microwave processing, respectively. Gonçalves et
382 al. (2015) produced xylooligosaccharides (16.52 g/L) from mature coconut shell at (200°C/50
383 min) using an oil bath as heating source of LHW. In regarding to kinetics and mass transfer of
384 hemicellulose solubilization and depolymerization during LWH (autohydrolysis) in batch mode,
385 Mittal et al. (2009) proposed a mathematical model of first order kinetics that can be correlate
386 the deacetylation of xylan, xylooligomers and xylose in the liquid phase.

387 On the other hand, the severity parameter $[\log R_0]$ can be considered as a strategy of scaling-
388 up process in batch mode operation from bench-pilot-demonstration and commercial-scale
389 reactor (Overend and Chornet, 1987; Chornet and Overend, 2017; Ruiz et al. 2017; Zanuso et
390 al. 2017; Lara-Flores et al. 2018; Conrad et al. 2019), since the severity factor can relate the
391 temperature of operation (considering heating and cooling period), and residence time on the
392 biomass. In a recent work, Aguilar et al. (2018b) reported the scale-up of hydrothermal
393 pretreatment for agave biomass using the severity factor ($[\log R_0] = 4.11$), in order to obtain a
394 pretreated solid in cellulose. They scaled-up the hydrothermal pretreatment from 0.125 to
395 0.750 L. Also, there are other important scaling-up strategies for pretreatment as engineering
396 heuristics, similarity criteria and dimensional analysis. Rossner and Parra, (2017) described the

397 pilot plant for the conversion of lignocellulosic biomass (wood) into biofuels and the
398 hydrothermal batch reactor with a capacity of 88 L (10-14 kg of dry wood), installed at
399 Universidad de Concepción in Chile. They reported that the hydrothermal pretreatment is a
400 good process for eucalyptus wood compared with organosolv pretreatment using the same
401 reactor in terms of sugars recovery, the heating source for this pretreatment is using a 100-
402 kW electric heater.

403 Moreover, the SE in batch mode configuration has been reviewed by Jacquet et al. (2015),
404 Chen and Sui et al. (2017), Lara-Flores et al. (2018) and used at the pilot and full-scale plant. In
405 this process the lignocellulosic biomass is treated and fractionated with saturated steam at
406 150-230°C (similar at LHW) and short residence times (seconds to few minutes). The main
407 process effects on biomass are the high pressure into the reactor, residence time and the
408 rapid depressurization in the reactor. Jacquet et al. (2017) adapted of severity factor to
409 temperature and pH during SE, they reported that the severity parameter should include the
410 temperature and pH (related to the biomass reactivity) during the SE processing.

411 In our biorefinery research group (www.biorefinerygroup.com), the design and operation of a
412 pilot-scale tubular steam explosion batch reactor has been developed for the fractionation of
413 biomass in terms of biorefinery (Singh et al. 2019). The design of the SE reactor was developed
414 in three main stages: 1) The *conceptual engineering design* consisted mainly on the initial
415 study of feasibility and the definition of the bioreactor basic requirements; 2) *Basic*
416 *engineering design* consisted on the definition of the definitive requirements of the reactor,
417 including all the basic specifications, such as, needed components, operational strategies,
418 technical and even economical evaluation of the equipment; 3) the *detailed engineering*
419 *design* consisted on the verification of the reactor performance to confirm compliance with
420 the purpose of its design. The tubular SE pilot reactor includes: 1) biomass loading, 2) pre-
421 heating jacket, 3) tubular SE batch reactor, 4) explosion tank, 5) pretreated slurry [cellulignin
422 and hemicellulose], 6) computer control – PLC and data acquisition, 7) steam input, 8) purge
423 valve, 9) exhaust pipe, (10) electric steam boiler, (11) pressure transducer, (12) RTD. Figure 2
424 shows the schematic diagram of the tubular SE batch reactor and instrumentation in
425 Biorefinery Pilot Plant at Autonomous University of Coahuila for biomass fractionation.

426 **4.2 Semi-Continuous Reactor technology: Fixed-bed reactor and Flow-Through Reactor**

427 In the fixed-bed reactor (FBR), the biomass is retained in the reactor, while hot water is
428 pumped through. This method is called flow-through (FT) or semi-continuous pretreatment.
429 The FBR allows a fluid residence time shorter than the extraction time. The hot water induces
430 the autohydrolysis process to take place and extracts the soluble but thermally labile sugar
431 products. The hemicellulose-derived sugars leave the reaction zone continuously. Therefore,
432 degradation reactions are reduced.

433 A large variety of materials have been tested successfully using the FBR including softwood
434 and hardwood (Cabeza et al., 2016), straws (Liu and Wyman, 2003; Ingram et al., 2009), and
435 other lignocellulose biomasses from agro- and food industry (Pronyk and Mazza, 2010; Torres-
436 Mayanga et al., 2019). The particle forms tested include cut straws, wood chips, sawdust, and
437 straw pellets. The strengths of this reactor type are the high yield of hemicellulose-derived
438 sugars and the high enzymatic digestibility of the pretreated solids. The latter is due to almost
439 complete hemicellulose solubilization, high lignin particle removal by fluid drag (Yang and
440 Wyman, 2004; Reynolds and Smirnova, 2018) and avoidance of condensation reactions
441 (Cocero et al., 2018). The main drawbacks are the substantial water consumption, limited
442 reactor loading due to low bulk density, bed-compaction, and large size of reactors
443 (Archambault-Léger and Lynd, 2014; Steinbach et al., 2017).

444 A flow-through pretreatment without the addition of chemicals was first patented in 1968 by
445 Ortwin Bobleter and Gerhard Pape (Bobleter and Pape, 1968). In the second half of that
446 century, various materials were fractionated in laboratory-scale FBR reactors (Mok and Antal,
447 1992). In 2005 Liu and Wyman, (2005) proposed a partial flow operation reducing the water
448 consumption to a liquid-to-solid mass ratio of five ($L/S = 5$) (Liu and Wyman, 2005). A one-liter
449 scale reactor was first operated by Ingram et al. (2009). The research group at the Hamburg
450 University of Technology proposed the use of a cartridge for fast loading of a 3 L and 40 L FBR
451 (Reynolds et al., 2015; Reynolds et al., 2019). In 2014 Kilpeläinen et al. (2014) presented
452 results of a scale-up to a 300 L reactor, which is the largest size published today (Kilpeläinen et
453 al., 2014).

454 **4.2.2 Mode of operation**

455 The hot water flow profile, in most cases, is constant but can also be stepwise, recirculated, or
456 partially recirculated (Liu and Wyman, 2005; Schmidt et al., 2018). An upward flow in a vertical
457 setup is most common.

458 A process pressure above the water vapor pressure is applied, to ensure a liquid state of the
459 fluid. There are several techniques to introduce pressure to the reactor: (1) cold water is
460 pumped through; the air is replaced. The pressure is increased using the outlet valve; then the
461 inlet water stream is heated to the desired temperature. (2) A gas, e.g. nitrogen, is introduced
462 to the reactor to increase the pressure; then hot water is pumped into the reactor. Air and gas
463 are pressed out at the top. (3) Hot water is pumped into the unpressurized reactor, which will
464 evaporate to preheat the biomass and replace the air. The outlet valve is closed, and the
465 pressure set after the fluid has left the reactor.

466 The hot outlet steam, now called hydrolysate, is cooled below 100°C before the pressure is
467 released. A common approach to stop the extraction is to cool the reactor by pumping cold
468 water into it before releasing the pressure. A method for a fast depressurization is to stop the
469 water flow and release the pressure in a hot state. The forming steam forces the remaining
470 water out. The thermal energy of the hot effluent can be used to preheat the inlet water.
471 Alternatively, it is proposed to be utilized in the evaporation stage, reducing the energy
472 demand here (Schmidt et al., 2018). Heat is introduced to the biomass by a heated jacket, pre-
473 steaming, and the liquid hot water flow. While small research reactors are heated with
474 electrical jackets, a surrounding oven or fluidized sand bath, larger reactors make use of a
475 heating fluid in the jacket. Pre-steaming leads to fast and homogeneous heat up to a
476 temperature slightly below the processing temperature. The heat introduction by hot water is
477 inhomogeneous and takes longer than the fluid residence time. The heat transfer to the solids
478 cools the hot water. The biomass temperature near the entrance increases most rapidly.

479 Regarding the solids treatment, the FBR is operated in batch mode. Therefore, the biomass
480 needs to be loaded to the reactor and unloaded after the treatment. Three methods can be
481 distinguished. (1) In small research reactors (<1 L) the reactors are made of a pipe attached to

482 an inlet and an outlet filter at each end. Before and after the experiment, the reactor is
483 assembled and disassembled, respectively. (2) For larger reactors (3 – 40 L) a cartridge is used
484 for loading. It is a thin-walled pipe with detachable filters, which can be used as a basket. The
485 cartridge is filled with biomass, closed and lifted into the pressure vessel. A cable winch or
486 crane is used to lift the cartridge. This is necessary due to the weight, especially when filled
487 with water-soaked biomass. (3) A stationary reactor possesses removable metal filters. The
488 bottom filter is centrally attached to a metal rod, which remains inside the reactor during
489 treatment. To remove the biomass a ring is attached to the rod and hooked to a crane. The
490 filter and biomass-bed are lifted as a whole. If the bed is brittle, it is lifted slowly while being
491 manually shoveled to another vessel. For large-scale reactors, it is proposing the use of screw
492 feeders to load and unload fixed-bed reactors.

493 The most critical parameters affecting the FBR performance are the solid and liquid residence
494 times, the initial biomass loading, the particle type and size, the length to diameter ratio as
495 well as the fluid velocity and temperature. The hemicellulose removal usually reaches 90% or
496 more. The hemicellulose recovery in the hydrolysate is close to 100 % for many reported cases
497 that have a small reactor size in common (Mok and Antal, 1992; Liu and Wyman, 2003; Ingram
498 et al., 2009). Some show a high water consumption ($L/S = 45 - 390$) (Mok and Antal, 1992; Liu
499 and Wyman, 2003; Pronyk and Mazza, 2010; Cabeza et al., 2016). Experiments with reactor
500 sizes between 3 – 300 L reported a hemicellulose recovery in the range 47 – 77% (Kilpeläinen
501 et al., 2014; Reynolds et al., 2015). Kilpeläinen et al. (2014) achieved the 77 % recovery in a
502 300 L FBR using spruce sawdust, a liquid-to-solid ratio of $L/S = 22$, and a liquid residence time
503 of 12 minutes.

504 Limitations of the fixed-bed reactors are the substantial water consumption and the
505 challenging loading and unloading techniques as discussed earlier. The axial dispersion and
506 the initial bed density require consideration. The axial dispersion and the residence time
507 distribution are essential characteristics to evaluate the heat transfer and the yields of the
508 sugars and degradation products. A significant deviation from the ideal plug flow was found in
509 a 3 L FBR operated with pelleted wheat straw (Reynolds et al., 2015). In the same work, a
510 proportional dependency of the axial dispersion coefficient to the fluid velocity was

511 determined. A densely packed reactor is, on the one hand, beneficial for the reactor
512 productivity, on the other hand, it increases the pressure drop. An increasing pressure drop
513 can cause compaction of the biomass bed. This compaction, in turn, increases the pressure
514 drop. Once the compaction has started it accelerates almost exponentially (Archambault-
515 Léger and Lynd, 2014; Reynolds and Smirnova, 2018). An irreversible compaction results in the
516 abortion of the process. Such behavior was reported for ground annual lignocellulose, e.g.
517 wheat straw and bagasse, but not for ground softwood and hardwood. A maximum density of
518 140 g/L of ground bagasse allows stable operation (Archambault-Léger and Lynd, 2014).
519 Several strategies to avoid irreversible bed compaction were proposed by Reynolds and
520 Smirnova (2018): The reduction of the fluid velocity, the decrease of the reactor length to
521 diameter ratio and the use of a bed stabilizer reactor (Reynolds and Smirnova, 2018). The
522 latter is a punched plate scaffold inside the reactor that forms separate biomass chambers to
523 avoid the propagation of a compaction. These stabilization strategies indirectly affect other
524 performance parameters, thus require careful consideration. A lower density affects the
525 reactor productivity and the liquid-to-solid ratio. A lower velocity affects the extraction
526 behavior and increases the liquid residence time. Longer residence times may require lower
527 processing temperatures to avoid pentose degradation. The temperature profiles will be
528 strongly affected. The use of a bed stabilizer affects the loading and unloading characteristics.

529 For a scale-up of fixed-bed reactors for hydrothermal pretreatment, a constant fluid residence
530 time as a scale-up parameter has been used commonly. The largest scale reported is a 300 L
531 vessel, mentioned earlier. If the liquid residence time is constant, the velocity increases
532 proportionally with the height of the reactor. An increasing fluid velocity unfavorably affects
533 the pressure drop, bed compaction, and axial dispersion. These effects need to be taken into
534 consideration in scale-up.

535 Techno-economical scale-up studies of FBR based biorefineries conclude beneficial economic
536 performance (Archambault-Léger et al., 2015; Schmidt et al., 2018). Schmidt et al. (2018)
537 determined a minimum reactor number of six: one reactor in operation, four down due to the
538 time requirements to depressurize, unload, clean, load, and preheat the reactor. The sixth
539 reactor is added to account for maintenance reasons. It was calculated that a 150,000 t/a

540 wheat straw scale requires 40 m³ reactors (6 in number). The height and diameter of the 40
541 m³ reactor should be 10.8 m and 2.2 m, respectively, assuming a height to diameter ratio of 5.
542 The pretreated and wet biomass would exceed 25 t in weight. This example shows that
543 efficient biomass loading and unloading techniques are required for that scale. The use of a
544 cartridge would add to the weight requiring a heavy-duty crane with a height of
545 approximately 25 m.

546 The following challenges for the reactor design and operation need to be investigated to
547 progress towards industrialization: (1) An efficient loading and unloading technique needs to
548 be developed to reduce the reactor downtime and improve the handling. We propose the
549 development of screw feeders to load and unload the reactor. (2) The bed compaction must
550 be avoided, and its occurrence better understood. (3) Future research should focus on the
551 strengths of the fixed-bed reactor, which are the high degree of solubilization, and
552 hemicellulose recovery in the liquid stream. For this purpose, lower temperatures and longer
553 liquid residence times are recommended. To promote a homogeneous temperature profile
554 pre-steaming of the biomass bed is suggested.

555 **4.3 Continuous Reactor Technology**

556 Continuous mode of operation is usually preferred at a commercial scale, in order to
557 guarantee a profitable operation. Therefore, testing pretreatment proposals at a pilot scale is
558 a crucial step in the development of technology for commercial applications (Elander, 2013). It
559 is at this scale in which operational issues arise related to momentum, mass and energy
560 transfer. Handling of biomass, operational and process control are other aspects that are also
561 relevant at continuous pilot-scale. All these aspects affect the process safety, environmental
562 impact and profitability of a particular technology.

563 Continuous pretreatment by means of a screw conveyor reactor (SCR) is a technology
564 alternative, among others, that have been explored during the past years, capitalizing in
565 previous scientific and engineering knowledge from mining, solids handling and pulp and
566 paper industries (Elander, 2013). An important research topic has been to elucidate the

567 effectiveness of this pretreatment technology on making sugars available for downstream
568 processing (i.e., enzymatic digestibility).

569 **4.3.1 Continuous Reactor Technology: Screw Conveyor Reactor (SCR)**

570 The screw conveyor reactor (SCR), also referred to as horizontal digester, Pandia digester,
571 continuous tubular reactor (CTR), and others, is a horizontal reactor, that has been developed
572 for the (pre-) treatment of annual lignocellulose with a high solids content. These materials
573 possess disadvantageous transport properties, e.g., the tendency to bridge formation and low
574 bulk density. A schematic drawing with exemplary features is shown in Fig. 3. At one side of
575 the reactor tube, moist biomass is introduced using a high-pressure feeder. Saturated steam is
576 used to bring the mixture to the desired temperature. An Archimedes screw transports the
577 material along the reactor but does not exert any mechanical treatment on the material. At
578 the end of the reactor tube, the material is released. For this purpose, a semi-continuous
579 steam explosion can be used among other release techniques. A detailed discussion of the
580 engineering aspects of the mode of operation can be found in section 4.3.2.

581 The SCR has been applied for the first time in the 1960s to produce furfural from bagasse by
582 Quaker Oats (Zeitsch, 2000). For this propose, four reactor tubes were stacked on top of each
583 other to allow a residence time of one hour. The combination of several tubes can be used to
584 increase the throughput or residence time. Each tube had a diameter of 1.8 m and a length of
585 16 m resulting in a total volume of 160 m³. Each reactor had a throughput of 60 t/h. Three
586 production lines were installed with two in operation and one available for maintenance. This
587 particular process ran with sulfuric acid and saturated steam at 650°C at 10.8 bar. The Pandia
588 digester is an SCR that is used for the pulp production from wheat straw and bagasse, using
589 chemical additives (Rainey and Covey, 2016). The Canadian company Stake Technology Ltd
590 have developed an SCR for the pretreatment of lignocellulose in the 1970s (Muzzy et al.,
591 1983). This technology has been further developed to the Stake II pretreatment unit that was
592 used with and without the addition of acids (Wayman et al., 1986; Heitz et al., 1991). The
593 Danish company Inbicon has developed an SCR based autohydrolysis pretreatment technology
594 using saturated steam in 2008 (Petersen et al., 2009). This process was based on the IBUS

595 process (Larsen et al., 2008) and has been scaled-up to a nominal throughput of 4 t/h (Larsen
596 et al., 2012). A treatment temperature of 180 - 200°C with a residence time of 5-15 minutes
597 was used. Today engineering and plant design solutions based on SCR autohydrolysis are
598 supplied by companies like Andritz (Humbird et al., 2011), Valmet, Metso, AdvanceBio
599 Systems and others on pilot and industrial scales (Humbird et al., 2011; Cheng et al., 2019).
600 Table 3 shows further SCR based pretreatment studies currently found in the literature.

601 **4.3.2 Mode of operation**

602 The feeding of the biomass into the reactor requires preliminary conditioning. A pre-steaming
603 hopper can be applied for wood chips preheating, moisturizing, and air removal (Humbird et
604 al., 2011). A water mixing stage is regarded as sufficient for non-woody biomass.

605 The high-pressure biomass feeding is an integral part of the SCR reactor setup. The feeder
606 should be adapted to the biomass and the reactor design. Biomass feeding must occur by
607 avoiding steam loss and forward leakage of air into the reactor while keeping the reactor
608 sealed. The devices used for SCR are realized as a plug-forming device based on a screw or a
609 reciprocating screw. A comprehensive literature selection on high-pressure biomass feeders
610 has been published by (Dai et al., 2012). The material is metered and dosed into the screw
611 feeder, where it is compressed to form a gas-tight plug. This apparatus can be equipped with a
612 mechanical dewatering section, where air can escape too. The plug is pressed through a
613 narrow channel called throat. The outlet opening of the throat can be closed by a hydraulic
614 piston called choke or blowback preventer. The biomass is only released into the reactor when
615 the axial force in the plug is high enough to move the piston. The choke aids in forming a
616 dense plug, it limits the risk of a steam blowback, and it promotes plug breaking. Chokes can
617 be designed with a conical tip for improved performance. The throat can be equipped with
618 knives in the flow direction to improve plug breaking.

619 Several techniques can be applied to release the treated material to atmospheric pressure.
620 The hot blow pressure release is a semi-continuous steam explosion (Cheng et al., 2019). The
621 material drops into a vertical tube at the end of the reactor. Two ball valves form a lock that
622 periodically releases the material into a blow line. The rapid pressure drop causes the hot

623 water to evaporate and accelerate along the blow line into a cyclone, where solids and vapor
624 are separated. The hot blow can also be realized with a compression screw and a single ball
625 valve (Heitz et al., 1991). For the cold blow technique, water is introduced into the vertical
626 pipe to quench the mixture to a temperature below 100°C. One ball valve is used to release
627 the slurries exploiting the high reactor pressure. A steam explosion is avoided by applying this
628 technique.

629 The installed units strongly affect each other, which requires an integrated engineering
630 approach for its design and operation. The plug screw feeder determines the throughput of
631 the plant, while the SCR screw speed determines the residence time and its distribution of the
632 substrate. The rotational speed of the screw feeder only varies in a small range. The
633 volumetric filling degree of the reactor is in the range of 40 vol. % but increased to higher
634 values when a lower screw speed is applied. A combination of different tube geometries can
635 be used, to favor mixing and plug breaking in a first fast-rotating screw (Sievers and Stickel,
636 2018).

637 Saturated steam is used to heat the wet biomass to the desired temperature. The steam
638 consumption depends on the feeding rate, moisture content, and preheating temperature.
639 Controlling the pressure of the steam allows simple control of the reactor temperature,
640 exploiting the vapor pressure of water. Heat consumption leads to condensation, which will
641 facilitate fresh steam to flow into the reactor. The flow pattern of steam and biomass is co-
642 current. Preheating reduces steam consumption and reactor pressure fluctuations (Marouek
643 et al., 2012).

644 **4.3.3 Performance and Scale-Up**

645 The measurement and modeling of the residence time distribution (RTD) is a crucial factor in
646 guaranteeing a proper reactor performance. The combination of transportation technologies
647 inside the reactor, biomass size distribution and their rheological properties may produce
648 non-ideal flows. A wide residence time distribution may lead to a drop-in yield and an
649 increased production of degradation products.

650 The RTD in screw conveyor reactors has been investigated for unpressurized (Nachenius et al.,
651 2015) and dilute acid pretreatment of corn stover (Sievers and Stickel, 2018) and
652 autohydrolysis pretreatment of wheat straw and corn stover (Caballero-Barragán et al., 2018;
653 Jaramillo and Sanchez, 2018). A too high volumetric filling degree of the reactor led to a back-
654 slipping of material. The top layer of the biomass rotated, instead of being pushed forward.
655 This way, the screw flights passed by without moving all the material (Nachenius et al., 2015).
656 With a decreasing filling degree, an increasing fraction of the material slipped through the gap
657 between flight and jacket (Sievers and Stickel, 2018). Both effects led to a residence time that
658 was longer than the ideal plug flow residence time. These effects also widened the residence
659 time distribution. Therefore, the filling degree is to be optimized aiming for a narrow
660 residence time distribution. A volumetric filling degree of 40 wt% is recommended.

661 Rodriguez et al. (2019) proposed a dynamic model for the xylan depolymerization coupled
662 with the biomass flow rate model of Jaramillo and Sanchez (2018). This first-principles model
663 considers oligomers, monomers, and decomposition products together with pH and acetic
664 acid. These two models were experimentally validated using wheat straw, corn residuals, and
665 sugar cane bagasse. Ciesielski et al. (2014) and Wang et al. (2014) carried out a comprehensive
666 biomass structural analysis of the effects of acid pretreatment using this SCR technology on
667 corn stover. Physical, chemical, C CP/MAS NMR, size-exclusion chromatography SFD vibration
668 spectroscopy and multi-scale microscopy techniques were used to correlate structural
669 changes to biomass digestibility.

670 Most studies consider acid pretreatment of one biomass with the objective of establishing
671 pretreatment and saccharification conditions for maximal sugar recovery after enzymatic
672 saccharification. However, results are difficult to compare because not all reports provide
673 details of the continuous reactor employed, and process conditions of both pretreatment and
674 saccharification stages differ among works. The highest sugar recovery percentages reported
675 reached 95% of glucose and 77% of total sugars. These numbers speak out mainly of the
676 mastering of the pilot equipment being employed. A comparison of four different biomasses
677 (wheat straw, corn residuals, sugarcane bagasse and agave bagasse) using the same
678 pretreatment reactor under fixed operating conditions of simultaneous saccharification and

679 fermentation can be found in Perez-Pimienta et al. (2019) for producing bisabolene and
680 bioethanol, respectively. Yield differences up to 40% were obtained among biomasses.

681 The scalability of this reactor type was demonstrated already in the 1960s by Quaker Oats
682 (Zeitsch, 2000). The scale-up in the process development is often based on the severity factor
683 (Overend et al., 1987), since it converts the two most important process parameters
684 temperature and time into one reaction ordinate. Results from batch steam pretreatment can
685 be nearly directly converted to SCR performance (Heitz et al., 1991; Lischeske et al., 2016).

686 **4.3.4 Limitations**

687 The limitation of the screw conveyor reactor lay in the challenges to produce experimental
688 data. The scale-down of the reactor to laboratory sizes is not possible. Smallest reactor types
689 show nominal throughputs of 10 - 40 kg/h depending on the producer. The dense biomass
690 plug in the feeding device acts as a dynamic pressure seal. Its rupture leads to blowback of the
691 reactor content. Hot water will begin to boil, resulting in a considerable volumetric flow. A
692 more significant risk is the blow out of the steam generator. Therefore, installations are
693 required to prevent damages in a blowback event. A blowback pipe attached to the feeder can
694 lead the accelerated material to a cyclone to separate solids and safely release steam to the
695 top. A dense and stable plug is required to prevent a blowback event. Thus, the volumetric
696 flow to the feeder must be controlled precisely. The SCR is designed for a specific type of
697 substrate. A change in feedstock density, particle size, and rigidity and preparation
698 requirements is challenging. The introduction of non-condensable gases into the steam
699 atmosphere lowers the temperature at constant reactor pressure. The formation of volatiles
700 like furfural and acetic acid may require a gas purge. This is more likely for cold blow since a
701 steam leakage is prevented. Abrasive feedstocks, e.g., straws and bagasse, lead to increased
702 wear in the plug feeder. This may result in short maintenance intervals. The continuous
703 autohydrolysis may still be affected by low sugar yields and degradations reactions. A two-
704 step pretreatment was proposed based on SCR technology, to achieve a full fractionation of
705 the hemicellulose and cellulose-derived sugars (Conrad et al., 2019).

706 **4.4. Comparison of Reactor Technologies**

707 The SCR is rather tightly bound to one type of substrate, compared to (semi-) batch reactors.
708 Also, the integration of feeding and release devices is complicated. The specific thermal
709 energy demand is lowest for the SCR since it operates a high solids content with constant
710 reactor temperature. The scalability of the SCR has been successfully demonstrated whereas it
711 is not clear to which scales the FBR and SE can be built. The reactor size of the SCR can be
712 relatively small, due to the continuous operation and short residence times. The operation at
713 the vapor pressure of water or SE and SCR potentially reduces the wall thickness compared to
714 fixed-bed reactors.

715 Despite the knowledge of advantageous and disadvantageous, evaluation and comparison of
716 these autohydrolysis reactor technologies are only meaningful in a techno-economical
717 optimization study for a complete biorefinery plant. Harvesting and logistics, as well as heat
718 integration and downstream processing routs, must be included. Regarding the operation in
719 different scales, it is assumed that the SE and FBR show high potential in small production
720 scales with a flexible feedstock, while the SCR is best suited in a large-scale operation.

721 **5. Hydrothermal Pilot Plant in the Brazilian Biorenewables National Laboratory: Case Study**

722 In an attempt to development of biorefinery industry, the pretreatment is one of the most
723 significant bottlenecks due to the recalcitrant structure of biomass and has as its main
724 challenge to provide high-efficiency biomass fractionation combining energy efficiency,
725 environmental sustainability, and economic viability (Baruah et al., 2018). Therefore, more
726 studies are necessary to improve the reactor design, and pretreatment operational strategies.
727 In this context, the LNBR (Brazilian Biorenewables National Laboratory) has a pilot plant that
728 aims to verify and demonstrate technological routes for the production of high added value
729 compounds as: preparation of polyurethane composites reinforced with cellulose or lignin,
730 xylooligosaccharides as prebiotic; and biofuels as ethanol production in terms of biorefinery.
731 The pilot plant has three fully automated pretreatment reactors, and it is possible to evaluate
732 strategies with and without separation of the solubilized stream after pretreatment stage.
733 Two of them are for steam explosion process being one continuous and another hydrothermal
734 batch operation mode, both already commissioned and entirely operational (Rocha et al.

735 2015; de Menezes et al. 2016a; Miléo et al. 2016; de Menezes et al. 2016b; Nascimento et al.
736 2017; Nakanishi et al. 2018).

737 The continuous steam explosion reactor operates at a feed rate from 8 to 35 kg/h (dry base),
738 the temperature range between 140 and 190°C, residence time according to the biomass
739 fractionation. Some autohydrolysis pretreatments of sugarcane bagasse performed in this
740 reactor achieved cellulose recoveries above 90% in the solid fraction “cellulignin” and
741 solubilization around 30% of the initial sugarcane bagasse, the liquid is mostly composed of C5
742 sugars and degradation products. Moreover, it is possible to operate the reactor under
743 conditions that promote the obtaining of C5 sugars in monomeric form while minimizing HMF
744 and furfural formation (see Figure 1, that illustrates how this is relevant for biorefining).

745 The first of the two batch hydrothermal reactors operate coupled to a cyclone, and its
746 maximum temperature of operation is 210°C. With the operation of this reactor is possible to
747 obtain sugarcane bagasse fractioning comparable with the achieved at the continuous steam
748 explosion; however, the enzymatic digestibility of the pretreated solids presents significant
749 differences (unpublished data). The other hydrothermal reactor – which relies on liquid hot
750 water-is heated through of flowing steam injection or thermal oil in a reactor’s jacket, the
751 reactor has a condensation system, mechanical agitation (30 to 170 rpm), the maximum
752 temperature operation is of 200°C. As shown in previous works (Rocha et al., 2012; Rocha et
753 al., 2015; de Menezes et al., 2016b; Nascimento et al., 2017; Nakanishi et al., 2018) this
754 reactor has already operated with sugarcane bagasse and straw under various temperature
755 and time conditions, with and without the addition of catalysts, and at several liquid:biomas
756 ratios. As an example, the mass balance of reaction at 190°C, 10 minutes, and liquid:biomass
757 ratio (1:10) presented a recovery of 90% of the cellulose in the cellulignin. Approximately 60%
758 of the C5 sugars were recovered in the hemicellulosic hydrolyzate, and 56% of the total sugars
759 in the liquid fraction as oligomers, and nearly 13% of the lignin was solubilized (Nascimento et
760 al., 2017). These works provide the basis for the commissioning of the continuous
761 hydrothermal pretreatment reactor and its application at industrial level.

762 **6. Biorefinery Integrated Process Design Using Hydrothermal Pretreatment**

763 In previous work by Torres et al. (2017) was discussed the main approaches that have been
764 used to model the different types of lignocellulosic biomass in terms of process design,
765 techno-economic analysis of hydrothermal pretreatment with details that allow a meaningful
766 comparison between different options, how to model the pretreatment reactor itself in terms
767 of the reactions that are considered (stoichiometries and kinetics), and discussed general
768 features of process flowsheets that include hydrothermal pretreatment, focusing on the
769 rationale of upstream and downstream operations and the consequences these choices have.
770 From the process design point of view, hydrothermal processing shares many common
771 features with dilute acid hydrolysis, in the sense that the reaction is also a hydronium-based
772 hydrolysis. Then, the presence of acidic media must be accounted for when designing the
773 reactor and de-fining the materials. Operation at higher temperatures and pressures requires
774 extra care in the design phase. Hydrothermal-pretreatment reactors should not be evaluated
775 in isolation of the other unit operations in the process flowsheet as upstream operations,
776 especially if biological processes are involved in downstream processing
777 (separation/purification). This point is important as some works focus on the economics of the
778 reactor itself, forgetting that savings in the reactor are usually the cause of more expensive
779 separation steps. Figure 4 shows the process flowsheets that include hydrothermal
780 pretreatment in terms of biorefinery integrated process design and heat integration.

781 **6.1 Hydrothermal pretreatment for processing a single lignocellulosic feedstock to C5+C6** 782 **sugars**

783 This is the most traditional application of hydrothermal pretreatment, and although most of
784 the literature in the area focuses in this type of process, many of the findings (especially those
785 that apply to design) should be applicable to other combinations of feedstocks and products.
786 The overall process flowsheet must include a first section that reduces its size; the second
787 section is the hydrothermal pretreatment itself that in which hemicelluloses are separated
788 from cellulose and lignin; the third section is an enzymatic hydrolysis that depolymerizes
789 cellulose into glucose; glucose might be upgraded to fuels or other chemicals in additional
790 downstream sections (Figure 4). In general, two other sections are also included: one for heat
791 recovery/integration (i.e. steam/ hot water exiting section 2 is used to pre-heat feeds) and

792 another one for burning residual organic solids (e.g. lignin and unreacted cellulose) to
793 generate steam and power. Process designs that do not stop at production of monomeric
794 sugars also include downstream sections for their upgrade.

795 **6.1.2 General considerations for reaction system design of lignocellulosic feedstocks**

796 Once the type of hydrothermal reactor is selected (*Batch reactor, semi-continuous reactor,*
797 *continuous reactor*), there are two limiting options in term of modelling the reactor: rigorous
798 and yield based. Rigorous modelling should consider at least the kinetics of the reaction, and
799 better yet include some detailed mass and heat transfer mechanisms. In this case reactor
800 sizing is performed by considering the kinetics and reactor load and the reactor sizing is
801 performed by considering the desired throughput and a selected residence time. Evidently, a
802 kinetic based approach should always be preferred, as it provides better estimates and allows
803 for the study of different reaction/separation configurations. However, many times
804 experimental data are not enough to propose a reasonable kinetic model and may not even
805 be a requirement if the goal is to have a very preliminary techno-economic study with the aim
806 of having an order of magnitude estimate of an overall processing cost. Tao et al. (2011) and
807 Larnaudie et al. (2019) reported that the hydrothermal pretreatment (LHW) had a good
808 economic performance in the bioethanol production from lignocellulosic biomass compared
809 to other pretreatments as dilute acid and soaking in aqueous ammonia.

810 Some studies that include kinetic-based modelling useful for reactor/process design have
811 been reported by Prunescu et al. (2015), Reynolds and Smirnova, (2018) and Conrad et al.
812 (2019). Conrad et al. (2019) reported a kinetic model derived from experimental data for
813 hydrothermal pretreatment of wheat straw where the constants depend on the severity factor.
814 Reynolds and Smirnova (2018) detailed a model that considers kinetics as well as mass and heat
815 transfer for the modelling of a flow-through reactor that pretreats pelletized wheat straw. The
816 study mentions that the model has been at 185–215°C and the authors claim prediction
817 accuracies between 0.013 and 0.02 kg/(kg biomass) for hemicellulose oligomers and 0.0008 and
818 0.004 kg/(kg biomass) for monomers. The alternative kinetic model accounts for the individual
819 species that that are formed during the hydrothermal pretreatment and includes: polymers

820 (cellulose, arabinan, xylan), oligomers (from xylose), monomers (arabinose, glucose, xylose), as
821 well as other compounds (acetyls, lumped organic acids, 5-HMF, pseudo-lignin, furfural, other
822 lumped degradation products) (Prunescu et al. 2015). This study calculates the kinetic constants
823 and energies of activation of the individual reactions within the 178–185°C range. Interestingly,
824 there is not an explicit reference of which biomass was used for derivation of the model.

825 Although derivation of the previous models is justified as a required input for economic
826 analysis, none of these references explicitly report the results of such analysis. However,
827 Conrad et al. (2019) does include a discussion on the estimation of capital expenses that is
828 worth discussing. First, the authors select the screw conveyor reactor (SCR) and the extruder
829 as the most promising reactor types and propose three different flowsheets in which these
830 are combined with themselves and washing units. For each option the authors utilize the
831 kinetic model derived by them to estimate the yields of hydrolysate, lignin and furfural (as an
832 unwanted contaminant) at different temperatures which is identified in the study as the most
833 relevant parameter as it affects reaction pressure and residence time. The interesting point is
834 that capital expenses for each option are indirectly compared by estimating the amount of
835 mass of reactor required by each, where this mass is a function of both residence time (which
836 influences reactor's volume) and pressure (which influences reactor's wall thickness). The
837 authors finally conclude that the choice of reaction temperature dominates the choice of the
838 number of stages regarding the reactor size. A concept with three stages at 215°C resulted in
839 481 kg, while concepts with only one or two reactor stages resulted in substantially more steel
840 consumption, caused by the lower reaction temperatures.

841 **6.2 Hydrothermal pretreatment for processing mixed lignocellulosic feedstocks to C5+C6** 842 **sugars**

843 Current work in the area has shifted from studying the economics of processing single
844 feedstocks to study the economic performance of plants that can process multiple feedstocks.
845 Along these lines two relevant works are those by Nieder-Heitmann et al. (2019) and Ashraf
846 and Schmidt, (2018). As mentioned by Ashraf and Schmidt, (2018) considering biorefineries
847 that can handle multiple feedstocks is very relevant as in many regions the amounts produced

848 by a single source are not enough to propose a plant of a reasonable capacity. When multiple
849 feedstocks are to be processed there are two limiting design strategies that can be chosen: 1)
850 Process each feedstock as a single feedstock, selecting operational conditions that are optimal
851 for that feedstock, and switch to another feedstock and operational conditions once
852 processing of the first feedstock is finished. This mode of operation is particularly suitable for
853 seasonal feedstocks. Optimal scheduling of the operations becomes the most relevant design
854 parameter, the rest of the design is as before; 2) Mix the feedstocks for co-processing. This
855 option requires further understanding of the synergies that might arise between the
856 feedstocks and how different mixing proportions affect the overall result and has been the
857 focus of the most recent work. Elliston et al. (2015) studied the effect of mixing waste copier
858 paper and wheat in steam explosion pretreatment and found a reduction of ~40% in the
859 production of inhibitors such as acetic and formic acids and furfural, while Pereira et al. (2015)
860 reported an increase in the enzymatic conversion of sugars, the authors claim to be due to the
861 mixing of sugarcane bagasse with straw and tops. Inspired by these works, Ashraf and
862 Schmidt, (2018) performed a techno-economic evaluation of a hydrothermal pretreatment -
863 based biorefinery that considered a mix of woody (palm fronds) and green lignocellulosic
864 residues (Bermuda grass and Jasmine hedges). The flowsheet studied by the authors consists
865 of the three sections and an additional one for generation of heat and power. Experimental
866 conversion data from their own labs was used to model the reactors. The authors studied six
867 different cases: three mixtures of the lignocellulosic biomass in different proportions, and the
868 three “pure” feeds, and found that the costs (both CAPEX and OPEX) for the six options were
869 comparable, but the yields in the “mixed” studies were better. Hence, they concluded that
870 mixing the feedstocks was advantageous. In another contribution Nieder-Heitmann et al.
871 (2019) studied the co-processing of sugarcane bagasse and trash (60:40), this study was
872 analyzed for production of succinic acid and electricity. In this case, the goal of the work was
873 to compare the economics of the different pretreatment options, and several very detailed
874 process flowsheets, with the corresponding models and data used. The authors conclude that
875 although not being the most economical in terms of capital expenses, steam explosion was
876 the most profitable option, basically because it was the one that provided the best succinic

877 acid yields. However, it must be mentioned that different scales and reaction conditions were
878 used for each case study, thus care must be taken before claiming a general statement.

879 **6.3 Integrated Process Design - Heat Integration of Hydrothermal Pretreatment Prior to** 880 **Anaerobic Digestion**

881 Hydrothermal pretreatment has also been studied as a way to enhance biogas production
882 prior to anaerobic digestion processes. This fact has been experimentally verified and there is
883 a general consensus in the literature that, regardless the type of biomass used, there is a net
884 increase in the biogas produced if a pretreatment reactor is installed before the anaerobic
885 digester. Kutsay et al. (2016) studied thermal expansionary pretreatment (closely related to
886 steam explosion) of wheat straw and analyzed the effects of it in a plant that by anaerobic
887 digestion is designed to produce 500 kW of heat. The first finding is that by including the
888 pretreatment unit the plant is able now to produces 750 kW of heat. In terms of cost, their
889 results show that the pretreatment unit by itself represents 36% of the total equipment cost
890 and that it increases the payback period from 17 years (plant without pretreatment), to 25
891 years (plant with pretreatment). Their conclusion is that inclusion of the plant does not look
892 optimistic from the commercial point of view, but that better economics are possible if more
893 products form the plant can be sold in terms of biorefinery concept.

894 He et al. (2017) studied the net energy balance and the energy for methane production from
895 rice straw using hydrothermal pretreatment (150-210°C, 0-30 min). They reported that
896 highest net energy gain was 2741 MJ/t, and the energy ratio and energy recovery were 2.7
897 and 30.7%, respectively. At first view, from these results it can be inferred that from the
898 energy balance point of view, simple anaerobic digestion is still more convenient. However, it
899 has to be noted that this are batch lab scale calculations and not process design calculations,
900 meaning that there is room for improvement of the energy balance if for example some of the
901 energy in the outlet stream of the hydrothermal reactor is recovered for use in the anaerobic
902 digester. Techniques such as pinch analysis could be used for an assessment of the minimum
903 energy required by the system, which would provide the best-case energy balance.

904 **7. Conclusions**

905 Hydrothermal pretreatment of lignocellulosic biomass is one of the most promising
906 technologies to be used at different scales in the processing of biomass for fractionation and
907 structural modification for the development of integrated, sustainable biorefineries and the
908 circular Bioeconomy. Therefore, the development in process engineering for hydrothermal
909 pretreatment process is fundamental in order to understand the correct approaches needed
910 to advance this technology to a commercial application for second generation biorefineries in
911 the production of high added value compounds and biofuels.

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1281 **Figure Captions**

- 1282 **Figure 1.** Biorefinery scheme for lignocellulosic biomass for hydrothermal pretreatment in the
 1283 production of high added products and biofuels.
- 1284 **Figure 2.** Schematic diagram of the tubular SE batch reactor and instrumentation in Biorefinery Pilot
 1285 Plant at Autonomous University of Coahuila for biomass fractionation.
- 1286 **Figure 3.** Schematic drawing of a screw conveyor reactor (SCR), featuring a plug screw feeder, two
 1287 reactor tubes, and a hot-blow release.
- 1288 **Figure. 4.** Flowsheets that include hydrothermal pretreatment in terms of biorefinery integrated
 1289 process design and heat integration.