# Sequential bioethanol and methane production from municipal solid waste: An integrated biorefinery strategy towards cost-effectiveness

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# 25 Abstract

26 The organic fraction of municipal waste (OFMW), source-sorted (SS-OFMW) and non-27 sorted (NS-OFMW), was used as raw material for the sequential production of 28 bioethanol and biogas. Non-isothermal and simultaneous saccharification and 29 fermentation (NSSF) resulted in maximum ethanol concentrations of 51 g/L and 26 g/L 30 for SS-OFMW and NS-OFMW samples, showing overall process yields of up to 80% 31 and 59%, respectively, even without subjecting substrate to hydrothermal pretreatment. 32 Subsequently, the solid residues resulting from the fermentation were further subjected 33 to anaerobic digestion (AD), showing a methanogenic potential of 384±6 mL CH<sub>4</sub>/g of 34 volatile solids (VS<sub>in</sub>) and  $322\pm3$  mL CH<sub>4</sub>/g VS<sub>in</sub>, respectively. These methane yields 35 were similar or even higher to those obtained when using non-fermented OFMW 36 substrates (SS-OFMW: 380±18 mL CH<sub>4</sub>/g VS<sub>in</sub> and NS-OFMW: 239±4 mL CH<sub>4</sub>/g 37 VS<sub>in</sub>), highlighting NSSF as a beneficial step to enhance methane yields during AD. 38 Overall, bioconversion of OFMW would benefit from coupling bioethanol and biogas 39 production since the biogas produced might be further employed as bioenergy source to 40 compensate operational costs. 41 42 Keywords: anaerobic digestion; bioethanol; fermentation; methane; organic fraction 43 municipal waste

44

#### 45 Abbreviation list

- 46 AD Anaerobic digestion
- 47 BMP Biochemical methane potential
- 48 EU European Union

49	GC	Gas chromatography
50	GHG	Greenhouse gases
51	MSW	Municipal solid waste
52	NSSF	Non-isothermal and simultaneous saccharification and fermentation
53	OFMW	Organic fraction of municipal waste
54	NS-OFMW	Non-sorted organic fraction of municipal waste
55	SS-OFMW	Source-sorted organic fraction of municipal waste
56	TS	Total solids
57	VS	Volatile solids

#### 59 1. Introduction

60 Although many countries are trying to limit production of municipal solid waste (MSW) 61 through implementation of policies for waste reduction, increasingly large amounts of 62 these residues are produced. Today in Europe, each person generates an average of 475 63 kg of MSW every year (Eurostat, 2018). According to the European Environment 64 Agency (EEA), biowaste fraction accounts for more than 34% of the MSW generated in 65 the European Union (EU), producing near 100 million tons (86 million tons in 2017) of 66 biomass per year (European Environment Agency, 2020). This great amount of organic 67 fraction in MSW (OFMW) can be regarded as useful feedstock for the generation of a 68 wide range of biobased products instead of being discarded as waste (Kwan et al., 69 2019). This approach is in line with the nowadays mandate for promoting, developing 70 and implementing a sustainable circular economy. 71 In order to achieve the objectives set by the EU related to greenhouse gases

(GHGs) reduction and renewable energy share by 2030, at least 14% of the final
consumption of energy in the transport sector of every EU country will need to come

74 from renewable sources, with a total share of at least 3.5% of advanced biofuels 75 (European Union, 2018). In this context, the production of biofuels from waste 76 feedstocks has become of great interest. Municipal biowaste includes biodegradable 77 garden waste, food and kitchen waste from households, offices, restaurants, wholesale, 78 canteens, caterers and retail premises and comparable waste from food processing plants 79 (European Commission, 2018). This OFMW mainly contains carbohydrates (30-40%), 80 proteins (5-15%) and lipids (10-15%) in terms of dry weight. Thus, bioethanol is an 81 interesting biofuel that can be produced from this raw material due to its high 82 carbohydrate content. This biofuel is the most globally used with a total production of 83 85 billion liters in 2017 (World Bioenergy Association, 2019). Bioethanol is mainly 84 obtained from sugar or starch containing products, such as sugar beet, corn and wheat 85 crops. However, the use of lignocellulosic sources for bioethanol production, including 86 the OFMW, would be preferred due to the competition with food and the concerns 87 about ecological systems (Moreno et al., 2017). 88 After bioethanol production from OFMW, a significant amount of organic

material from the feedstock still remains and can be transformed into biogas by
anaerobic digestion (AD). Since only cellulose, starch and some dissolved
carbohydrates are converted to bioethanol, a great fraction of the biowaste energy
content is still present in the effluent of the fermentation process (mainly non-fermented
carbohydrates, lipids and proteins). This makes the effluents from the fermentation
process a suitable substrate for biogas production.

95 Co-production of bioethanol and biogas from different biomass has been studied 96 previously (Karimi and Karimi, 2018; Park et al., 2012; Patel, 2017). These studies 97 showed that biogas production in the corresponding bioethanol production facilities can 98 contribute to the energy requirements of ethanol production as well as to increase the 99 energy yields from substrates, since biogas can be placed in local markets as biofuel or100 electricity.

101 Despite the benefits of sequential production of biofuels, improving the 102 availability of the organic fraction in urban biowaste is one of the key elements for a 103 profitable use of this substrate. The composition of OFMW that ends in a treatment 104 plant is very diverse (Nielfa et al., 2015). The factors that influence this composition 105 mainly include the waste collection system that has been used, the region where the 106 MSW was generated and the climate variations during the year. The first factor 107 influences the amount of inert materials (glass, plastics, textiles, sand, etc.) that will be 108 contained in the biowaste fraction. This is a very important issue because the presence 109 of a high content of inert materials causes many technological problems in plant 110 facilities and reduces the efficiency of downstream valorization processes. In this 111 manner, pretreatments such as mechanical sorting of the OFMW are essential to achieve 112 the desired conversion efficiency of this complex feedstock into biofuels (bioethanol 113 and biogas) by means of fermentative processes.

114 This investigation was designed to evaluate an integrated biorefinery strategy for 115 the sequential production of bioethanol and biogas using OFMW as substrate (Figure 1). 116 For such a purpose, two set of samples (source-sorted (SS) and non-sorted (NS) 117 OFMW) collected at different seasons and locations were used as substrates with the 118 aim of minimizing the effects related to compositional variations. With this purpose, 119 bioethanol and biogas yields were determined for both types of samples. Special 120 attention was given to the hydrolysis required for making the carbohydrate fraction 121 available prior to the first fermentative process. At this point, it should be highlighted 122 that while other lignocellulosic feedstocks have been extensively studied for the

- 123 production of advanced biofuels, the use of OFMW is envisaged as a challenging
- 124 substrate due to its complex and heterogeneous nature.



125

Figure 1. Experimental scheme followed in the present work for the sequential production of bioethanol
 and biogas from source-sorted (SS-OFMW) and non-sorted (NS-OFMW) biowaste. NSSF, non-isothermal
 and simultaneous saccharification and fermentation; SSF, simultaneous saccharification and fermentation.

## 130 2. Materials and Methods

- 131 2.1. Substrates
- 132 Taking into account the main factors that can affect OFMW composition, 16
- 133 representative OFMW samples were selected to be chemically characterized from South
- 134 (Spain, 8 samples) and North (United Kingdom, 8 samples) of Europe. Out of the eight
- 135 samples considered in each case, four came from separate collection systems

136 (considering both food waste and garden waste) and the other four from non-separate 137 collection systems. Moreover, in order to address seasonal variability, samples were 138 collected during spring, summer, autumn and winter. The collected samples (20 kg 139 each) came from different industrial MSW treatment plants after mechanical 140 pretreatments. Thereafter, the remaining inert materials content (glass, plastics, stones, 141 textiles, etc.) in OFMW samples were removed manually at PERSEO Biorefinery Plant 142 at IMECAL (L'Alcúdia, Spain) and then, samples were treated in a pilot plant mill in 143 order to get a homogeneous feedstock. For this aim, an internal sampling protocol from 144 IMECAL company was followed to avoid discrepancies in the OFMW samples 145 collection. Samples were then sterilized at 121°C for 1h in autoclave to avoid sugar loss 146 during transportation and storage (-20°C).

147 2.2. Fermentative microorganism

148 Saccharomyces cerevisiae (Lesaffre, France) was used as fermentative microorganism.

149 Active cultures of this yeast were obtained by growing cells on glucose synthetic

150 medium (20 g/L glucose, 2 g/L yeast extract, 1 g/L NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, 1 g/L KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, and 0.3 g/L

151 SO<sub>4</sub>Mg·7H<sub>2</sub>O) at 35°C, pH 5 and 150 rpm. After 16 h, cells were harvested by

152 centrifugation at 5000 g for 5 min, washed once with 0.9% NaCl and diluted with

153 distilled water to obtain the desired inoculum concentration.

154 2.3. Non-isothermal and simultaneous saccharification and fermentation of the OFMW

155 Non-isothermal and simultaneous saccharification and fermentation (NSSF) processes

156 were performed in triplicate in 250-mL shake flasks using 100 g of 20% (w/w) OFMW

157 substrates. First, presaccharification process was performed at 50°C and pH 5 for 24 h

158 (during hydrolysability tests, this saccharification step was extended up to 48 h). A

159 tailor-made preparation containing both cellulases and amylases (kindly provided by

160 Novozymes, Denmark) was used for saccharification of OFMW samples (López-Gómez 161 et al., 2019). The enzyme dose was chosen according to the supplier instructions, using 162 the same mg of enzyme per g of glucan for comparison purposes. After 163 presaccharification, temperature was reduced to 35°C, pH adjusted to 5.5 with 10 M 164 KOH and the resulting hydrolysate was supplemented with the corresponding nutrients 165 (the same components of the aforementioned rich medium without glucose; Section 2.2) 166 and 1 g/L (dry weight) of S. cerevisiae. Flasks were then incubated in an orbital shaker 167 at 150 rpm for 48-72 h.

## 168 2.4. Biochemical methane potential and sludge employed as seed inoculum

biowaste), anaerobic batch tests were conducted. Batch tests were run in triplicate at 35°C and 150 rpm in serum glass bottles of total volume of 120 mL and working volume of 70 mL. In all biochemical methane potentials (BMPs), substrate to inoculum ratio was  $VS_{substrate}/VS_{inoculum} = 0.5$  (where VS refers to volatile solids). pH was adjusted to 7.5 at the beginning of the assay but not further controlled. 0.5 g CaCO<sub>3</sub>/L was supplied to each bottle to buffer the system and prevent pH changes. Bottles were

To evaluate the methane potential of the residues (raw biowaste and fermented

176 flushed with helium to ensure anaerobic conditions. The biogas volume was calculated

177 by measuring the pressure of the bottle's headspace. For the determination of

178 endogenous methane production, blanks containing only anaerobic sludge were run.

179 The overall methane production was calculated by subtracting the blank productions

180 measured in each sample.

169

181 The anaerobic sludge used as inoculum was kindly provided by the wastewater 182 treatment plant of Valladolid (Spain). Total solids (TS) and volatile solids (VS) of the 183 inoculum were 23.7 g/L and 17.1 g/L, respectively.

## 184 2.5. Analytical methods

185 The chemical composition of OFMW samples after mechanical pretreatment and 186 homogenization was analyzed in terms of carbohydrates (total glucans, starch, xylans, 187 and other carbohydrates), protein content, ash content, and moisture using the 188 Laboratory Analytical Procedures (LAP) for biomass analysis provided by the National 189 Renewable Energies Laboratory (NREL, Golden, CO, USA) (Sluiter et al., 2008). In 190 brief, samples were air-dried at 40°C until constant moisture (ca. 10%), and milled using 191 a centrifugal mill (Retsch ZM200, Retsch, Ins., Haan, Germany) to 1 mm particle size. 192 Total glucans, xylans and other cabohydrates were determined after a two-step acid 193 hydrolysis using 1) 72% (w/w) sulfuric acid at 30°C for 60 minutes and 2) 4% (w/w) 194 sulfuric acid at 121°C for 60 min. The resulting liquid fraction was analyzed by high 195 performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) to determine sugar concentrations. 196 Glucose, xylose, galactose, arabinose, and mannose were analyzed by a Waters HPLC 197 system (Milford, MA, USA) equipped with a refractive index detector (model 2414) 198 and a Transgenomic CARBOSep CHO-782 column (Omaha, NE, USA) working at 199 70°C with ultrapure water (0.6 mL/min) as mobile phase. 200 To determine starch content, samples were milled to 0.5 mm in a Foss Cyclotec 201 1093. This carbohydrate was measured using the Total Starch Assay Kit (Megazyme, 202 Ireland) based on the use of thermostable  $\alpha$ -amylase and amyloglucosidase. 203 Total carbohydrate content was determined by the phenol sulphate method 204 (Dubois et al., 1956). Nitrogen and protein content were estimated by the Kjeldahl 205 method using a Tecator digestor and Foss Tecator Kjeltec 8200 Auto Distillation Unit, 206 considering a nitrogen-protein conversion factor of 6.25.

207	For TS measurements, the samples were placed on a crucible, weighted in a
208	balance (Sartorius TE64, Germany) and subsequently introduced in an oven in
209	accordance with APHA standard methods (Eaton et al., 2005). To determine the VS
210	content, the sample resulting from the TS procedure was incinerated at 550°C for 5 h.
211	The decrease in crucible weight represents the VS contained in the sample.
212	Ethanol was analyzed by gas chromatography (GC) using a HP 5890 Series II
213	with an Agilent 6890 series injector. The system was equipped with a flame ionization
214	detector and a Carbowax 20 M column, operating at 85°C. Injector and detector
215	temperature were kept constant at 150°C.
216	Methane content in the biogas was determined by GC coupled with a thermal
217	conductivity detector (Clarus 580 GC, PerkinElmer, USA) and equipped with an HSN6-
218	60/80 Sulfinert P packed column (7' x 1/8" O.D.) and a MS13X4-09SF2 40/60 P packed
219	column (9'x 1/8" O.D.) (PerkinElmer).
220	
221	3. Results and discussion
222	3.1. Characterization of the OFMW

223 To minimize the effects promoted by substrate variability, this investigation evaluated 8

separately collected (SS-OFMW) and 8 non-separately collected (NS-OFMW) samples

225 during different seasons from South (Spain) and North (United Kingdom) Europe.

Table 1 shows the chemical composition of OFMW substrates in terms of average and

range values.

228 Regardless of the collection system, country or season, glucan was the main

- 229 component of biowaste and makes this substrate an attractive alternative for
- 230 fermentation-based processes. The main carbohydrates contained in this glucan fraction

231	were starch and other glucans (including cellulose). These components were shown to
232	be highly influenced by the collection system when compared to any other
233	macromolecule (Table 1). The average glucan content in SS-OFMW substrates was
234	50% higher than NS-OFMW, with maximum glucan content of about 60% and 35% of
235	the total dry matter for SS-OFMW and NS-OFMW, respectively. In addition to the
236	higher glucan content, SS-OFMW also exhibited a higher starch content when
237	compared to other glucans. Starch content in SS-OFMW ranged 23-43%, while NS-
238	OFMW substrates showed a starch content of 6-17%. This might be attributed to a
239	higher percentage of food-derived residues in SS-OFMW. Biowaste considers food
240	waste (starch-based biomass) and garden waste (cellulose-based biomass) for selective
241	sorting. Additionally, different collection systems can be used (i.e. garden waste and
242	food waste can be collected either separately or together) (Seyring et al., 2015), which
243	ultimately influences the proportions of these two wastes. In this work, systems
244	collecting both food waste and garden waste were used for the recovery of SS-OFMW
245	substrates. Nonetheless, the high ratio of starch vs. other glucans and the high starch
246	content in the studied SS-OFMW samples suggest a higher proportion of food-derived
247	waste in comparison to garden waste. In general, the amount of food waste discarded
248	yearly is higher than the garden waste. According to EEA, about 60% of the total
249	production of biowaste is food waste, while 30% is garden waste (European
250	Environment Agency, 2020).

**Table 1.** Minimum and maximum content for each component of the separately (SS-OFMW) and non-<br/>separately (SS-OFMW) collected substrates.

Component	SS-OFMW		NS-O	NS-OFMW	
Component	% (w/w)		% (*	% (w/w)	
Total glucans	33.9 - 61.3	$(44.6 \pm 9.7)$	26.4 - 33.6	$(29.8 \pm 2.6)$	
Starch	23.5 - 43.1	$(33.8 \pm 7.5)$	5.8 - 16.7	$(10.3 \pm 3.9)$	
Other glucans	4.8 - 18.2	$(10.9 \pm 5.2)$	11.7 - 26.4	$(19.5 \pm 5.3)$	
Xylans	1.1 - 3.2	$(1.7 \pm 0.7)$	2.6 - 4.4	$(3.4 \pm 0.7)$	
Other carbohydrates	2.4 - 5.3	$(3.6 \pm 1.2)$	2.4 - 5.5	$(3.3 \pm 1.0)$	
Protein	12.4 - 17.3	$(14.8 \pm 1.7)$	8.0 - 12.0	$(9.7 \pm 1.4)$	
Ash	6.2 - 9.7	$(7.7 \pm 1.3)$	22.3 - 31.0	$(27.1 \pm 3.0)$	
Moisture	61.2 - 80.5	$(69.7 \pm 6.5)$	49.3 - 59.7	$(53.7 \pm 3.8)$	

Lipids and acid insoluble solids were not determined. Mean values  $\pm$  SD from n = 16 (8 substrates x 2 technical replicates for separately and 8 substrates x 2 technical replicates for non-separately collected) are listed in brackets.

254	Proteins and ash are also major components of OFMW substrates and were
255	influenced by the waste sorting system as well (Table 1). In this context, SS-OFMW
256	showed about 12-17% protein content and 6-10% ash content, while NS-OFMW
257	exhibited 8-12% protein content and 22-31% ash content. It should be noted the high
258	ash content in NS-OFMW (27.1 $\pm$ 3.0 g per 100 g of substrate). This result may be
259	attributed to the presence of higher inert materials in NS-OFMW, even after the sorting
260	processes (Alessi et al., 2020). The presence of a higher ash content can negatively
261	influence the total glucan content in these samples, which might be the reason for the
262	lower glucan concentrations in NS-OFMW.
263	Overall, the raw material was suitable to conduct the two-stage process. Given
264	the glucan-rich nature of the biowaste, ethanol production seemed to be an excellent
265	choice for valorizing this residual stream while the rest of the organic matter could be
266	further used for biogas production purposes given the high organic matter content.
267	3.2. Non-isothermal and Simultaneous Saccharification and Fermentation processes
268	The high glucan content of OFMW (Table 1) makes this substrate attractive for several
269	fermentation-based processes. Among them, the present work was focused on
270	bioethanol production, since this chemical is leading current biofuel production
271	worldwide (World Bioenergy Association, 2019) and has been recognized as an
272	important building block to obtain industrially relevant alternatives (e.g. ethylene, ethyl
273	acetate, acetaldehyde, etc.) (Posada et al., 2013). Bioethanol production from
274	lignocellulosic substrates (including OFMW) requires ethanol titers of about 40 g/L to
275	reduce the costs of the subsequent distillation step (Xiros et al., 2017). Higher ethanol

276	concentrations can be obtained by increasing substrate loadings. However, increased
277	substrate concentrations usually lead to lower process yields mainly due to a significant
278	reduction of the enzyme performance (Kristensen et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2011) and
279	the mixing conditions (Demichelis et al., 2017). In this sense, with the aim of evaluating
280	final saccharification yields, hydrolysability of OFMW samples was firstly assessed for
281	48 h at substrate concentrations as high as 20% (w/w). These tests showed average
282	glucose yields of about 60% and 50% for SS-OFMW and SS-OFMW, respectively

283 (Table 2).

Table 2. Glucose concentrations and saccharification yields obtained with separately (SS-OFMW)
 collected and non-separately (NS-OFMW) collected samples

Substrate	Glucose (g/L)	Yield <sub>glucose</sub> (%) <sup>a</sup>
SS-OFMW	46 - 98	$45 - 82(63.7 \pm 13.7)$
NS-OFMW	30 - 47	$43 - 56(50.1 \pm 4.6)$

<sup>a</sup>Yields have been estimated as the percentage of the glucose released form the potential glucose contained in each substrate, subtracting the free glucose contained in the enzymatic preparation and substrates. Values representing average  $\pm$  SD from n = 16 (8 substrates x 2 technical replicates for separately and 8 substrates x 2 technical replicates for non-separately collected) are indicated in bracket.

286

287 In general, SS-OFMW showed higher saccharification yields, reaching values as 288 high as 82%. This result is due to the fact that higher ratio of starch vs. other glucans 289 were observed for SS-OFMW samples, thus highlighting the good hydrolysability 290 potential of this substrate even when working at high substrate concentrations. 291 Compared to cellulose, enzymatic hydrolysis of starch polymer is relatively simple and 292 usually leads to higher hydrolysis yields (Salimi et al., 2019). In this context, samples with higher ratios of starch vs. other glucans would exhibit higher saccharification 293 294 yields than other samples with similar total glucan content but lower ratios of these 295 carbohydrates. The higher saccharification yields, besides the higher total glucan 296 content in SS-OFMW, led to higher glucose concentrations when compared to NS-297 OFMW (46-98 g/L vs. 30-47 g/L). It is remarkable that saccharification processes 298 resulted in a wide range of both glucose concentrations and yields. This is due to the

high variability found in OFMW substrates for the total glucan content and the ratio
between starch and other glucans (Table 1). Glucose concentrations within these ranges
have been reported previously at similar substrate loadings. López-Gómez et al. (2019)
reported glucose concentrations of 37-55 g/L when subjecting OFMW to hydrolysis at
20% (w/w) substrate loadings, while Demichelis et al. (2017) observed glucose
concentrations of about 70 g/L when using food-derived biowaste at the same substrate
loading.

306 Considering the results obtained during hydrolysability tests, bioethanol 307 production from OFMW was evaluated at 20% (w/w) substrate loadings. In addition, a 308 NSSF strategy with 24 h prehydrolysis was chosen for bioethanol production, since this 309 configuration allows better integration of the different process steps (Moreno et al., 310 2017). NSSF of OFMW substrates led to ethanol concentrations of 24-51 g/L and 17-26 311 g/L for SS-OFMW and NS-OFMW, respectively (Table 3). High overall process yields 312 of up to 80% and 59% from the theoretical (and about 60% and 50% in average) were reached for these substrates. Similar to hydrolysability tests, NSSF processes exhibited 313 314 high variation for ethanol concentrations and process yields within samples collected 315 with the same sorting system. This variability correlates to the different nature and 316 content of the glucan fraction as explained above (Table 1). Furthermore, it is important 317 to highlight the high heterogeneity and the different origin of samples, which might 318 have also affected both ethanol titers and yields.

In general, higher ethanol concentrations and yields were reached when using biowaste separated at source. This result is supported by the high saccharification yields observed for these samples and by the absence of microbial inhibition during NSSF processes. The higher starch content and the higher ratio between starch and other glucans of these substrates (Table 1) resulted in higher saccharification yields for SS-

324	OFMW (Table 2). On the other hand, no delays were found in ethanol production after
325	yeast inoculation during NSSF assays of SS-OFMW or NS-OFMW (Figure 2). Also,
326	final ethanol yields for both SS-OFMW and NS-OFMW were similar to the enzymatic
327	hydrolysis yields for these substrates (Table 2 and 3). These results can therefore
328	exclude any inhibitory effect of the microbial processes, evidencing enzymatic
329	hydrolysis as the major limitation during conversion of OFMW substrates and
330	highlighting the potential of OFMW as substrate for bioethanol production.

Table 3. Ethanol concentrations and saccharification yields obtained with separately (SS-OFMW) and non separately (NS-OFMW) collected samples

Substrate	Ethanol Yield <sub>etanol</sub> (g/L) (%) <sup>a</sup>	
SS-OFMW NS-OFMW	24 - 52 17 - 26	$\begin{array}{l} 46-80\ (61.6\pm12.7)\\ 42-59\ (52.2\pm5.6)\end{array}$

<sup>a</sup>Ethanol yields have been estimated considering the maximum ethanol concentrations reached during NSSF processes and the potential glucose in samples (including glucose from enzyme preparation). Values representing average  $\pm$  SD from n = 16 (8 substrates x 2 technical replicates for separately and 8 substrates x 2 technical replicates for non-separately collected) are indicated in bracket.

333

334 Final process yields as high as 60% were reached in average for SS-OFMW 335 substrates even though no thermochemical pretreatment process took place prior to 336 NSSF assays. These yields are similar to those obtained after subjecting NS-OFMW 337 substrates to thermal pretreatment. Ballesteros et al. (2010) reported final ethanol yields 338 of about 60% of the theoretical after subjecting OFMW to thermal pretreatment (active 339 hygienization). This pretreatment process requires to maintain 160°C for 30 min, which 340 influences the energy requirements and thus, the overall process costs. Also, 341 pretreatment processes generally release certain biomass degradations compounds that 342 are inhibitory for the hydrolytic enzymes and the fermentative microorganisms. For this 343 reason, pretreated materials usually require detoxification and/or highly tolerant 344 fermentative strains to trigger fermentation (Mahmoodi et al., 2018a, b). In this work, 345 the absence of a thermochemical pretreatment and the use of S. cerevisiae as 346 fermentative microorganism, which usually shows high tolerance to lignocellulose-





355

Figure 2. Time-course fermentations during non-isothermal and simultaneous saccharification and fermentation (NSSF) of representative (A) separately (SS-OFMW) and (B) non-separately (NS-OFMW) collected samples (Spain, spring). Arrows are indicative of the inoculation timing. Macromolecular characterization of these particular samples can be found in Supplementary information.

## 361 *3.3. Methane yields attained via anaerobic digestion of the raw and fermented*

362 substrates

363 The remaining residue after ethanol distillation (stillage) is still a source of unconsumed

364 organic matter (mainly carbohydrates, proteins and lipids). Whereas glucose is the main

- 365 monomer employed for alcoholic fermentation, the rest of the carbohydrate fraction
- 366 (e.g. hemicelluloses), as well as proteins and lipids can be further digested for bioenergy
- 367 production purposes through AD. After ethanol production (fermented residue), the
- 368 characterization of samples revealed a slight increase of the rest of the macromolecules

- 369 with respect to carbohydrates. This was attributed to glucose consumption.
- 370 Macromolecular composition of the fermented residues is presented in Table 4.

371 The lower ash content in SS-OFMW and the percentages for the rest of the

- 372 macromolecules were in accordance with values obtained in previous ethanol
- 373 production assays as well as found in literature (Barampouti et al., 2019; Morales-Polo
- 374 et al., 2018).

Table 4. Macromolecular composition of the fermented selective (SS-OFMW) and non-selective (NS-OFMW) collections employed in anaerobic digestion for methane production.

	SS-OFMW		NS-OFMW	
Component	Raw	Fermented	Raw	Fermented
Carbohydrates (%DW)	$44\pm4$	$24 \pm 4$	$37\pm3$	$24 \pm 3$
Proteins (%DW)	$20\pm3$	$25 \pm 3$	$8\pm 2$	$16 \pm 4$
Lipids (%DW)	$30\pm9$	$43\pm 8$	$30\pm 8$	$33\pm9$
Ash (%DW)	$5\pm 2$	$8 \pm 1$	$25\pm3$	$27 \pm 2$
VI CD				

Values represent average  $\pm$  SD.

378	In order to compare whether the AD process could contribute to further
379	exploiting the unconsumed organic matter available in the fermented residue, non-
380	fermented and fermented SS-OFMW and NS-OFMW collections were anaerobically
381	digested for assessing their methanogenic potential.
382	The accumulated methane yields obtained can be observed in Figure 3. Methane
383	potential attained by SS-OFMW were 380.9 $\pm$ 18.4 mL CH <sub>4</sub> /g VS <sub>in</sub> and 384.6 $\pm$ 6.5 mL
384	$CH_4/g VS_{in}$ for the raw and fermented residues, respectively, whereas NS-OFMW
385	resulted in 239.9±4.2 mL CH <sub>4</sub> /g VS <sub>in</sub> and 321.7±2.9 mL CH <sub>4</sub> /g VS <sub>in</sub> (non-fermented
386	and fermented residues, respectively). Residues coming from a selective collection (SS-
387	OFMW) achieved higher methane yields than those attained in non-selective (NS-
388	OFMW) batches (Figure 3). It seems that the SS-OFMW presented better properties
389	than NS-OFMW when it comes to their anaerobic digestibility. Most probably, the high
390	sorting efficiency decreased the presence of most recalcitrant fractions and improved





**Figure 3.** Methane yields of the fermented and raw fractions from (**A**) the selective collection (SS-OFMW) and (**B**) the non-selective (NS-OFMW) collection.

401

402 In this work, biowaste was collected with two different sorting systems from403 different locations, countries and seasons, leading to differences in the macromolecular

404 composition of OFMW. This wide variability of the chemical components of biowaste 405 might results in variable methane yields. Alibardi and Cossu (2015) compared the 406 methane production of three different fractions of OFMW with different 407 macromolecular compositions (carbohydrate-rich, protein-rich and lipid-rich fractions). 408 In that study, the methane production ranged from 400 mL to 600 mL CH<sub>4</sub>/g VS<sub>in</sub> 409 depending on the assessed fraction. It should be highlighted that the methane yields 410 obtained in the present study using the fermented residue as substrate were slightly 411 higher when compared to other investigated substrates such as sugarcane bagasse, 412 kitchen and garden wastes or algae (157-283 mL CH<sub>4</sub> / g VS<sub>in</sub>) (Karimi and Karimi, 413 2018; Liang and McDonald, 2015; Park et al., 2012; Tian et al., 2013). This result 414 showed the particular suitability of OFMW for the sequential production of bioethanol 415 and biogas.

416 Compared to non-fermented residues, fermented residues resulted in similar or 417 even higher methane yields (Figure 3). The increase in methane yields when using 418 fermented residues has been also reported for other substrates. For instance, the 419 fermented residue obtained from oat straw yielded 245 mL CH<sub>4</sub>/g VS<sub>in</sub>, while AD of the 420 non-fermented raw material resulted in 201 mL CH<sub>4</sub>/g VS<sub>in</sub> (Dererie et al., 2011). This 421 result might indicate that bioethanol production can influence substrate availability 422 during the enzymatic saccharification and fermentation steps, which could make the 423 organic matter more easily available for the anaerobic microbiome (i.e. the bioethanol 424 production process may act as a pretreatment step in the digestion of the fermented 425 residues). The high lipid content determined in the selective fermented residues might 426 have prevented methane yield to increase more than the raw waste due to the toxicity 427 exerted by these macromolecules. Lipids hydrolysis results in high amounts of long

428 chain fatty acids, which are detrimental for methanogens under concentrations higher429 than 40% in TS basis (Hu et al., 2018)."

Overall, the use of fermented OFMW and the raw residue gave as a result
similar or even higher methane yields in batch mode. Therefore, coupling alcoholic
fermentation and AD processes for bioethanol and energy generation might be regarded
as a promising strategy to increase the cost-effectiveness of the process, even though
these results still require confirmation in semi-continuous operation.

435

## 436 **4.** Conclusion

437 SS-OFMW is a more preferable substrate for integrated biorefineries when compared to 438 NS-OFMW due to i) its lower amount of inert materials, ii) the higher glucan content, 439 and iii) the higher ratio between starch and other glucans. This raw material positively 440 influences the bioethanol production by increasing the glucose available in this process. 441 On the other hand, AD of fermentation residues results in similar and even higher 442 methane yields than their raw counter partners regardless of biowaste collection type. 443 This sequential strategy offers a more complete use of OFMW increased the carbon 444 conversion yield of this substrate into energy.

445

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456

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