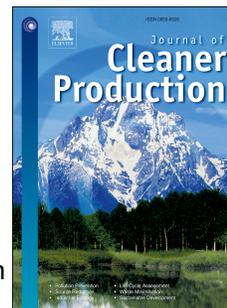


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Ball-milled, solvent-free Sn-functionalisation of wood waste biochar for sugar conversion in food waste valorisation

Xiao Yang, Iris K.M. Yu, Daniel C.W. Tsang, Vitaliy L. Budarin, James H. Clark, Kevin C.-W. Wu, Alex C.K. Yip, Bin Gao, Su Shiung Lam, Yong Sik Ok



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1 **Ball-milled, solvent-free Sn-functionalisation of wood waste biochar for**
2 **sugar conversion in food waste valorisation**

3
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21 **Abstract**

22 The use of biomass wastes for biochar production is a promising waste management option,
23 and biochars can be potentially applied in the food waste recycling industry to produce value-
24 added chemicals. In this study, an advanced Sn-functionalised biochar catalyst was
25 synthesised via a novel solvent-free ball milling protocol to facilitate the isomerisation of
26 glucose to fructose. Raw wood biomass (W) and its derived biochars pyrolysed at low (LB,
27 400 °C) and high (HB, 750 °C) temperatures were investigated as catalyst supports. The
28 interactions between Sn and the carbonaceous supports were related to the surface chemistry
29 of the catalysts. The raw W had a functional group-enriched surface, which provided more
30 active sites for anchoring Sn, resulting in higher metal loading on the support compared to
31 LB and HB. The annealing temperature was another critical factor determining the amount
32 and speciation of loaded Sn. Catalytic conversion experiments indicated that SnW annealed
33 at 750 °C exhibited the best fructose yield (12.8 mol%) and selectivity (20.2 mol%) at 160 °C
34 for 20 min. The catalytic activity was mainly determined by the quantity and nature of active
35 Sn sites. This study elucidated the roles of the carbon support and its surface chemistry for
36 synthesising biochar-supported catalysts, highlighting a simple and green approach for
37 designing effective solid catalysts for sustainable biorefineries.

38 **Keywords:** solvent-free synthesis; heterogeneous catalysis; engineered biochar; metal-carbon
39 interactions; sustainable waste management.

40 1. Introduction

41 The increase in biomass waste generation (e.g., forestry/agricultural and food wastes) has
42 posed a critical environmental challenge calling for a sustainable solution. As suggested by
43 various laboratory and pilot tests, the conversion of biomass into biochars is a promising
44 waste management option, which is potentially superior to conventional treatments, such as
45 landfill disposal and open burning with low energy transformation efficiency that burdens the
46 environment (Ok et al., 2015). Biochar production costs only 3-6% of the commercial
47 activated carbon (Jung et al., 2019), and it has the benefits of tuneable properties and easy
48 manufacture, which are advantageous for carbonaceous material engineering and green
49 chemistry. Besides environmental remediation (Cho et al., 2019; Ruan et al., 2019) and novel
50 material synthesis (Wang et al., 2019), emerging applications of engineered biochars recently
51 have been explored in green biorefineries (Xiong et al., 2017).

52 Glucose is a six-carbon sugar that can be derived from biomass—e.g., starch-rich bread and
53 rice wastes (Yu et al., 2018; Cao et al., 2018). It undergoes isomerisation to form fructose
54 that can be further converted into a wide variety of platform chemicals and energy
55 derivatives, which reduce the dependence on fossil fuels and mitigate carbon emissions (Zhu
56 et al., 2016a; Xiong et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2017). Glucose isomerisation can be catalysed
57 by Lewis acids (e.g., Sn^{4+} , Al^{3+}) or Brønsted bases (i.e., OH^-). Lewis acids facilitate the ring-
58 opening of glucose and promote isomerisation via an intramolecular C2-C1 hydride shift (Hu
59 et al., 2017; Caratzoulas et al., 2014), while Brønsted bases catalyse an O2-O1 hydrogen

60 transfer (Chen et al., 2018).

61 Solid Lewis acid catalysts can be synthesised via the impregnation of metals on
62 graphite/graphene oxide and carbon nanotubes (Xiao et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2019b). Biochars
63 emerge as an attractive alternative supporting material in view of the low production cost and
64 favourable eco-friendliness (Yu et al., 2019a; Yang et al., 2019a). Previous research has
65 focused on the physicochemical properties of carbon-based catalysts (e.g., porosity,
66 morphology, acid-base properties) (Qin et al., 2019; Wan et al., 2019), yet seldom explored
67 the interactions between carbon support and adsorbed species that could determine the Lewis
68 acidity of catalysts. It has been proposed that metal-support interactions can take place via
69 charge transfer, surface complexation, and other mechanisms (Qiang et al., 2007; Sun et al.,
70 2019), which may facilitate high loading rates and homogeneous distribution of active sites
71 (Zhukovskii et al., 2000). The binding of metals to biochar can be improved by enriching its
72 structural surface defects (e.g., terraces, steps, and kinks) (Lobos et al., 2016). However, it is
73 uncertain how metal speciation and surface chemistry vary with the metal-biochar interaction,
74 and whether adverse effects (e.g., inactive species formation) can be avoided. In this study,
75 we prepared Sn-impregnated biochars that provide a good opportunity to investigate the
76 relationship between catalytic activity and metal-support interactions. Sn has been suggested
77 to be an outstanding Lewis acid catalyst in heterogeneous and homogeneous systems in
78 biorefinery studies (Bermejo-Deval et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2018).

79 In conventional catalyst synthesis, the use of solvents is often indispensable to facilitate

80 dispersion and mixing for better contact between the loading materials and support
81 (Rightmire et al., 2016). As for greener protocols, mechanochemical technology, such as ball
82 milling, is based on the direct mixing of materials under solvent-free conditions, which
83 allows for simple and safe operation with potential industrial applicability (James et al., 2011;
84 Takacs, 2018). The shear forces and powerful extrusion in ball milling can activate the
85 catalyst support surface by reducing the particle size and creating new defects, which would
86 alter the surface chemistry—e.g., functionality, hydrophobicity, and polarity (Zhang et al.,
87 2019). Ball milling has been applied to modify graphene, carbon nanotubes, and metal–
88 organic frameworks (Kathryn et al., 2013; Franco et al., 2017; Ouyang et al., 2016; Lin et al.,
89 2017), while its utilisation for functionalising the biochars is still in its infancy and deserves
90 investigation to develop sustainable biochar-based catalysts.

91 This study aims to synthesise a series of Sn-functionalised biochars (SnBCs) as Lewis acid-
92 type heterogeneous catalysts using ball milling. Their catalytic activity was evaluated for the
93 isomerisation of glucose to fructose in water under microwave heating, an important reaction
94 in biomass waste upcycling for the synthesis of value-added chemicals. Three different
95 carbon-based supports were studied: wood biomass (W, not pyrolysed) and low- and high-
96 temperature wood biochar (LB and HB, respectively), which were pyrolysed at 400 and 750
97 °C, respectively. The role of the physicochemical properties of the carbonaceous supports
98 and effect of metal-support interactions induced by different annealing temperatures on the
99 fructose yield and selectivity were studied. The environmental sustainability of the proposed

100 SnBC catalyst was evaluated by recycling and metal leaching tests.

101

102 **2. Materials and Methods**

103 *2.1. Materials*

104 Wood waste is a significant waste stream and prospective feedstock in biorefineries
105 (Hassan et al., 2019). Mixed wood waste in the form of sawdust (< 2 mm), which was
106 collected from the Industrial Centre at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University, was used as
107 the carbon precursor, in view of its good performance in our recent studies of biochar-based
108 catalysts (Yang et al., 2019a; Yu et al., 2019a). The wood biomass was air-dried at 60 °C
109 overnight until its weight appeared to be constant. SnCl₄·5H₂O (98%, Sigma-Aldrich) was
110 used as the Sn source. For sample preparation, catalysis reactions, and calibration of the
111 analyser, the chemicals of analytical grade were used as received.

112 Wood biomass and its two derived biochars were used as bio-based support for the
113 synthesis of SnBCs. Biochars were produced via slow pyrolysis under nitrogen purging (150
114 mL min⁻¹). Wood biomass was subjected to pyrolysis at 400 and 700 °C for 2 h in a Carbolite
115 tubular furnace to obtain LB and HB, respectively. The prepared support was composited
116 with SnCl₄·5H₂O at a weight ratio of 10:1 using a planetary ball mill (DECO-PBM-AD-
117 0.4L). Approximately 5 g of material was added to a 100 mL Teflon jar that contained 100 g
118 of balls and was operated at 900 rpm for 2 h in air. The rotation direction was changed every
119 10 min. The energy consumption for ball milling was estimated as 0.5 kWh, considering the

120 instrument power of 0.25 kW and a milling time of 2 h. The resultant samples were then
121 annealed at 500, 750, or 900 °C under N₂ and were labelled as SnXY, where X is the support,
122 and Y is the catalyst annealing temperature. All solid catalysts were stored in vials for
123 subsequent experiments.

124 *2.2.Characterisation of SnBC catalysts*

125 Thermochemical changes were monitored in the range of room temperature to 1000 °C at a
126 heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ in Ar atmosphere using a Thermo plus EVO2 (Rigaku)
127 thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) instrument. The morphology, structure, and surface
128 composition of the samples were analysed using a VEGA3 XM (TESCAN) field-emission
129 scanning electron microscopy (SEM) apparatus equipped with an energy dispersive
130 spectroscopy (EDS) system. The crystalline textural features were recorded using a SmartLab
131 (Rigaku) X-ray diffraction (XRD) device using Cu K α radiation (1.5460 Å). The porosity
132 parameters were evaluated using N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms, which were collected
133 utilizing an ASAP 2020 (Micromeritics) surface area and porosity analyser. Micro-Raman
134 spectroscopy (Renishaw) was carried out using a light source with an excitation wavelength
135 of 532 nm. The ratios of the intensities of the D and G peaks (1350 and 1590 cm⁻¹) (I_D/I_G) of
136 all samples were calculated using their Raman spectra (Igalavithana et al., 2018).

137 Surface chemistry and metal speciation were evaluated using a Frontier (PerkinElmer)
138 Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy instrument and a K-Alpha (Thermo Fisher
139 Scientific) X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) device. The FTIR and XPS spectra were

140 manipulated using the OMNIC and XPSpeak41 software programmes, respectively.

141 The total amount of Sn loaded onto each catalyst was determined using an FMX36
142 SPECTROBLUE inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer after the samples were
143 completely digested using aqua regia, according to the modified United States Environmental
144 Protection Agency Method 3051A.

145 *2.3. Glucose isomerisation to fructose over SnBC catalysts*

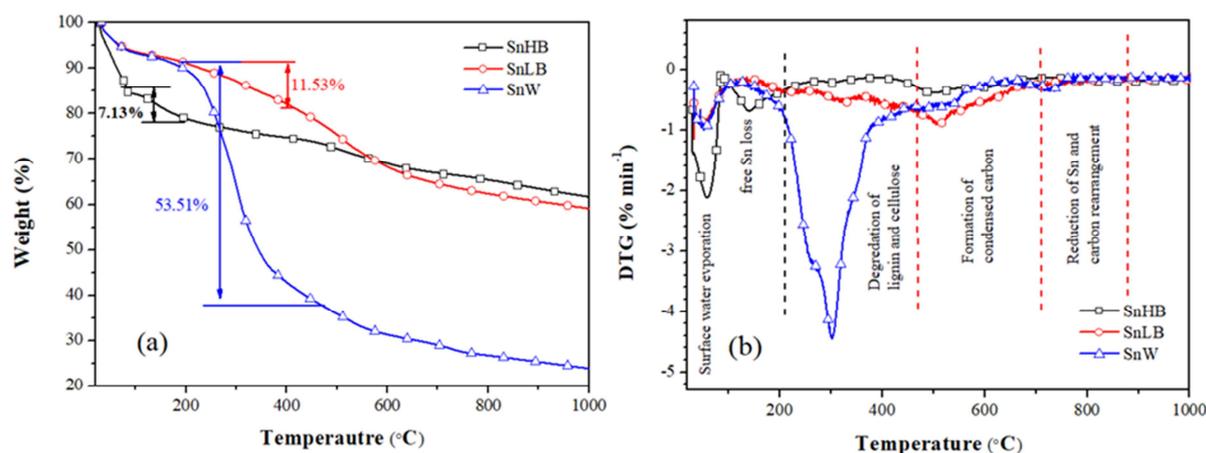
146 The glucose isomerisation process was conducted in batches following the protocol
147 previously described in the literature (Yang et al., 2019a). In brief, 0.5 g of glucose, 0.25 g of
148 SnBCs, and 10 mL of deionised water were added to a 100 mL vessel and were stirred until a
149 homogeneous mixture was obtained. The vessel was sealed and heated at 160 °C for 20 min
150 in an ETHOS UP (Milestone) microwave reactor in air (ramp time of 5 min). The catalyst
151 dosage and catalytic test settings were mainly based on the preliminary experiment and were
152 intended to achieve discernible differences in catalytic activity and selectivity between
153 different synthesised catalysts, which may not be optimal. Future efforts should be made in
154 that direction. The liquid products were collected, filtered, and diluted with deionised water
155 by a factor of four before being subjected to high-performance liquid chromatography
156 (HPLC) analysis. The details for analytical conditions and calculation of product yield and
157 selectivity are shown in SI.

158

159 **3. Results and Discussion**

160 *3.1. Characteristics of biochar-supported Sn catalysts prepared via ball milling*

161 The synthesis of the SnBC catalysts consisted of two steps: (1) the uniform dispersion of
162 the Sn source onto the supporting materials (HB, LB, and W) using ball milling; and (2) the
163 activation of the Sn-support mixture at different annealing temperatures. Each Sn-support
164 composite without annealing was subjected to TG-DTA to investigate its heat-induced
165 transformation (Fig. 1). The significant decrease in mass (7.13%) of the SnHB sample at
166 100–200 °C could be attributed to the volatilisation of the surface-free SnCl₄ (Freiser, 1959),
167 which was absent from the TGA patterns of SnLB and SnW. This suggests the weak
168 interaction between Sn and HB after ball milling. As illustrated in Table 1, the O/C ratios of
169 both LB and W were higher than that of HB because the latter lost more O-containing
170 functional species during the high-temperature treatment (Yang et al., 2018). The surface O-
171 containing groups could act as active sites for anchoring Sn. At 230–500 °C, the SnW and
172 SnLB samples exhibited a major mass decay of 53.5% and 11.5%, respectively. Significant
173 mass loss (~75%) in this temperature range was also noted in the TGA pattern of the raw W
174 (Yu et al., 2019a). This could be attributed to the thermal decomposition of the
175 lignocellulosic fraction of W and degradable carbon moieties remaining in the partially
176 pyrolysed LB (Igalavithana et al., 2017). At temperatures above 500 °C, the mass changes of
177 all samples became minor considering the plateaus in the DTG curves (Fig. 1b).



178
 179 **Figure 1.** (a) Thermogravimetric analysis and (b) differential thermogravimetric analysis
 180 curves of SnW, SnLB, and SnHB obtained after milling different supporting materials with
 181 $\text{SnCl}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (without annealing).

182 In general, the FTIR spectra of W and LB and their derivative samples presented stronger
 183 absorption at $1000\text{-}1750\text{ cm}^{-1}$ than those of HB and its derivatives (Fig. 2a-c). This is in a
 184 good agreement with the higher O/C ratios for W and LB that implied more abundant
 185 functional groups on their surfaces (Table 1). Ball milling with Sn (without annealing)
 186 resulted in an increased broad band at 3400 cm^{-1} that represents the O-H stretching, possibly
 187 due to the formation of new surface defects in oxygen-containing atmosphere (Li et al.,
 188 2020). The largely preserved O functionalities and new defects on the supporting materials
 189 may enhance the interaction with Sn via surface complexation. The XRD patterns of the raw
 190 and ball-milled samples were similar and displayed amorphous characteristics (Figs. 2d-f),
 191 suggesting that ball milling may not provide sufficient energy for converting the Sn precursor
 192 (SnCl_4) to crystalline minerals. After annealing at $500\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, SnO_2 could be observed, and it
 193 further transformed to metallic Sn at the high temperatures of 750 and $900\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The formation
 194 of metallic Sn ($2\theta = 30.64^\circ$, 32.02° , and 44.91°) was more significant in the SnW750 and

195 SnW900 samples than in the annealed SnLB and SnHB samples, suggesting the stronger
196 carbothermal reduction capacity of W that could release more reducing gases (H_2 , CO) during
197 thermal treatment (Sikarwar et al., 2016).

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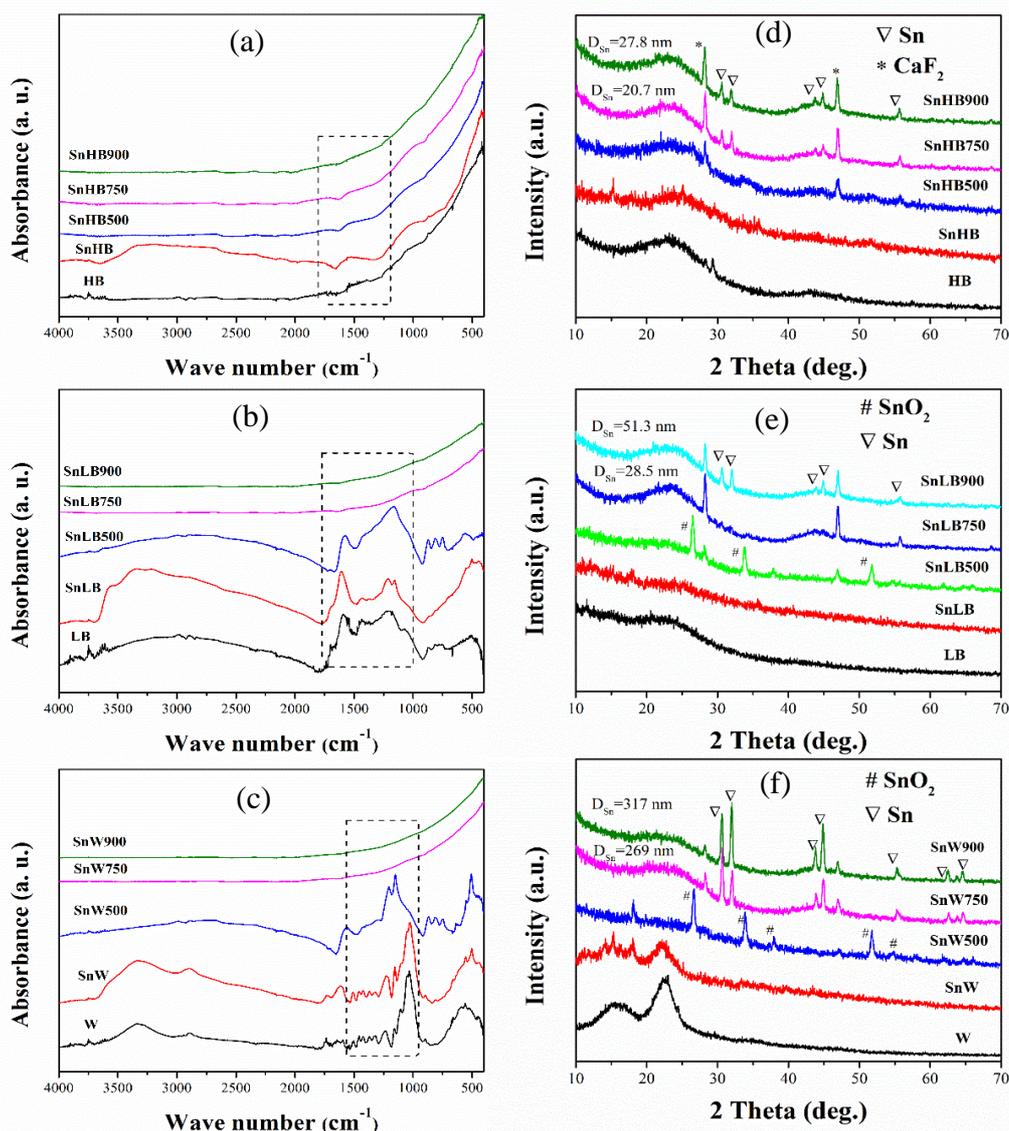
198 **Table 1.** Physicochemical characteristics of supporting materials and synthesised samples.

	BET surface area	t-plot micropore surface area	t-plot external surface area	Pore volume	Average pore diameter	O/C	I _D /I _G
	m ² g ⁻¹			cm ³ kg ⁻¹	nm		
HB	179.8	123.9	55.9	49.6	4.54	0.04	0.56
LB	85.4	53.7	31.8	35.4	6.45	0.15	0.82
W	0.73	0.02	0.71	7.64	38.0	0.71	-
SnHB	3.07	0.01	3.06	99.9	53.1	0.09	0.58
SnHB500	65.6	31.9	33.7	40.6	9.81	0.08	0.79
SnHB750	382.7	311.7	71.0	73.5	6.33	0.07	0.82
SnHB900	137.9	59.5	78.5	114.4	5.40	0.07	0.96
SnLB	2.86	0.01	2.85	34.1	45.6	0.20	0.84
SnLB500	44.7	7.99	36.7	58.2	11.8	0.09	0.79
SnLB750	125.2	73.2	52.0	103.0	8.29	0.07	0.82
SnLB900	110.9	53.4	57.5	89.0	8.74	0.04	0.97
SnW	0.33	0.01	0.32	8.10	43.8	0.54	-
SnW500	50.6	11.6	39.0	16.6	5.21	0.13	0.63
SnW750	131.0	72.6	58.4	85.0	5.58	0.08	0.81
SnW900	138.2	79.9	58.3	79.6	5.32	0.13	0.91

199 BET - Brunauer–Emmet–Teller; O/C - oxygen/carbon ratio; I_D/I_G - ratio of the intensities of the D and G Raman peaks; W - wood biomass, LB
200 and HB - biochars pyrolysed at low (400 °C) and high (750 °C) temperature, respectively; SnW, SnLB, and SnHB - Sn-functionalised samples;
201 500, 750, and 900 are the annealing temperatures.

202

203



204

205 **Figure 2.** (a–c) Fourier transform infrared spectra and (d–f) X-ray diffraction patterns of
 206 synthesised samples, where W is wood biomass; LB and HB are biochars pyrolysed at low
 207 (400 °C) and high (750 °C) temperature, respectively; SnW, SnLB, and SnHB are Sn-
 208 functionalised samples; and 500, 750, and 900 °C are the annealing temperatures.

209

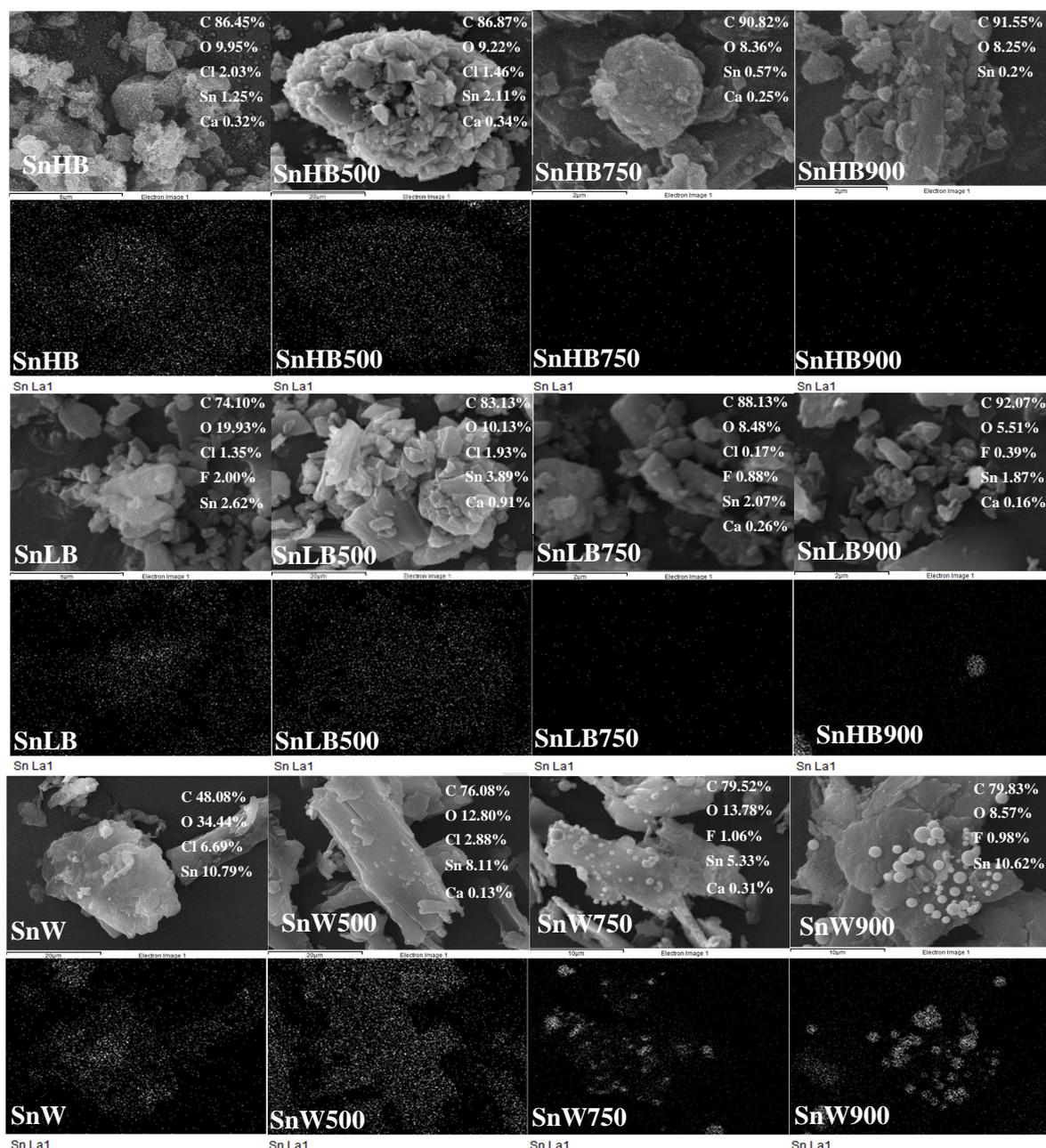
210 The SEM-EDS images reaffirmed the incorporation of Sn species in the W, LB, and HB
 211 supporting materials after ball milling and annealing (Fig. 3). The proportion of Sn followed
 212 the same order for the quantity of O-containing functionalities – W > LB > HB (Table 1).
 213 Surface Sn content of approximately 10 wt% was observed in SnW, which was equivalent to
 214 the initial Sn dosage. However, the SnLB and SnHB presented much lower surface Sn
 215 contents than the Sn loading amount: 2.64 and 1.24 wt%, respectively. Carbon supports (W)

216 featuring larger amount of sp^3 carbons (high I_D/I_G ratio) and more hydrophilic surface (high
217 O/C ratio) can present higher affinity for Sn precursor, leading to higher possibility of
218 forming Sn complexes during the ball milling process (Table 1).

219

220 After annealing at 500 °C, the Sn dot contour profiles of all samples were analogous to the
221 catalyst shape (Fig. 3). However, further increasing the annealing temperature led to a
222 decrease in Sn dot intensity and different Sn distribution patterns. In particular, the clusters of
223 Sn dots can be observed in SnW750/900. Calculations using the XRD results and Scherrer
224 equation confirmed that nanosized metallic Sn particles were formed in SnHB750 (20.7 nm)
225 and SnLB750 (28.5 nm), whereas microsized metallic Sn particles were observed in SnW750
226 (269 nm). The higher surface Sn concentration in SnW possibly induced metal agglomeration
227 to larger particles during the annealing process, which became more severe as the annealing
228 temperature increased (Fig. 3). Hence, selecting the appropriate starting materials is critical
229 for the preparation of carbon-based catalysts via the ball milling process, because their
230 properties (particularly for surface functional groups and carbonisation degree) play a key
231 role in determining the extent of metal loading, speciation, morphology, and distribution.

232



233

234 **Figure 3.** Scanning electron microscopy images and energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy Sn
 235 mapping results of synthesised samples, where SnW, SnLB, and SnHB are Sn-functionalised
 236 wood biomass (W) and biochars pyrolysed at low (400 °C) and high (750 °C) temperatures,
 237 respectively (LB and HB respectively); 500, 750, and 900 °C are the annealing temperatures.

238

239 It was noted that when Sn salt was milled with the supports, the surface area and average
 240 pore size significantly decreased (Table 1), possibly due to pore blocking by the introduced
 241 Sn (Baca et al., 2008). However, the porosity of all ball-milled samples could be developed
 242 after annealing, as a result of new pore formation and partial volatilisation of carbon moieties

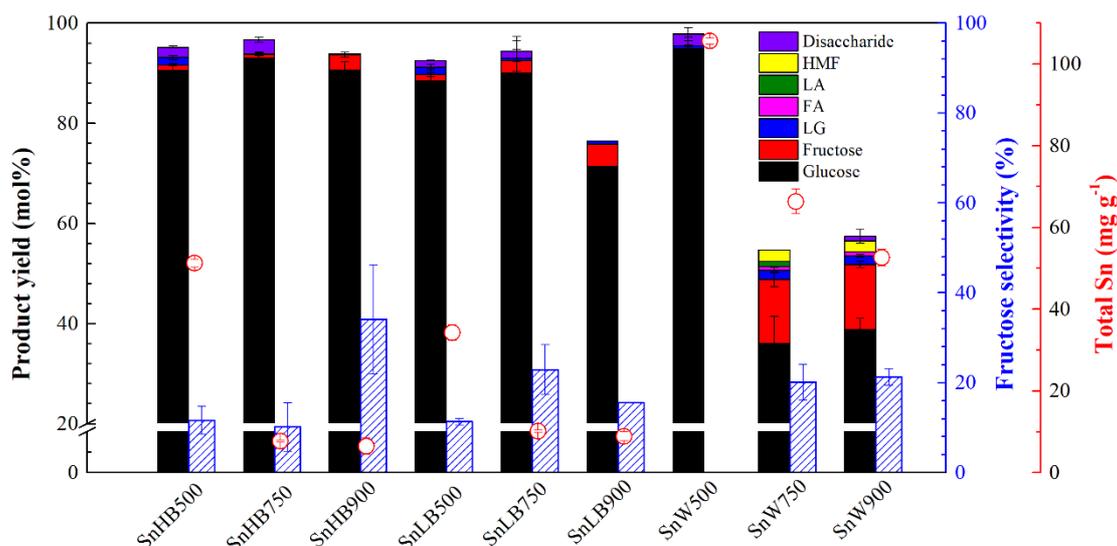
243 and surface-adsorbed Sn. This effect was more noticeable when the annealing temperature
244 increased from 500 to 750 °C, whereas the samples annealed at 900 °C displayed only small
245 increases or even a decrease in porosity. The I_D/I_G ratios of all samples increased as the
246 annealing temperature increased, implying that more defects were formed and possibly
247 facilitated catalytic conversion. However, the O/C ratio, which is also an index for surface
248 hydrophobicity (Yang et al., 2019b), showed little dependence on the annealing temperature
249 (Table 1).

250

251 *3.2. Important role of initial support materials for catalytic conversion*

252 When the SnBC samples annealed at 500 °C were used as catalysts (160 °C, 20 min; Fig.
253 4), the fructose yield was negligible regardless of the support materials and despite their
254 higher amounts of total Sn (e.g., > 100 mg g⁻¹ Sn for SnW500) compared to those annealed at
255 750 and 900 °C. This indicated that the catalytic activity strongly depended on the
256 availability of active Sn sites rather than the total surface Sn content. At a low annealing
257 temperature, some thermal-sensitive volatiles, such as CO₂ and Cl₂, would be generated via
258 decomposition (Sikarwar et al., 2016), reacting with the loaded Sn to form chemically inert
259 SnO₂, which is inactive towards the glucose isomerisation (Yu et al., 2018). Previous studies
260 reported that the tetra-coordinated Sn⁴⁺ sites would be the major contributors for catalysing
261 glucose isomerisation, rather than the octahedral-coordinated Sn⁴⁺, such as SnO₂, which
262 exhibited poor Lewis acidity (Dijkmans et al., 2015).

263



264

265

266 **Figure 4.** Fructose yield and selectivity obtained from microwave-assisted glucose
 267 isomerisation tests over different synthesised catalysts (conversion conditions: 160 °C for 20
 268 min in water), where HMF, LA, FA, and LG are 5-hydroxymethylfurfural, levulinic acid,
 269 formic acid, and levoglucosan, respectively; SnW, SnLB, and SnHB are Sn-functionalised
 270 wood biomass (W) and biochars (LB and HB) pyrolysed at low (400 °C) and high (750 °C)
 271 temperatures, respectively; and 500, 750, and 900 °C are the annealing temperatures.

272

273 For the samples produced using HB, SnHB900 achieved a higher fructose yield and
 274 selectivity than SnHB750 (Fig. 4), despite the lower BET surface area of the former (Table
 275 1). The XRD patterns indicated that a metallic Sn phase was formed after annealing at 750 °C
 276 or above (Figs. 2d–f), revealing the occurrence of a redox reaction at the interface region via
 277 electron transfer between the adsorbed metal and carbon support. This carbothermal
 278 reduction could activate the inactive Sn species (SnO₂) during high-temperature annealing.
 279 The presence of Sn-Sn⁴⁺@C was probably relevant for the superior catalytic activity (Section
 280 3.3). It is noteworthy that the catalytic activity of the Sn-functionalised biochar catalysts was
 281 affected by the choice of initial supporting materials, i.e., SnW750 and SnW900 were the
 282 most active (Fig. 4). The metal-support interactions could be the decisive factor for

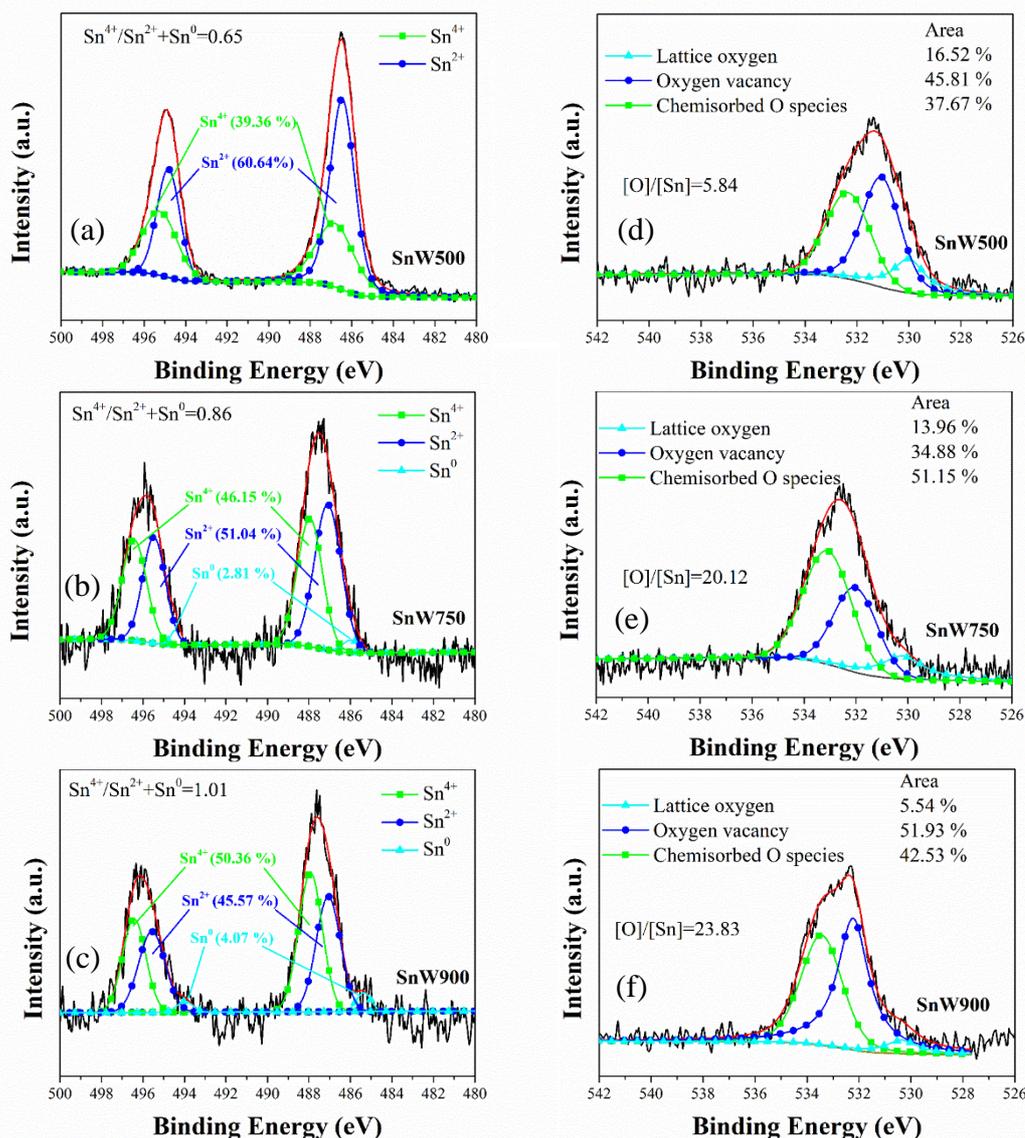
283 controlling the catalytic activity of the Sn-functionalised biochar catalysts prepared by ball
284 milling.

285

286 *3.3. Effect of annealing temperature on catalytic conversion*

287 Fig. 4 indicates that the annealing temperature was an important parameter, and heating at
288 750 or 900 °C was essential for the formation of active Sn on the ball-milled biochar
289 catalysts. To elucidate the valence states of the Sn dopants in the biochar catalysts, the XPS
290 spectra in the vicinity of Sn 3d were deconvoluted into three subpeaks (Figs. 5a–c),
291 corresponding to Sn⁴⁺, Sn²⁺, and Sn⁰ (Zhu et al., 2016b). The results indicated that the
292 binding energies of the two characteristic peaks of Sn 3d (Sn 3d_{5/2} and Sn 3d_{3/2}) of SnW750
293 and SnW900 shifted towards the higher energy region compared to the reference values. This
294 shift often is associated with the occurrence of strong metal-support interactions and partial
295 reduction of SnO₂ to metallic Sn (Ma et al., 2011). Therefore, increasing the annealing
296 temperature could promote the electron-donor effect between the metal and carbon support,
297 thereby enriching the d-electron density of Sn 3d (Pino et al., 2014).

298



299

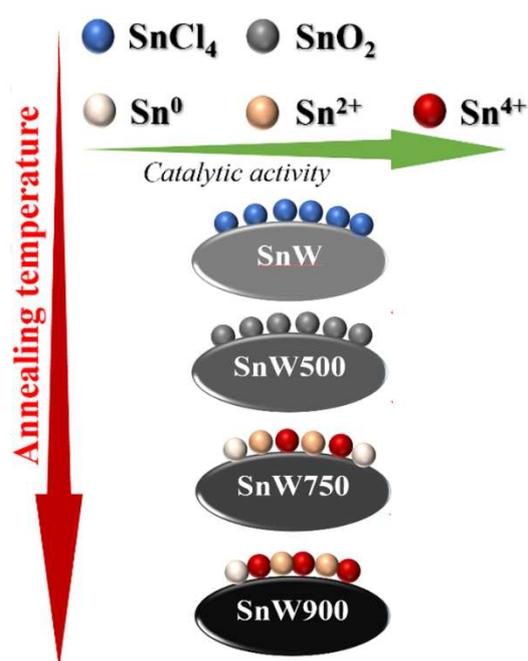
300 **Figure 5.** X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (a–c) Sn 3d and (d–f) O 1s spectra of Sn-
 301 functionalised biochar catalysts (SnW500, SnW750, and SnW900) prepared at three
 302 representative temperatures (500, 750, and 900 °C, respectively) using wood biomass (W) as
 303 supporting material. Ratios were calculated from the XPS results using their atomic numbers.

304

305 At the lowest annealing temperature, the Sn species in SnW500 mainly consisted of tin
 306 oxides—i.e., SnO₂ and SnO—and were chemically inert and exhibited little catalytic capacity
 307 despite the large amount of Sn. The ratio of $[\text{Sn}^{4+}]/([\text{Sn}^{2+}]+[\text{Sn}^0])$ increased from 0.65 to 1.01
 308 as the annealing temperature increased from 500 to 900 °C. It appears that the interconversion
 309 of the multiple valence states of Sn species (Zhong et al., 2014) could induce the formation of

310 active tetra-coordinated Sn^{4+} (Fig. 6), possibly accounting for the superior catalytic
 311 performance of SnW900 (Fig. 4). In addition, the annealing process would facilitate the
 312 substitution of the metal in the carbon matrices, thereby inducing distortion and defects in the
 313 biochar catalysts owing to the larger ionic radius of Sn^{4+} compared to that of C. This could be
 314 reflected by the increasing I_D/I_G ratio as the annealing temperature increased (Table 1), which
 315 may also contribute to the increased catalytic activity.

316



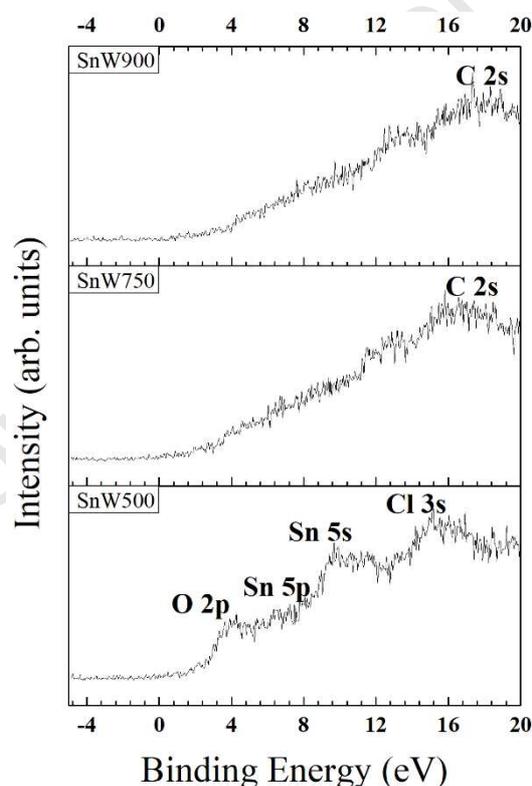
317

318 **Figure 6.** Schematic diagram for the transformation of Sn-biochar catalysts.

319

320 The O 1s XPS signals were deconvoluted into three peaks at 530.2, 531.3, and 533.1 eV
 321 (Figs. 5d–f), which were ascribed to three types of O species: lattice O, O vacancies, and
 322 chemisorbed O species, respectively (Jung et al., 2012). The content of lattice O decreased
 323 from 16.5 to 5.5% as the annealing temperature increased from 500 to 900 °C. This could be
 324 caused by the replacement of carbon atom with a lower valence metal (e.g., Sn^{2+}) leading to
 325 charge compensation in the catalysts. The surface [O]/[Sn] ratio of SnW500 was 5.84, which
 326 was lower than those for SnW750 (20.1) and SnW900 (23.8), suggesting that the Sn

327 speciation varied with annealing temperatures (Farahani et al., 2014). While the XPS valance
328 band pattern of SnW500 exhibited four sub-bands at 0-20 eV (Fig. 7), they disappeared from
329 the spectra of SnW750 and SnW900 with a new C 2s peak emerging (Zatsepin et al., 2016).
330 The BET surface areas of SnW750 and SnW900 were 159% and 173% higher than that of
331 SnW500, which may be partly ascribed to the surface etching of the carbon support in the
332 presence of Sn (Yu et al., 2019c). The annealing temperature not only affected the
333 transformation of active Sn species but also influenced the surface chemistry and structure of
334 the biochar catalysts, and thereby their catalytic performance.
335



336

337

338 **Figure 7.** X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy valence band spectra of Sn-functionalised wood
339 biomass (W)-based catalysts annealed at 500, 750, and 900 °C: SnW500, SnW750, and
340 SnW900, respectively.

341

342 *3.4.Evaluation of recyclability of SnBC catalysts prepared by ball milling*

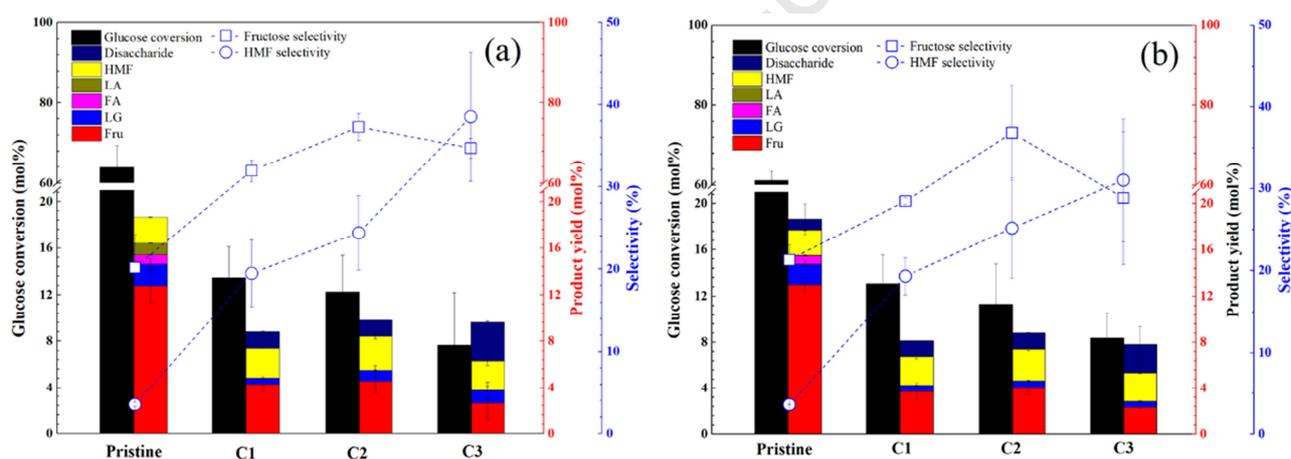
343 The adsorption tendency by the SnBC catalysts was investigated. The SnBC catalysts
 344 adsorbed only a trivial amount of sugars (Table 2), which was favourable for the rapid
 345 separation of catalysts after conversion, similar to the commonly used heterogeneous acid
 346 catalysts, such as Amberlyst-15 and sulfonated biochar (Hafizi et al., 2016; Cao et al., 2018).
 347

348 **Table 2.** Adsorption properties of ball-milled Sn-biochar catalysts towards glucose and
 349 fructose (initial concentration was 0.5 g/10 mL, and equilibrium was reached in 30 min at
 350 room temperature).

Catalyst	Adsorbed capacity of chemicals per gram of catalyst (mg g^{-1})	
	Glucose	Fructose
SnHB500	1.35	1.12
SnHB750	1.72	2.01
SnHB900	0.17	0.44
SnLB500	1.83	1.72
SnLB750	0.89	1.23
SnLB900	0.85	1.34
SnW500	0.08	0.14
SnW750	1.47	1.84
SnW900	1.05	1.28

351
 352 For the reusability test, the SnBC catalysts were separated and recovered by filtration after
 353 each reaction cycle. The liquid fraction was used to analyse the product distribution, and the
 354 solid fraction was sonicated with deionised water four times before the subsequent re-use.
 355 During the first recycling experiment, the fructose yield decreased from ~13 to 4 mol% for
 356 SnW750 and SnW900, which remained nearly constant in the second and third runs (Fig. 8).
 357 The XRD results (Fig. S1) indicated that SnO_2 emerged after the reaction; in accordance, the
 358 XPS spectra (Fig. S2) showed an increased Sn^{4+} content of 77% for the RSnW750. In
 359 addition, the leaching test (Fig. S3) showed ~20% Sn leaching in the first cycle for both
 360 SnW750 and SnW900 catalysts, which was consistent with the SEM-EDS mapping showing
 361 a decreased surface Sn content (Fig. S4). The total Sn content remained almost constant in

362 the next three cycles (Fig. S3). Therefore, the reduced catalytic performance may be
 363 associated with the transformation of active Sn species to inactive species and with Sn
 364 leaching. The chemical transformation of the SnBC catalysts deserves future studies to
 365 improve the recycling performance under hydrothermal conditions. From a long-term
 366 perspective, the advantages of the ball milling process for biochar-supported catalyst
 367 synthesis should be demonstrated via life cycle analysis and techno-economic assessment.
 368 Fair comparison can be carried out when energy use in ball milling and solvent use in
 369 conventional protocols are evaluated using the same metrics, e.g., environmental impacts and
 370 costs.



371

372

373 **Figure 8.** Reusability tests of (a) SnW750 and (b) SnW900 for glucose isomerisation to
 374 fructose (three reaction cycles: C1–C3 were conducted under the same catalytic conditions at
 375 160 °C for 20 min), where HMF, LA, FA, Fru, and LG are 5-hydroxymethylfurfural,
 376 levulinic acid, formic acid, fructose and levoglucosan, respectively; and SnW750 and
 377 SnW900 are Sn-functionalised wood biomass (W)-based catalysts annealed at 750 and 900
 378 °C, respectively.

379

380 4. Conclusions

381 We proposed an effective and green approach for upcycling wood waste into Sn-
 382 functionalised biochar catalysts by solid mixing Sn source with biomass/biochar support

383 under solvent-free conditions in a ball mill. The SnBC catalysts were evaluated in terms of
384 production of fructose from glucose, which is an important step in the valorisation of food
385 waste for value-added chemical synthesis. The results indicated that different
386 biomass/biochar supports and annealing temperatures significantly influenced the catalytic
387 performance of SnBCs because of the variations in Sn loading rate, metal speciation, and
388 surface chemistry. The catalysts prepared from functional group-rich biomass (SnW750 and
389 SnW900) presented more effective glucose-to-fructose isomerisation than SnLBs and SnHBs.
390 An intensive annealing process facilitated the formation of active Sn species, leading to
391 higher catalytic activity. Understanding the metal-support interactions is the key to designing
392 cost-effective biochar catalysts serving sustainable biorefineries, which is a promising option
393 for wood waste management.

394

395 **Supporting Information**

396 Operational conditions of HPLC; differences in XRD and FTIR spectra of pristine and
397 reused SnW750; XPS results of reused SnW750; SEM images and surface Sn content of
398 reused SnW750; Sn content in pristine and reused catalysts.

399

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403

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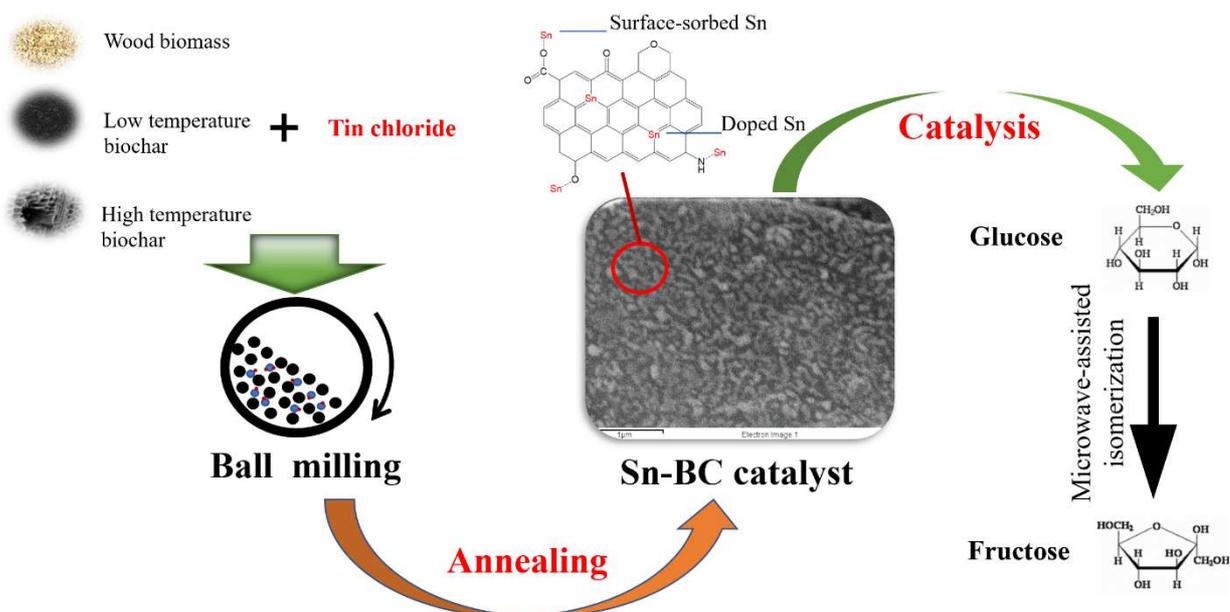
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571 The Sn-functionalised catalyst synthesised by ball milling shows effective catalytic activity

572 for glucose isomerisation.

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Highlights:

- Sn-functionalized biochar catalysts were synthesized via solvent-free ball milling.
- The sustainable biochar catalysts promoted glucose-to-fructose isomerization.
- Supporting materials and annealing temperatures determined catalytic activity.
- Metal-support interactions governed Sn loading and its speciation.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: