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1 Enzymatic hydrolysis of corn crop residues with 2 high solid loadings: new insights into the impact of 3 bioextrusion on biomass deconstruction using 4 carbohydrate-binding modules

5

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17 Abstract

18 Lignocellulosic biomass is a sustainable source of renewable substrate to produce low
19 carbon footprint energy and materials. Biomass conversion is usually performed in two steps:
20 a biomass pretreatment for improving cellulose accessibility followed by enzymatic
21 hydrolysis of cellulose. In this study we investigated the efficiency of a bioextrusion
22 pretreatment (extrusion in the presence of cellulase enzyme) for production of reducing sugars

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23 from corn crop agricultural residues. Our results demonstrate that bioextrusion increased the
24 reducing sugar conversion yield by at least 94% at high solid/liquid ratio (14% to 40%).
25 Monitoring biomass surface with carbohydrate-binding modules (FTCM-depletion assay)
26 revealed that well known negative impact of high solid/liquid ratio on conversion yield is not
27 due to lack of exposed cellulose, which was abundant under such conditions. Bioextrusion
28 was found to be less efficient on alkaline pretreated biomass but being a mild and solvent
29 limiting pretreatment, it might help to **minimize the waste stream**.

30 **Keywords**

31 Lignocellulosic biomass, bioextrusion, carbohydrate-binding modules, enzymatic hydrolysis,
32 FTCM, FTCM-depletion assay

33 **1. Introduction**

34 Lignocellulosic biomass (LCB) is a sustainable, renewable, abundant and inexpensive
35 substrate. Its valorization can lead to the production of energy and materials with a low
36 carbon footprint. LCB has been identified as a possible solution to the current energy crisis,
37 characterized by depletion of fossil resources and a pressing need for reduced CO₂ emissions
38 (Lynd, 2017). However, the use of LCB as a substrate for 2nd generation bioethanol
39 production is hampered by its complex structure and recalcitrance to enzyme actions (Himmel
40 *et al.*, 2007). To overcome this limitation, biomass conversion is usually performed in two
41 steps: the first step involves a biomass pretreatment for improving cellulose accessibility,
42 which is followed by enzymatic hydrolysis of cellulose (Himmel *et al.*, 2007; Sun and Cheng,
43 2002; Khatri *et al.*, 2018a).

44 **The main objective of pretreatments for subsequent biochemical conversion is to increase**
45 **access to cellulose (also known as cellulose accessibility), which can later be hydrolyzed by**
46 **enzymatic hydrolysis processes (Khatri *et al.*, 2018a).** Twin screw extrusion has been
47 frequently used as the pretreatment of LCB (Karunanithy and Muthukumarappan, 2013).

48 Extrusion pretreatment has many advantages including high shear, rapid heat transfer, and
49 effective and rapid mixing afforded by good modulation of treatment steps (Vandenbossche et
50 al., 2014). The use of biocatalyst during the extrusion process could improve the biocatalysts
51 impregnation to biomass and boost the subsequent batch saccharification step. Therefore, in
52 an attempt to improve the biocatalysts impregnation, the enzymes were injected during the
53 extrusion process (Duque et al., 2014; Vandenbossche et al., 2015, 2014). This novel and
54 short bioreactive process, named bioextrusion (a mechano-enzymatic pretreatment), has been
55 proven to enhance the enzymatic hydrolysis of the LCB, as summarized by Gatt et al., 2018;
56 Vandenbossche et al., 2015.

57 One of the key advantages of the bioextrusion process is its ability to work with high
58 substrate loading. This is a critical parameter in order to decrease water consumption and the
59 costs associated with its removal (Lin and Tanaka, 2006). However, high solid loading often
60 decreases hydrolytic efficiency (Ramachandriya *et al.*, 2013). In-depth studies about high
61 solid loadings suggest that low agitation efficiencies, reduction of the contact area between
62 enzymes and substrates, loss of enzymatic activities and non-specific adsorption are some of
63 the factors associated with decrease in hydrolytic efficiency (Ramachandriya *et al.*, 2013).
64 Other conditions can also decrease biomass hydrolysis, such as inhibition of enzymes by
65 reaction products and mass transfer limitations (Hodge *et al.*, 2008; Kim *et al.*, 2008).
66 Therefore, it is important to study the bioextrusion process parameters in great detail in order
67 to cost-effectively maximize the saccharification of the cellulose and hemicellulose
68 components to fermentable sugars.

69 The main objective of any pretreatment, including bioextrusion, is to improve the
70 subsequent enzymatic hydrolysis of the holocellulose fraction by increasing the access of
71 enzymes to cellulose (also known as cellulose accessibility to enzymes) (Lynd *et al.*, 1999;
72 Wyman, 2013, Khatri *et al.*, 2018a). However, pretreatments vary greatly in the way they help

73 to expose cellulose and other components. Contrary to other pretreatment methods which uses
74 intensive physical and/or chemical conditions, bioextrusion is a mild mechano-enzymatic
75 pretreatment technique because it requires less energy and water consumption
76 (Vandenbossche et al., 2014). The combination of mechanical and biochemical constraints is
77 believed to overcome limitations associated with high solid and enzymes loadings (Gatt *et al.*,
78 2018). Currently, our incomplete understanding about the impact of pretreatment (on
79 microstructure) on a particular biomass is believed to be a key issue for reducing costs
80 associated with bioenergy production (Rollin *et al.*, 2011; Zhang and Lynd, 2006; Khatri *et*
81 *al.*, 2018a). Therefore, is it important to study the effectiveness and impact of pretreatments
82 on a biomass substrate that may play a significant role in a commercial viability of bioenergy
83 production. One of the major difficulties in studying pretreatment and process parameters is
84 the lack of rapid, high throughput and reliable tools for monitoring and/or tracking
85 lignocellulosic polymers at the biomass surface (DeMartini *et al.*, 2013; Khatri *et al.*, 2016).
86 Recently, a rapid and low-cost method has been developed to directly and precisely monitor
87 the surface of wood fibers and agricultural LCB using selected carbohydrate-binding modules
88 (CBMs). Named “fluorescent protein-tagged carbohydrate-binding modules method” (FTCM)
89 this method, and its adaptation FTCM-depletion assay (Khatri *et al.*, 2018a), relies on the use
90 of four specific ready-to-use probes made of recombinant CBMs genetically linked to a
91 designated fluorescent protein of the green fluorescent protein (GFP) family (Hébert-Ouellet
92 *et al.*, 2017; Khatri *et al.*, 2018a, 2018b, and 2016). The FTCM and FTCM-depletion assay
93 have been extensively studied and shown as robust, rapid, easy to use, unambiguous and cost-
94 effective surface characterization methods (Khatri *et al.*, 2018a, 2018b, and 2016; Hébert-
95 Ouellet *et al.*, 2017; Bombeck *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, the use of this surface characterization
96 method for studying the impact of various pretreatments (bioextrusion and alkaline
97 pretreatment) on fiber microstructure provokes substantial interest.

98 The aim of this work is to study the influence of bioextrusion on a subsequent batch
99 hydrolysis of LCB at high solid to liquid (S/L) ratios. In addition, this study also describes the
100 use of carbohydrate-binding modules to understand the influence of bioextrusion on cellulose
101 accessibility. Raw (RC) and alkaline pretreated corn crop residues (PC) were hydrolyzed in
102 batch conditions for 48 h using a cellulolytic cocktail and different substrate concentrations
103 (S/L ratios from 14 to 40%), with or without a previous bioextrusion step. A number of
104 analyses were performed in order to further our understanding of the impact of bioextrusion
105 and various experimental parameters on corn crop residues and its subsequent enzymatic
106 hydrolysis.

107 2. Materials and methods

108 2.1. Biomass: preparation and pretreatments

109 Raw corn (RC) crop residues (*Zea mays L.*) provided by Ferme Olivier and Sebastien
110 Lépine of Agrosphere Co. (Québec, Canada) were used in this study. Corn crop residue was a
111 mixture of lightly ground cobs, stover and leaves. The entire mixture was milled together to
112 produce a working sample with particle sizes lower than 5 mm.

113 Raw corn (RC) stover residues were also pretreated by cooking in NaOH solution under
114 pressure in a laboratory digester provided by M/K Systems Inc. (Danver, MA, USA). The
115 digestion conditions were as follows: a liquor ratio of 5 (12% NaOH/g of residue); 175 °C; 60
116 min digestion period as described by Adjalle *et al.*, 2017. The alkaline pretreated corn (PC)
117 was later washed with a pH 4.5 citrate buffer (50 mM) and dried at 50°C for 48 h. This
118 pretreatment removes a significant portion of the hemicelluloses and lignins, producing a less
119 complex starting material that exhibits an increased enzymatic accessibility (Khatri *et al.*,
120 2018a).

121 2.2. Enzyme cocktail

122 Enzymatic saccharification was carried out using the ACCELLERASE® DUET cocktail
123 from DuPont Industrial Biosciences in a citrate buffer (50 mM, pH 4.5). The enzymatic

124 cocktail had a protein content of 87.8 mg/ml and a cellulases activity of 115.6 FPU/mL.
125 According to the supplier's specification the ACCELERASE enzyme cocktail is expected to
126 have significant accessory enzymes (xylanase) activity. The protein content was measured
127 with the total protein micro Lowry kit (with Peterson's modification) from Sigma-Aldrich.
128 The cellulase activity was measured according to Ghose, 1987. The enzymatic cocktail had an
129 optimum temperature of 50°C and an optimum pH of 4.5.

130 2.3. Bioextrusion

131 Bioextrusion was carried out using a 27 mm twin-screw extruder (Entek, OR, US). Raw or
132 alkaline pretreated corn residues were introduced to the enzymatic cocktail and citrate buffer
133 (to control the S/L ratio) as indicated in Figure 1. Extrusions were performed at 50°C, 125
134 rpm and the residence time was 5 minutes. The screw configuration was chosen according to
135 the typical bioextrusion screw configuration as described elsewhere (Vandenbossche *et al.*,
136 2015, 2014; Duque *et al.*, 2014; Gatt *et al.*, 2018). Alternating between transport areas (T)
137 (conveying elements) and intensive mixing areas with kneading blocks (M) promoted both
138 good mixing conditions and isolated areas for reactions to occur (Figure 1). All the operating
139 conditions used here have previously been optimized by Duque *et al.*, 2014; Vandenbossche
140 *et al.*, 2015, 2014. The temperature used here was optimum for the enzymatic hydrolysis. The
141 screw rotation speed of 125 rpm was used to provide the longest residence time possible for
142 the enzyme incubation. The original objective of the bioextrusion was to start the enzymatic
143 hydrolysis in the extrusion pretreatment step, taking advantage of the good impregnation
144 capacities that extrusion has to offer.

145

146 *Figure 1: Bioextrusion screw configuration. T corresponds to transport areas with conveying elements*
147 *and M are mixing zones with kneading blocks. Ex corresponds to the bioextrudated biomass. Numbers*
148 *in first row indicate the pitch of the screws or the angle between the kneading blocks. Numbers in the*
149 *second row indicate the length of the screw in mm.*

150 **2.4. Enzymatic hydrolysis**

151 Enzymatic hydrolysis were performed in 50 mL tubes with 50 mM citrate buffer (pH 4.5),
152 0.1% sodium azide, and 0.5 mL enzymatic cocktail per g of cellulose (Danisco US Inc.,
153 2007). Tubes were placed in an Ecotron® incubation shaker at 50°C and 200 rpm. Treatments
154 with raw corn and without previous bioextrusion are noted as RC-E; treatments with raw corn
155 and with previous bioextrusion are named as RC-XE; treatments with alkaline pretreated corn
156 and without previous bioextrusion are titled as PC-E; and treatments with alkaline pretreated
157 corn and with previous bioextrusion are abbreviated as PC-XE. These experimental
158 conditions are schematically represented in Figure 2.

159 Moisture content is one of the most influencing factors for optimal biomass
160 saccharification as described in most of the previous bioextrusion studies (Chouvel *et al.*,
161 1983; Gatt *et al.*, 2018; Govindasamy *et al.*, 1997 Vandebossche *et al.*, 2015, 2014).
162 Therefore, its impact was tested by varying the substrate loading. This parameter is expressed
163 as the ratio of grams of solid per 100 g of liquid (S/L ratio). Non-bioextrudated and
164 bioextrudated raw corn (RC-E and RC-XE) were prepared with four different S/L ratios, 14%
165 ($\pm 0.04\%$), 23% ($\pm 1.00\%$), 31% ($\pm 0.72\%$), and 40% ($\pm 0.35\%$). Non-bioextrudated and
166 bioextrudated alkaline pretreated corn (PC-E and PC-XE) were prepared with two different
167 S/L ratios, 14% ($\pm 0.50\%$) and 31% ($\pm 1.91\%$). For PC-E and PC-XE, the S/L ratio of 14%
168 was selected because it corresponds to the enzymes supplier's recommendations and 31%
169 because it allows to evaluation of the influence of a higher substrate loading, without clear
170 process limitations observed with 40% in RC-E and RC-XE. Reactions were stopped by
171 immersing the tubes in boiling water for 5 min and then cooled in an ice bath for 5 minutes.
172 Each experimental condition was carried out in triplicate in separate tubes.

173

174 *Figure 2: Schematic representation of the experimental and analytical parts. RC, raw corn; PC,*
175 *alkaline pretreated corn. XE, batch hydrolysis with previous bioextrusion step; E, batch hydrolysis*
176 *without previous bioextrusion step; B, batch hydrolysis process. Path 1: samples diluted to 5% of dry*
177 *content. Path 2: Non-diluted samples.*

178 **2.5. Analytical methods**

179 **2.5.1. Dry matter and parietal compounds**

180 Moisture content was determined according to the French standard procedure NF V
181 03-903. A relative proportion of each of the three parietal constituents (cellulose,
182 hemicelluloses, and lignins) contained in the solids was measured using the ADF-NDF
183 method (Van Soest and Wine, 1968). All determinations were carried out in triplicate.

184 **2.5.2. Sugars analysis**

185 Tube content (Figure 2, path 1) was diluted with distilled water in order to reach 5% of
186 dry matter and was centrifuged at 5,000 g for 10 min at 20°C. The reducing sugars in the
187 supernatant were determined using the DNS method (Miller, 1959). The quantity of reducing
188 sugars was used to calculate the rate of holocellulose deconstruction (r_{HD}). It is expressed as
189 the ratio of reducing sugars in the sample, measured in terms of glucose equivalents, over the
190 initial mass of holocellulose. Results were corrected with blank values obtained at $t = 0$ h
191 without bioextrusion. However, as this method titrates all the reducing functions of the
192 different sugars in solution (e.g. oligosaccharides, pentose, hexoses etc.), specific glucose
193 concentration was also measured using high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC).
194 HPLC analysis were carried out with a Rezex RHM-Monosaccharide with deionized water as
195 the eluent in isocratic mode, with a flow rate fixed at 0.6 mL/min. Column was kept at 85°C
196 and RI detector at 50°C (Sluiter et al., 2010).

197 **2.5.3. Particle size distribution**

198 After 48h of enzymatic hydrolysis, the samples were washed with distilled water and
199 filtered through glass fiber Whatman 934 AH filters. These filters have a porosity of 1.5 μm .
200 Retained solids were then dried at 103°C during 12 h prior to mass measurements. Dry matter
201 left after filtration was compared to the initial dry matter in order to calculate the proportion
202 of dry solid with particle size smaller than 1.5 μm ($p_{\phi \leq 1.5 \mu\text{m}}$).

203
$$p_{\phi \leq 1.5 \mu\text{m}} = \frac{m_{dt} - m_{df}}{m_{dt}}$$

204 m_{dt} : dry mass before filtration

205 m_{df} : residual dry mass after filtration

206 2.5.4. Cellulose accessibility (surface cellulose exposure) using

207 FTCM-depletion assay

208 After 48 h of enzymatic hydrolysis, the unhydrolyzed residues were filtered, dried and
209 grounded. FTCM-depletion assay was used on these unhydrolyzed solid residues in order to
210 detect the total cellulose accessibility or surface cellulose (both crystalline and amorphous
211 cellulose) exposure after the various chemical, mechanical and enzymatic treatments
212 described above. The tracking assay was performed as described by Khatri *et al.*, 2018a with
213 two different FTCM probes: eGFP-CBM3a (GC3a) specific to crystalline cellulose and eCFP-
214 CBM17 (CC17) specific to amorphous (non-crystalline) cellulose. Probe production and
215 characterization (spectroscopic maxima, affinity to related substrate, and discrimination
216 among substrates) were described in earlier reports (Hébert-Ouellet *et al.*, 2017; Khatri *et al.*,
217 2018a, 2018b, and 2016; Bombeck *et al.*, 2017). Fluorescence measurements were recorded at
218 room temperature using a Synergy Mx microplate reader (BioTek). Fluorescence values were
219 further converted into μmol of fluorescent probes per g of dry biomass, using the appropriate
220 fluorescence standard curves for each probe. FTCM-depletion assay allows to specifically
221 measure the crystalline and amorphous cellulose exposure at the surface of the biomass
222 (Khatri *et al.*, 2018a).

223 3. Results and discussion

224 3.1. Biomass characterization

225 Figure 3 represents biomass composition characterization of raw (RC) and alkaline
226 pretreated corn (PC).

227

228 *Figure 3: Biomass composition before and after alkaline pretreatment step indicated on dry weight basis (dwb).*
229 *Error bars represent the standard deviation.*

230 The alkaline pretreatment led to the removal of a significant part of the extractives
231 such as proteins, starches, pectins, tannins present in the raw biomass (Sluiter *et al.*, 2010). In
232 addition, the alkaline action also induces the solubilization of most of the lignins and
233 hemicelluloses fractions. The amount of lignin in the RC biomass was 10.9%, which is similar
234 to the earlier published reports on identical biomass (Adjalle *et al.*, 2017, Khatri *et al.*, 2018a).
235 The alkaline pretreatment reduced the amount of lignin by ~ 65% which is compatible with
236 the known effect of alkaline pretreatment (Adjalle *et al.*, 2017, Khatri *et al.*, 2018a).
237 Furthermore, the total cellulose content (detected by ADF-NDF protocol) was significantly
238 increased (~ 78%) by alkaline pretreatment (Figure 3) which is in accordance with the known
239 impact of this widely used pretreatment technique (Kim *et al.*, 2016). The alkaline pretreated
240 biomass was a mixture of relatively less colored, swollen and broken fibers, which is
241 compatible with a decreased content of colored lignin.

242 The main objective of pretreatment for subsequent biochemical conversion is to
243 increase access to cellulose (also known as cellulose accessibility) by removing most of the
244 lignin and hemicelluloses. From total composition analysis (ADF-NDF analysis; Figure 3),
245 one can reasonably infer that more cellulose will become available at the fiber surface when
246 lignin and/or hemicelluloses are partially removed from biomass. However, such an
247 interpretation of pretreatment impact is indirect as total composition analysis represents a bulk
248 analysis and does not interrogate fiber surface properties (such as cellulose accessibility)
249 (Khatri *et al.*, 2018a).

250 The surface exposure or surface accessibility of lignocellulosic polymers is an
251 important substrate characteristic that influences the enzymatic hydrolysis rates (Arantes and
252 Saddler, 2010; Hong *et al.*, 2007; Mansfield *et al.*, 1999; Zhang and Lynd, 2004). A recent
253 study using FTCM-depletion assay probes reported that enzyme access to cellulose (total
254 cellulose surface accessibility) was a determinant for saccharification yield (Khatri *et al.*

255 2018a). Therefore, FTCM-depletion assay was used in this study to specifically detect the
256 proportion of the surface exposed crystalline and amorphous cellulose at the fiber surface of
257 raw and pretreated biomasses.

258 Figure 4 represents the surface exposure or surface accessibility of cellulose in raw
259 (RC) and pretreated (PC) corn crop residues (before enzymatic hydrolysis). Results show that
260 the amount of bound FTCM probes (μmol) per gram of biomass (which depends on their
261 cognate lignocellulosic component(s) surface exposure or surface accessibility) has increased
262 after the alkaline pretreatment step. When comparing to RC crop residues, the total cellulose
263 exposure (GC3a + CC17 probes binding) or total cellulose surface accessibility of PC crop
264 residues increased 2-fold (Figure 4A). The increase in total cellulose exposure (GC3a + CC17
265 probes binding) on the fiber surface is accompanied by the 2.01 ± 0.09 -fold increase in
266 crystalline cellulose (GC3a probe binding) and 2.30 ± 0.07 -fold increase in amorphous
267 cellulose (CC17 probe binding) (Figures 4B and C). This indicates that the surface
268 accessibility of cellulose has increased after the alkaline pretreatment. Furthermore, the
269 increase of the amorphous cellulose exposure was slightly higher than the increase of the
270 crystalline cellulose exposure (Figures 4B and C). One explanation of this difference involves
271 the well-known negative impact of the alkaline pretreatment on cellulose crystallinity (Fan *et al.*,
272 1987; Sun and Cheng, 2002). **The increase in the surface accessibility of cellulose or
273 FTCM probe binding can also be relate to the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area of
274 the biomass. Several studies have suggested that alkaline pretreatment is expected to increase
275 the surface area of fibers (Boonsombuti *et al.*, 2013; Kim *et al.*, 2014; Lee *et al.*, 2015; Song
276 *et al.*, 2016) which might reflect the increased binding of FTCM probes.** These results are also
277 compatible with the expected impact of similar alkaline pretreatment on corn crop residues
278 (Khatri *et al.*, 2018a).

279

280 *Figure 4: Surface exposure of A) total cellulose, B) crystalline cellulose and C) amorphous cellulose before and*
281 *after alkaline pretreatment as monitored by FTCM-depletion assay. Error bars represent the standard deviation.*

282 3.2. Biomass deconstruction

283 3.2.1. Sugar conversion rates and biomass fractionation

284 As mentioned previously, the increase in total cellulose accessibility is expected to enhance
285 the subsequent hydrolysis efficiency. The impact of different treatments on production of
286 reducing sugars (Figure 5A), glucose production yield (Figure 5B) and biomass fractionation
287 (Figure 5C) are presented in Figure 5.

288 *Figure 5: A) impact of S/L ratio on reducing sugar conversion rates after 48 h of enzymatic*
289 *hydrolysis. r_{HD} is the rate of holocellulose deconstruction (or reducing sugars conversion), expressed*
290 *as grams of glucose equivalents per 100 grams of holocellulose into the initial biomass. B) glucose*
291 *production yield (% of theoretical), after 48 h enzymatic hydrolysis. C) fraction of total dry biomass*
292 *smaller than 1.5 μm after 48 h of enzymatic hydrolysis. RC-E, raw corn without a previous*
293 *bioextrusion step; RC-XE, raw corn with a previous bioextrusion step; PC-E, alkaline pretreated corn*
294 *without bioextrusion; PC-XE alkaline pretreated corn with previous bioextrusion. Error bars represent*
295 *the standard deviation.*

296 *3.2.2. Influence of solid loadings.*

297 In all cases, increasing solid concentration led to a gradual decline in the holocellulose
298 hydrolysis. In particular, increasing the S/L ratio from 14% to 40% led to a 42% and 25%
299 decrease in the reducing sugars production for non-bioextruded (RC-E) and bioextruded
300 (RC-XE) raw corn, respectively (Figure 5A). In addition, the S/L ratio increment led to a 47%
301 and a 52% decrease in the final glucose production yield for RC-E and RC-XE, respectively
302 (Figure 5B). In the case of PC, no significant differences between non-bioextruded (PC-E)
303 and bioextruded (PC-XE) biomasses were observed. Reducing sugar production and glucose
304 production yield dropped by at least 36% and 35%, respectively, when increasing the S/L
305 ratio from 14% to 31%. **Due to the resource limitations only two conditions of the S/L ratio**
306 **were used in the case of PC. Therefore, one has to be careful while making any strong and**
307 **critical interpretation in case of the PC biomass. Regardless, these** results clearly demonstrate
308 the negative influence of solid loadings on reducing sugar production and glucose production
309 yield, **despite** of using alkaline pretreatment or bioextrusion. The negative influence of the
310 solid loading factor on the hydrolysis has been observed with other biomasses and batch
311 conditions (Du *et al.*, 2017; Geng *et al.*, 2015).

312 *3.2.3. Influence of the alkaline pretreatment step*

313 Alkaline pretreatment of the biomass led to a significant increase of the final sugar
314 conversion rates. The highest total reducing sugars production (~ 68%) and glucose
315 production yield (~ 53%) were obtained with the alkaline pretreated biomass (Figures 5A and
316 B). These results are also fully compatible with the higher surface cellulose exposure (both
317 crystalline and amorphous) detected for PC biomass by FTCM-depletion assay (Figure 4).
318 Alkaline pretreatment has been shown to improve the enzymatic hydrolysis of biomass (Sun
319 and Cheng, 2002). Furthermore, there was no significant difference in the reducing sugar
320 production and glucose production yield between the non-bioextruded (PC-E) and
321 bioextruded (PC-XE) alkaline pretreated corn (Figures 5A and B). The efficiency of the

322 pretreatment used in this study could explain the absence of impact from the additional
323 bioextrusion step. The efficient alkaline pretreatment highly improves the enzymatic
324 accessibility thus strongly reducing the need for an additional biocatalyst impregnation step
325 (bioextrusion).

326 *3.2.4. Influence of the bioextrusion step.*

327 In RC biomass, bioextrusion increased the total reducing sugar conversion by at least
328 94% (in the case of 14% S/L ratio) for all S/L ratio conditions (Figure 5A). The highest
329 increase of 149% was seen in the case of 40% S/L ratio. In the case of glucose production
330 yield, bioextrusion increased the glucose production yield rates by at least 31% (in the case of
331 40% S/L ratio) and the highest increase of 49% was observed for S/L ratio of 31% (Figure
332 5B). The bioextrusion's positive influence on glucose production yield was less pronounced
333 than on total reducing sugar conversion (Figures 5A and B). However, one must be aware that
334 reducing sugar measurements are non-specific. DNS analysis also titrates
335 poly/oligosaccharides and monosaccharides reducing ends obtained from hemicellulose
336 hydrolysis. This may explain the observed differences between glucose conversion yield and
337 total reducing sugars conversions. It should be noted that the maximal glucose conversion
338 yield achieved with bioextrusion (RC-XE) was 23% (in the case of 14% S/L ratio) compared
339 to the mere 16% (in the case of 14% S/L ratio) conversion yield measured for non
340 bioextrusion (RC-E) residues (Figure 5B), indicating that it did improve hydrolysis, although
341 much less efficiently than alkaline pretreatment (~ 50% glucose conversion yield). The
342 positive influence of bioextrusion on glucose production yield is clearly negatively influenced
343 by the solid loading but to a lesser extent than on reducing sugar conversion (Figures 5A and
344 B).

345 Mixing the enzymes with biomass during mechanical treatment using the bioextrusion
346 technique appears to significantly improve the enzymatic hydrolysis of RC. These enhanced

347 hydrolysis results can be associated with good bioextrusion dispersive and distributive mixing
348 conditions, especially by means of the kneading blocks. These characteristics can improve
349 mass transfer, agitation efficiency and allow higher contact between enzymes and substrate.
350 These significant improvements are obtained without high temperatures or strong chemicals
351 and with relatively very high solid loadings (up to 40 % of S/L ratio). Bioextrusion positive
352 influence can be used as a way to increase the sugar production for a given substrate loading,
353 or as a way to retain good hydrolysis outcomes with higher substrate loadings and reduced
354 water consumption.

355 In the case of PC, comparable conversion rates were obtained with or without the
356 bioextrusion step (Figures 5A and B). This information highlights that the good mixing
357 conditions of the bioextrusion step did not afford any additional advantage when the intensive
358 alkaline pretreatment was used.

359 3.2.5. Impact on biomass fractionation

360 The proportion of dry mass loss after 48 h of enzymatic hydrolysis was measured and
361 analyzed for biomass fractionation using particle size distribution for all reaction conditions
362 (Figure 5C). The changes in proportion of particles under 1.5 μm should corroborate the sugar
363 conversion rates discussed above (Figures 5A and B).

364 It was apparent that increasing the S/L ratio led to a diminished production of small
365 particles (dry biomass smaller than 1.5 μm) (Figure 5C). This suggests that the deconstruction
366 of biomass by enzymes is relatively hindered at higher substrate loadings, which also explains
367 the negative influence of solid loadings on sugar conversion rates (Figures 5A and B). Sugar
368 production is a result of holocellulose deconstruction by enzymatic hydrolysis that is
369 dependent on biomass fractionation (Samaniuk *et al.*, 2011). However, the correlation
370 between size and hydrolysis varies depending on the initial biomass and the process
371 conditions. In raw biomass, bioextrusion (RC-XE) promoted particles size reduction when

372 compared to RC-E. Indirectly, this explains the impact of bioextrusion on increased
373 enzymatic hydrolysis which is in agreement with reducing sugar conversion rates and glucose
374 production yield (Figures 5A and B).

375 Furthermore, alkaline pretreated biomass exhibited maximum biomass fractionation when
376 compared to raw biomass. Figure 5C shows that for PC-E and PC-XE the difference in terms
377 of particle size distribution between 14 and 31% of S/L ratios is relatively less pronounced
378 than the difference in terms of conversion rates (Figures 5A and B). Moreover, a slight
379 increase (~ 9%) of the proportion of particles under 1.5 μm is observable for 31% of S/L ratio
380 for the PC-XE (Figure 5C). This may indicate a small improvement of the fractionation using
381 the bioextrusion step even when an intense alkaline pretreatment step was used.

382 3.2.6. Surface exposed cellulose after enzymatic hydrolysis.

383 The maximum observed glucose production yield of ~ 50% suggests that there must be
384 a significant amount of unhydrolyzed biomass retained. Therefore, after hydrolysis (48 h) of
385 various pretreated corn crop-residues, the unhydrolyzed components were tracked by FTCM-
386 depletion assay. Figures 6 A-D represent crystalline and amorphous cellulose accessibility
387 profiles before and after hydrolysis, for both RC and PC biomass, as detected by FTCM-
388 depletion assay. Equivalent quantities (*i.e.* 25 mg) of biomass residues were used for all the
389 FTCM tests presented in Figure 6.

390

391 *Figure 6. Surface accessibility profile of lignocellulosic components in corn crop residues after enzymatic*
392 *hydrolysis at various S/L ratios. A) FTCM probes signals for RC-E, compared to raw biomass (RC) B) RC-XE*
393 *samples compared to RC C) PC-E samples compared to pretreated corn (PC) D) PC-XE samples compared to*
394 *PC. RC-E, raw corn without a previous bioextrusion step; RC-XE, raw corn with a previous bioextrusion step;*
395 *PC-E, alkaline pretreated corn without bioextrusion; PC-XE, alkaline pretreated corn with previous*
396 *bioextrusion. Green and cherry color represents GC3a and CC17 FTCM probe, respectively. RC represents the*
397 *surface accessibility profile unhydrolyzed raw corn crop residues (from Figure 5). PC represents the surface*
398 *accessibility profile of unhydrolyzed alkaline pretreated corn crop residues (from Figure 5). The RC and PC*
399 *surface accessibility profiles are used here for comparison purposes. Error bars represent the standard deviation.*

400 The fiber surface exposure of raw biomass after batch hydrolysis was dominated by
401 crystalline cellulose (2.5-3 fold higher than amorphous cellulose) under all S/L ratio (Figure
402 6A). This indicates that in all cases, the exposed outer surface is mostly composed of
403 crystalline cellulose and that S/L ratio did not lead to preferential hydrolysis of either
404 cellulose form. The dominance of crystalline cellulose in RC biomass is fully compatible with
405 previously measured crystallinity indexes for raw corn crop residues (Kumar et al., 2009).

406 Cellulose accessibility profile of RC-E exhibited a gradual increment in both
407 crystalline and amorphous cellulose with respect to the S/L ratio (Figure 6A). This
408 comparatively higher cellulose surface exposure is due to the inherent nature of enzymatic
409 hydrolysis. Enzymatic hydrolysis is a layer by layer process *i.e.* after the complete hydrolysis
410 of an exposed polysaccharide layer, a new, previously buried or hidden, layer with different
411 surface characteristics will expose. In this case, after 48 h of enzymatic hydrolysis, it seems
412 that in all the S/L ratios a new polysaccharide layer with higher amount of both crystalline
413 and amorphous cellulose is exposed. Furthermore, this increase in the surface cellulose
414 exposure could also be related to the increase in the substrate loading. Higher substrate
415 loading with limited enzyme supplementation or non-optimum reaction conditions is expected
416 to leave behind a significant amount of unhydrolyzed substrate, thus increasing the detection
417 of both crystalline and amorphous cellulose.

418 This suggests that enzymatic hydrolysis of RC biomass became more and more
419 inefficient at higher S/L ratio. The higher content in exposed cellulose left after hydrolysis is
420 fully compatible with the decreased sugar conversion yield observed for higher S/L ratio
421 (Figures 5A and B). The detection of larger content of exposed cellulose in higher S/L ratio
422 appears to be a direct consequence of inability of enzyme to achieve efficient cellulose
423 degradation in low water biomass. It also suggests that inefficient conversion at high S/L ratio
424 is not a result of lack of exposed cellulose, which was abundant under such conditions.

425 Similar trends were observed regarding the cellulose accessibility profiles of RC-XE
426 biomass (Figure 6B). The amount of available cellulose at surface grew as the S/L ratio
427 increased, corroborating sugar conversion yield indicating the negative impact of S/L ratio on
428 enzymatic efficiency (figures 5A and B). Further, comparing results from panel A to panel B
429 allows to emphasize the positive impact of bioextrusion on following batch hydrolysis.
430 Comparing to RC-E cellulose accessibility profile, both crystalline and amorphous cellulose
431 accessibility in RC-XE biomass was at least 1.25-fold lower at any given S/L ratio. This is
432 due to an additional bioextrusion pretreatment step which led to enhanced enzymatic
433 hydrolysis of the corn crop residues biomass as discussed earlier (Figures 5A and B). Again,
434 in the RC-XE biomass, the fiber surface exposure was dominated by crystalline cellulose. The
435 amorphous cellulose exposure was 2.5-3-fold lower than crystalline cellulose, suggesting that
436 S/L ratio did not change cellulose populations (crystalline versus non-crystalline).

437 Figure 6C represents the cellulose accessibility profile of PC-E biomass. The result
438 exhibits an important decrement in both crystalline and amorphous cellulose with respect to
439 the S/L ratio. The improved enzymatic hydrolysis is likely to have hydrolyzed most of the
440 biomass, thus leaving behind significantly lower amount of unhydrolyzed cellulose. These
441 observations are fully compatible with the results presented in Figures 5A and B showing that
442 alkaline pretreatment lead to the highest sugar conversion yield. The fiber surface exposure in
443 PC-E biomass was dominated by crystalline cellulose. On the other hand, very small amount
444 of amorphous cellulose was detected by FTCM probes for PC-E which is due to the
445 preferential vulnerability of disordered cellulose. In the case of PC-XE biomass (Figure 6D),
446 FTCM probes indicate a further degradation of cellulose afforded by the addition of
447 bioextrusion to alkaline pretreatment. This additional degradation corroborates results on
448 particle size reduction where a slight increase (~ 9%) in percentage of small particles was
449 observed for PC-E vs PC-XE (Figure 5C). However, the additional degradation suggested

450 here remains small, and did not lead to significant increase in sugar production yield. In
451 summary, the FTTCM-depletion assay strongly suggests that after 48 h of enzymatic hydrolysis
452 of RC biomass, there was still a substantial amount of unhydrolyzed cellulose left which
453 could be hydrolyzed by improving the enzyme concentration and/or hydrolysis time. This also
454 suggests that the FTTCM-depletion assay could be used to characterize the unhydrolyzed
455 biomass for optimum enzymatic hydrolysis. Bioextrusion significantly reduced the
456 unhydrolyzed total cellulose amount which may be linked with good dispersive and
457 distributive mixing conditions, overcoming some limitations associated with high solid
458 loadings (Ramos *et al.*, 2015) and biomass microstructure. Alkaline pretreatment led to a
459 strong reduction of unhydrolyzed total cellulose on the surface, which is compatible with
460 extended biomass deconstruction (Figure 5C) and hydrolysis (Figures 5A and B). The strong
461 alkaline pretreatment conditions led to a very limited influence of the previous bioextrusion
462 step. However, this finite influence was only detectable via FTTCM-depletion assay.

463 4. Industrial perspectives

464 Bioextrusion demonstrated a significant improvement for the raw LCB valorization. In
465 raw LCB, this mild condition pretreatment proved to be efficient with very high substrate
466 loadings (up to 40% of solid to liquid ratio) and allowed good hydrolysis conditions while
467 increasing the substrate concentration. In addition, extrusion is a continuous process that is
468 easily adaptable to industrial scale. Therefore, bioextrusion would be a viable option for
469 industries to obtain concentrated sugars, especially for second generation bioethanol
470 production, while keeping mild pretreatment conditions with a very limited impact of water
471 consumption and removal.

472 However, the best hydrolysis outcomes were obtained with severe alkaline pretreatment,
473 which seems to strongly reduce the positive influence of the bioextrusion step. This result
474 supports the idea that the removal of the ligno-hemicellulosic barrier allows good enzymatic

475 impregnation of the biomass even without bioextrusion. Nevertheless, LCB pretreatment is
476 one of the costliest step in the biological production of cellulosic ethanol (about 20% of the
477 total cost) (Yang and Wyman, 2008). Such a severe alkaline pretreatment, close to the
478 conditions used in the paper industry, is not economically viable. This suggests that there is a
479 challenge to find a milder alkaline pretreatment conditions which could go along with
480 bioextrusion to improve the LCB hydrolysis with high solid loadings. Existing mild reactive
481 extrusion pretreatments (Duque *et al.*, 2017; Vandebossche *et al.*, 2016) could be a solution
482 to limit the inhibiting side-effects of strong physico-chemical pretreatments, while allowing
483 process continuity with bioextrusion.

484 Furthermore, FTCM-depletion assay allowed inspection of the cellulose accessibility
485 profile for both raw and alkaline pretreated corn crop residues. Total cellulose accessibility
486 was found to be higher for alkaline pretreated biomass. To our knowledge, this is the first
487 time the FTCM methodology has helped to characterize the unhydrolyzed materials (after 48h
488 of enzymatic hydrolysis). Compare to alkaline pretreated biomass, the raw biomass exhibited
489 significantly higher total cellulose accessibility in the unhydrolyzed biomass after 48 h of
490 enzymatic hydrolysis. Moreover, it demonstrated that surface exposed cellulose was mainly in
491 its crystalline (most resistant) form. The FTCM-depletion assay findings supported the
492 information obtained with classical analytical techniques. FTCM-depletion assay may offer
493 considerable potential to optimize and increase the overall performance of the biomass
494 pretreatment strategies for biofuel production technologies.

495 5. Conclusions

496 The bioextrusion pretreatment enhanced the subsequent batch hydrolysis of raw corn crop
497 residues at high solid loadings (solid/liquid ratio up to 40%). The positive influence of
498 bioextrusion was negatively influenced by the solid loading(s) The surface cellulose

499 accessibility analysis via FTCM-depletion assay supported classical analyses and exhibited
500 that the negative impact of high solid/liquid ratio on conversion yield were not associated
501 with a lack of exposed cellulose. Bioextrusion was found to be less efficient on severe
502 alkaline pretreated biomass but being a mild and solvent limiting pretreatment technique, it
503 might help to decrease **the pretreatment waste stream**.

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512 patent applications in several countries on FTCM methodology.

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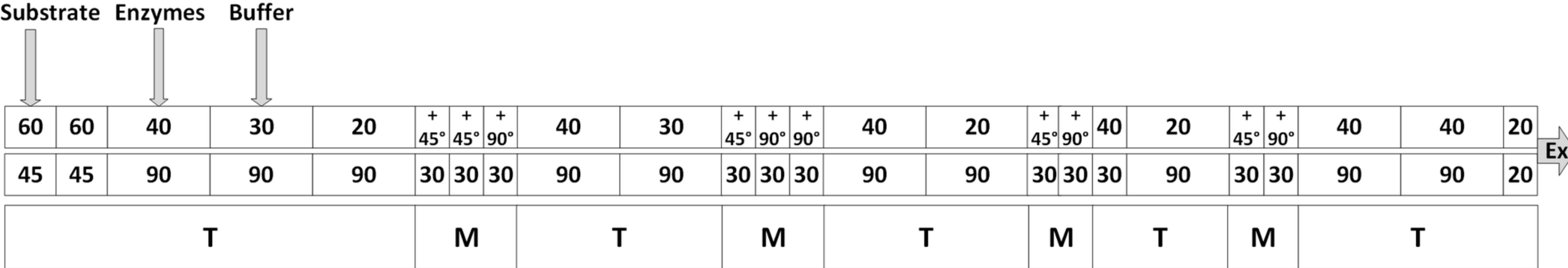
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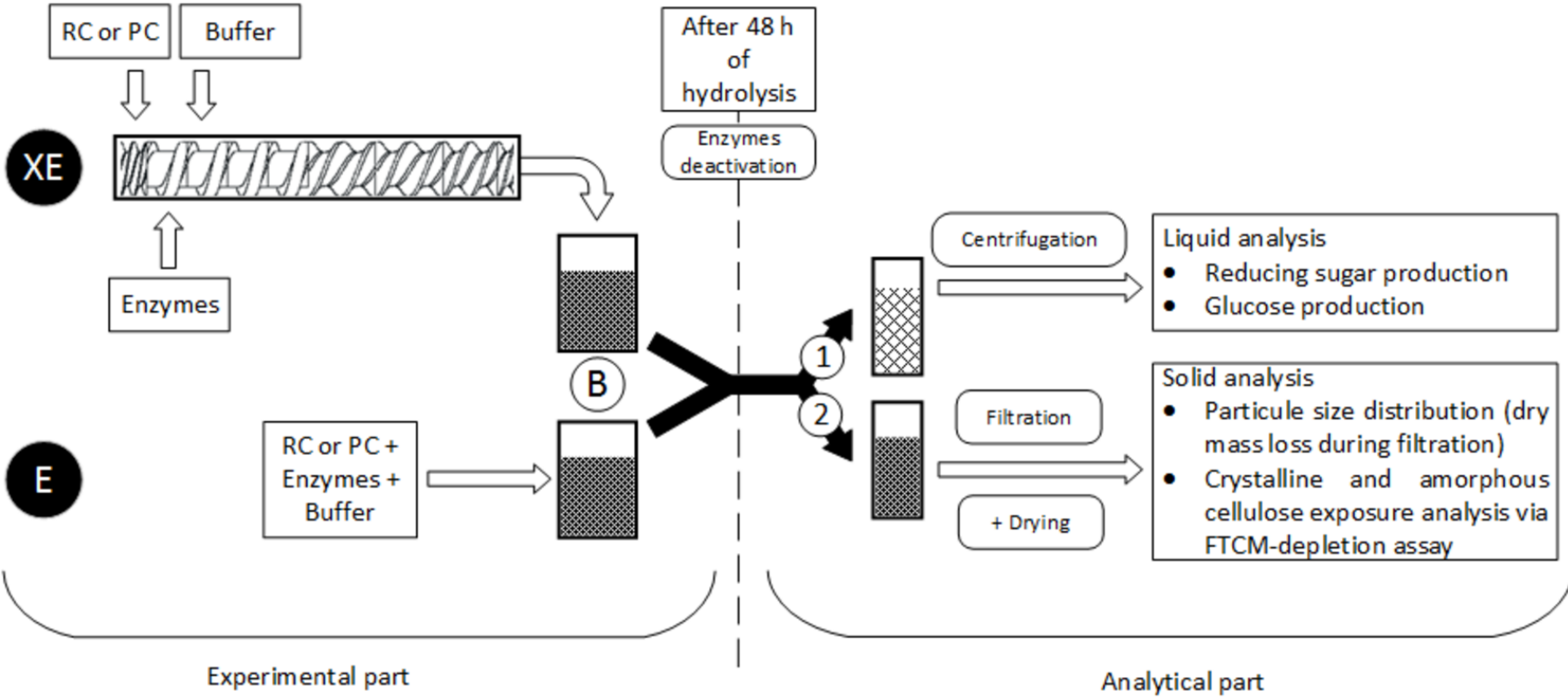
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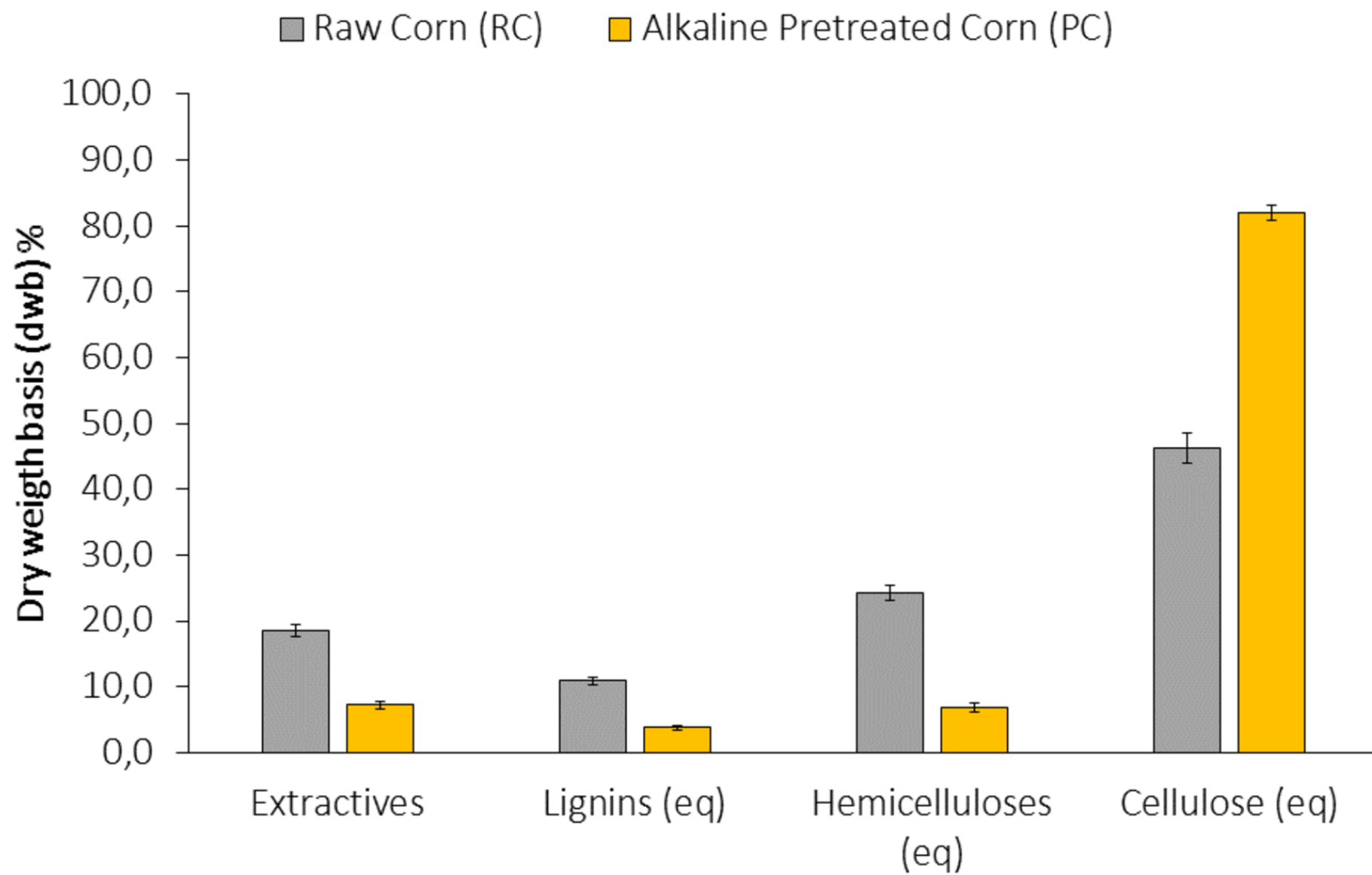
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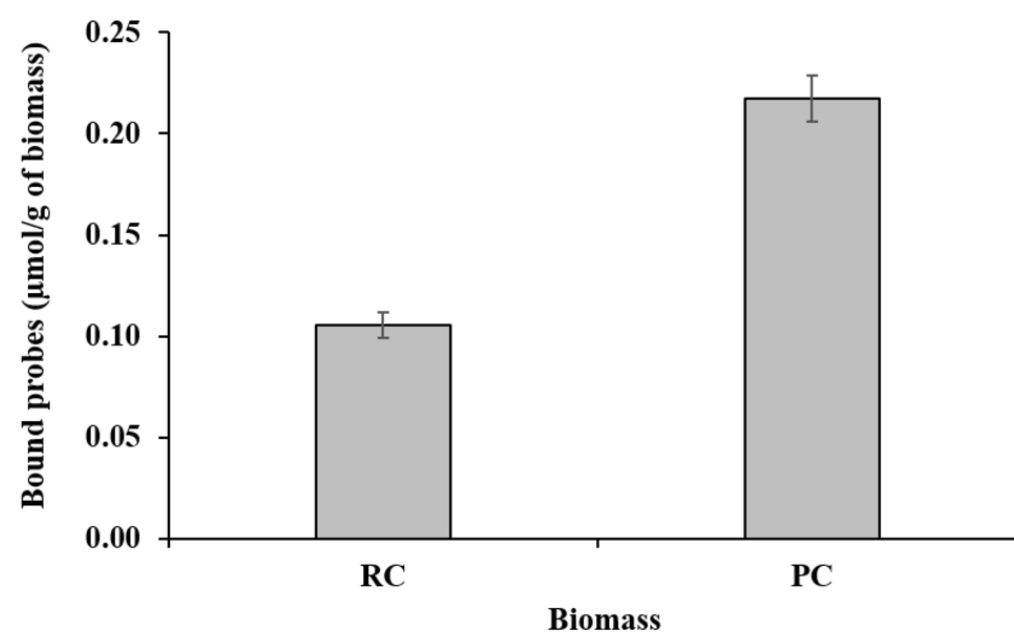
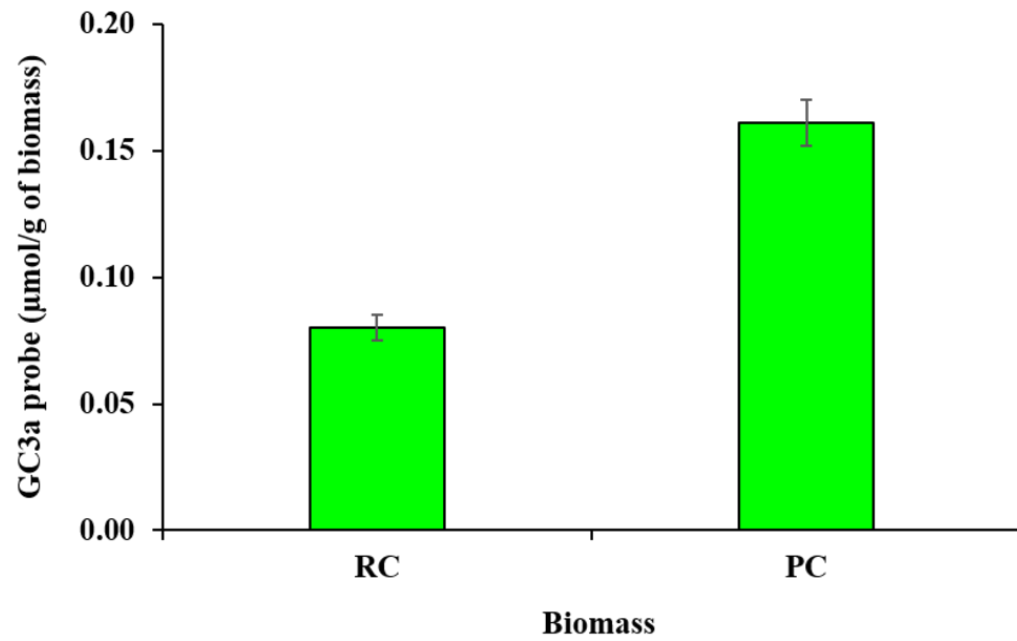
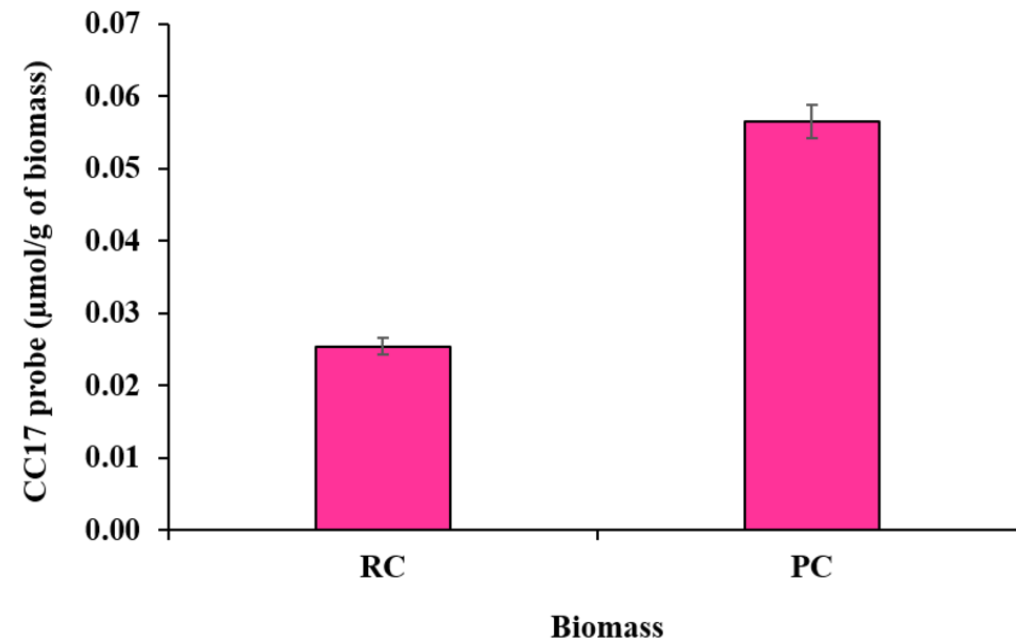
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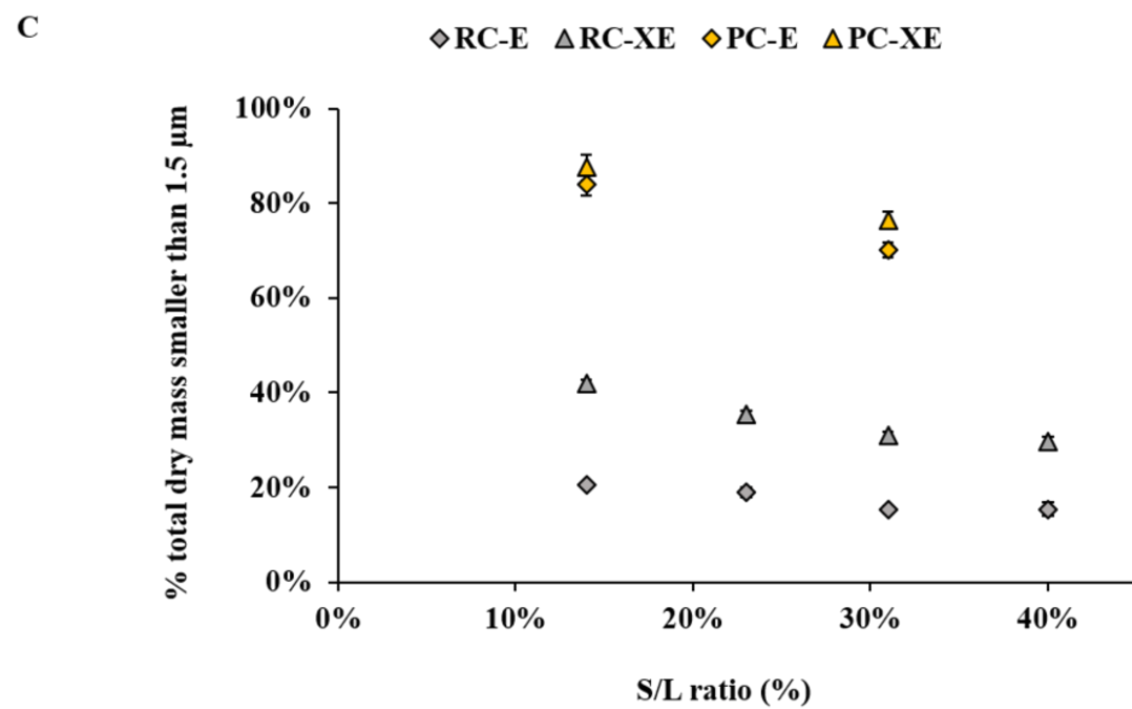
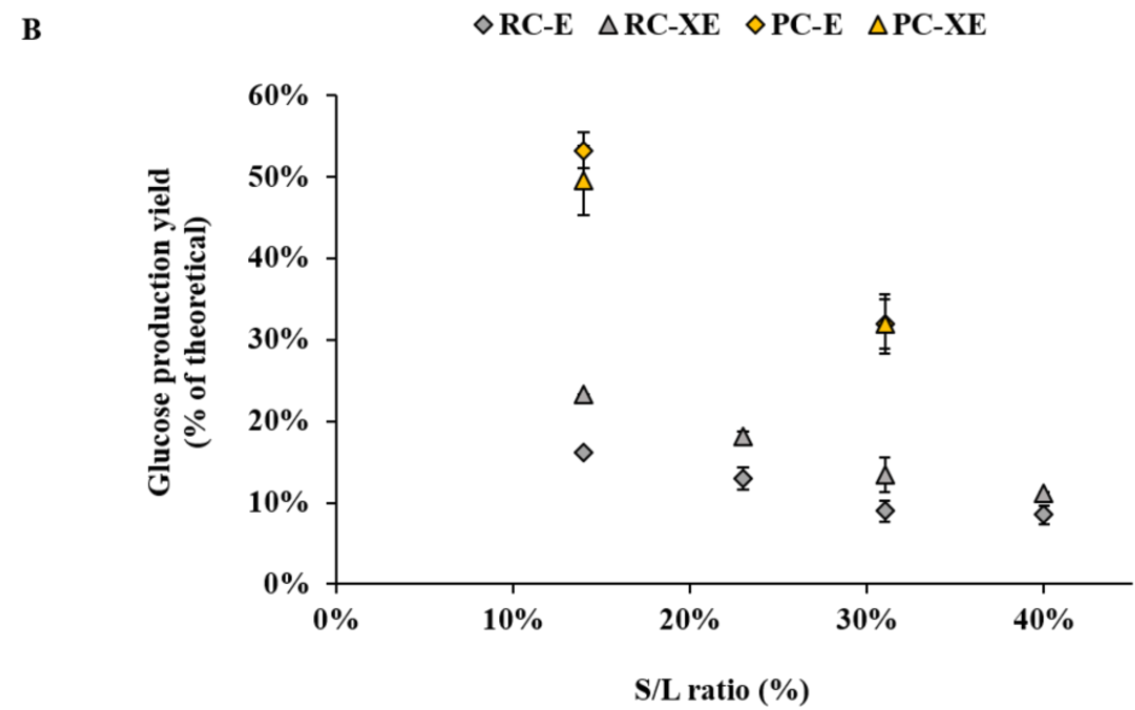
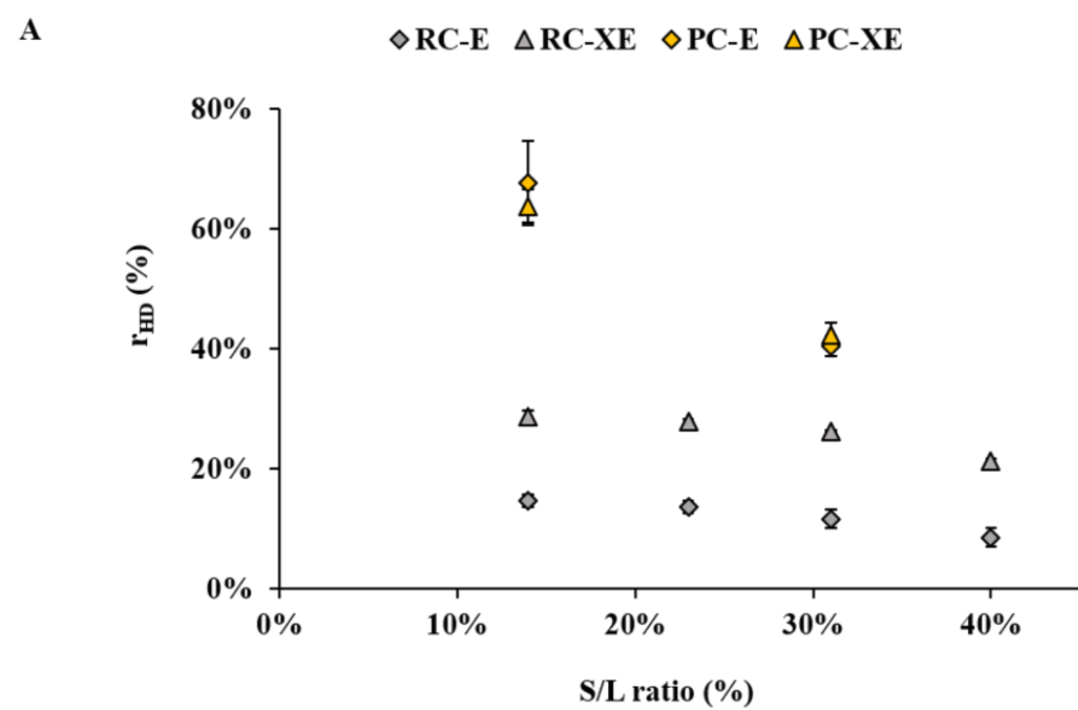
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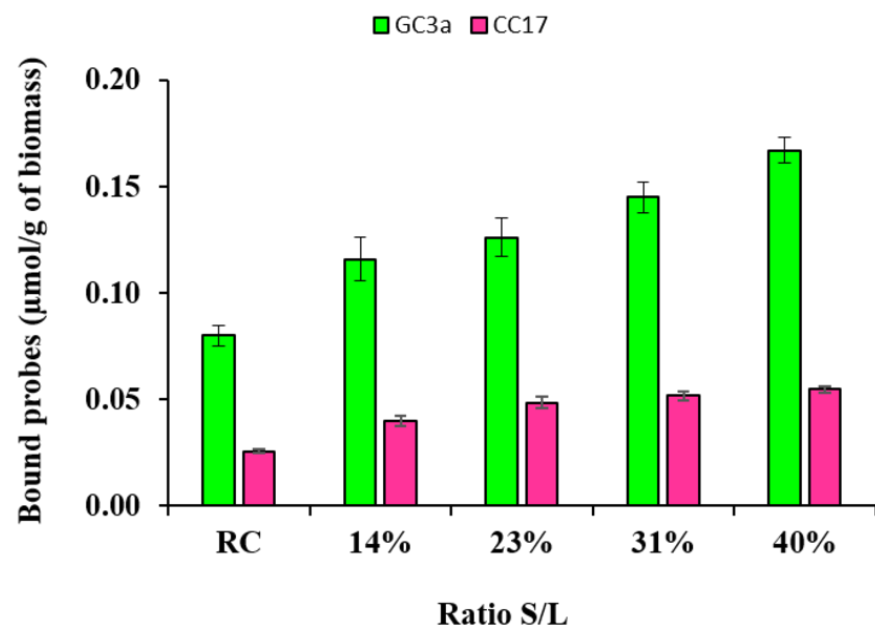




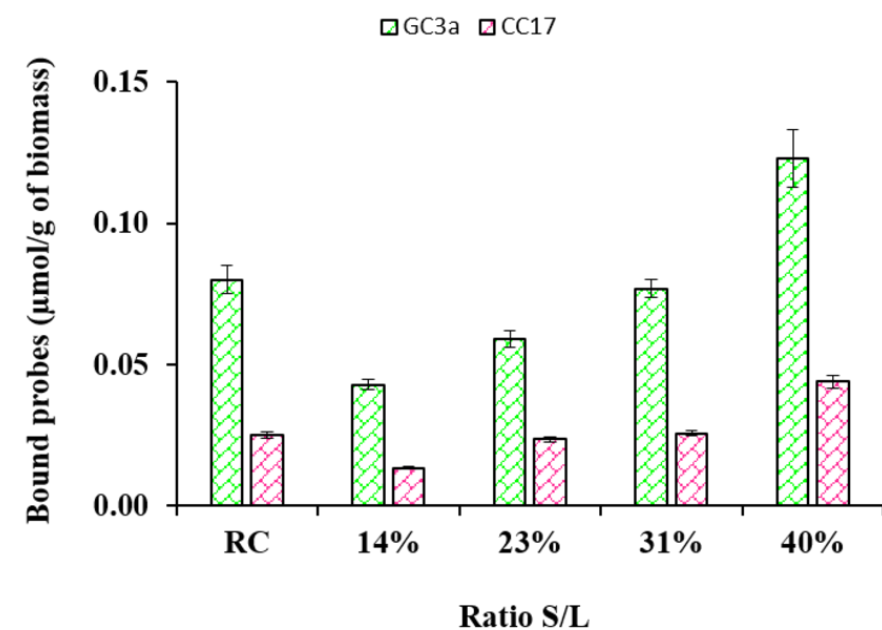
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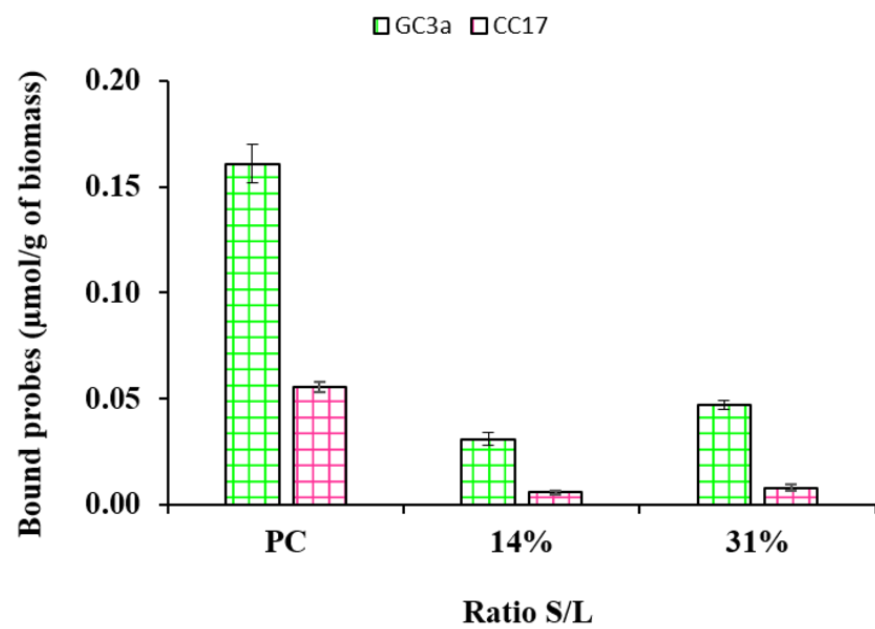
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B



C



D

