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1 Effects of successive microwave and enzymatic treatments on the
2 release of *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids from two types of grass biomass
3

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13 Abstract

14 Biomass recalcitrance is one of the main bottlenecks in lignocellulosic biorefinery deployment.
15 Physico-chemical pretreatments and enzymatic hydrolysis are two procedures that can be
16 combined to overcome this recalcitrance. In this study microwave pretreatment has been
17 selected for its relevant conditions that allow for biomass recalcitrance to be reduced, along
18 with the maintenance of a low consumption of energy and reactants. A xylanolytic enzymatic
19 cocktail, Rovabio® Advance, was investigated for its ability to hydrolyze maize stalks and
20 *Miscanthus* leaves after pressurized, chemical-free microwave pretreatment. This
21 combination was implemented to increase the breakage of ester bonds and thus facilitate the
22 release of *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids. This study demonstrates how, in comparison with
23 *Miscanthus*, both pretreatments are more effective in releasing *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids from
24 maize stalks, due to their lower parietal content. The successive free-chemical process seems
25 to be particularly promising on maize stalks, since it led to a ferulic acid release yield of 18.2%,
26 compared to 5.5% for microwave pretreatment only or 7.6% when performing enzymatic
27 hydrolysis without a microwave pretreatment step.

28 **Key words:** Enzymatic hydrolysis, grass biomass, *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids, microwave
29 pretreatment
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39 I. Introduction

40 EU dedicated policies and measures to meet the energy and climate targets for 2030 [1] have
41 greatly aroused interest in lignocellulosic biomass (LCB) utilization for bioenergy and green
42 chemistry applications since the last two decades. Nonedible LCB could as a matter of fact
43 successfully substitute at least partially fossil-based raw materials for the chemical, material
44 and energy sectors and even bring new functionalities to the market [2, 3]. Together with
45 abundancy, low price and durability, nonedible LCB is interesting because of its polymeric
46 carbohydrates content, as well as secondary metabolites content. LCB is a versatile feedstock
47 that can be converted in intermediate platforms, building blocks, secondary chemicals, among
48 other products. However, the recalcitrance of LCB – i.e. its natural ability to counteract parietal
49 polymer degradation due to external attacks – is one of the main bottleneck that limits its
50 successful use as raw material for bio-based products. LCB is essentially made up of the
51 carbohydrate polymer cellulose and hemicellulose and aromatic polymer lignin, which
52 strongly interact with one another through covalent and hydrogen bonds.

53 In order to be efficiently transformed into energy and/or chemical intermediates, LCB should
54 first be pretreated so that polymeric components become more accessible for further
55 chemical conversion [4, 7]. This pretreatment phase is only essential in soft physico-chemical
56 conversions, *i.e.*, under low pressure and temperature conditions, or with low reagent
57 concentrations. Indeed, under high pressure, high temperature or in very concentrated acids
58 or bases, the biomass is completely broken down and pretreatment is no longer necessary.
59 Extensive worldwide research is ongoing to address this problem. Numerous pretreatment
60 technologies, such as mechanical, thermal, chemical, biological, etc., or a combination of
61 several have been studied [4, 6, 8]; however, to date, the “ideal” technology has not yet been
62 identified.

63 In nature, LCB is mainly broken down by the depolymerization activity of enzymes (lignolytic,
64 hemicellulolytic and cellulolytic). These enzymes are produced and secreted by bacteria and
65 fungi, which are capable of degrading the highly resistant lignocellulosic cell walls of plants [9,
66 10]. Enzymatic hydrolysis of cellulose, the first and unavoidable step in biological conversion,
67 is essentially limited by the structure and porosity of cell plant walls, which reduce the
68 accessibility of enzymes to their substrate [5, 11]. In addition, hemicellulose and lignin that
69 interact and protect cellulose, are substituted by *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids (*p*HCA): *para*-
70 coumaric acid (*p*CA), ferulic acid (FA) and their derivatives, which play an important role in the
71 structural cohesion of the parietal network, in the protection against predatory attacks and in
72 limiting cellulolytic enzyme accessibility to cellulose [12, 13].

73 The presence of FA ester-bound to polysaccharides (arabino- and glucurono-arabino-xylans)
74 in the cell wall is a characteristic feature of monocotyledons. It represents about 0.5 %DM (dry
75 matter) to 1 %DM of wheat or maize straw, 1 %DM of wheat bran and up to 3 %DM of the
76 pericarp of maize grains [14-16]. However, FA is a noteworthy molecule for its potential in
77 green chemistry, particularly in cosmetics or pharma applications, or as a precursor of vanillin.
78 The latter molecule has a high added value when produced naturally [17-20]. FA can also be
79 connected to lignin via ether covalent links, forming a bond between lignin and hemicellulose
80 which further complicates the structure of the biomass. In all cases, FA (as well as *p*CA)

81 percentages remain low in comparison with the parietal polymer contents (cellulose,
82 hemicellulose and lignin) that represent up to 90 %DM in *Miscanthus* leaves and 65 %DM in
83 maize stalks [21].

84 The advantage of physical pretreatments versus chemical pretreatments is based on the fact
85 that they do not involve the use of chemicals and thus are regarded as more environmentally
86 friendly. However, certain can be very energy demanding, such as grinding. In an industrial
87 process, often, the grinding stage is not economically feasible [22]. Other physical pre-
88 treatments that consume less energy are therefore being optimized. Extrusion and microwave
89 technology are known processes for uses other than biomass pretreatments: indeed the
90 extrusion process is applied to plastic and food industries [23] while microwave technology is
91 applied to wood drying [24] among other applications. In both cases, the processes should be
92 adapted to the type of biomass pretreatment and optimized in order to become economically
93 competitive.

94 In this study, focus was put on developing a chemical-free microwave pretreatment followed
95 by enzymatic hydrolysis. In previous studies, microwave pretreatment alone was tested and
96 optimized in order to free *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids: the resulting yields did not exceed 5 % in
97 the case of ferulic acid extracted from maize stalks [21, 25]. A recent study on microwave
98 pretreatment applied to lignocellulosic biomass has shown that microwaves are a promising
99 pretreatment method [26], but works concerning phenolic acids release are scarce (10% of
100 the mentioned works). The objective of our study is therefore to conduct successive chemical-
101 free microwave and a biological treatment in order to increase the extraction yields of *p*-
102 hydroxycinnamic acids while preserving their properties.

103 Following microwave pretreatment, enzymatic hydrolysis should release a larger amount of
104 *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids. Enzymes operate primarily in synergy with other enzymes produced
105 by microorganisms in order to significantly attack the complex heterologous biomass
106 structure. This is particularly true for hemicellulose-active enzymes, not only because of the
107 structural complexity of hemicellulose, but also because they are interconnected with the
108 other LCB constituents *via* covalent bonds [27]. Feruloyl esterases (FAE) catalyze the hydrolysis
109 of the ester bond between a monomeric or dimeric *p*-hydroxycinnamic acid moiety and a
110 sugar moiety, part of the pectin or arabinoxylan within the plant's secondary cell wall [28].
111 Most FAEs have been observed to be more effective on feruloylated oligosaccharides
112 generated by the action of a xylanase [29].

113 Recent studies pointed out that integrated approaches combining two or more pretreatment
114 technologies can enhance the conversion yield and product selectivity, while the production
115 of inhibitors is reduced [17, 30-32]. In the present study, a successive chemical-free microwave
116 - enzymatic pretreatment was tested with the aim of performing efficient disruption of grass
117 lignocellulosic biomass to then increase the enzymatic release of *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids.
118 *Miscanthus* leaves and maize stalks were chosen for their high *p*-hydroxycinnamic acid
119 content [28] and for their noteworthy properties: sustainable resource, good productivity,
120 possibility of cultivation on marginal lands with a relatively low demand for inputs [2].
121 Microwave technology was selected as a physical pretreatment because of its numerous
122 advantages including volumetric and non-contact heating, low reactant consumption, fast

123 reaction time [24, 33, 34] among others, according to recent studies [21, 25]. Microwaves are
124 electromagnetic waves that move in the propagation medium at a speed close to that of light
125 ($3.108\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). They are composed of an electric field and a magnetic field perpendicular to each
126 other and oscillating at the same frequency, between 300MHz and 30GHz, with a wavelength
127 between 1m and 1cm [33]. Microwave heating occurs via two main mechanisms; dielectric
128 heating via the orientation of polar molecules (dipoles) and heating by ionic conduction via
129 charged chemical species (cations and anions), following the electric field. As the field
130 oscillates, the molecules also oscillate to orient themselves according to the electric field.
131 Their rapid movement in the material dissipates energy which is translated into a heating of
132 the material. Contrary to the classical modes of heating by conduction or convection,
133 microwave heating is extremely fast and concerns the global volume of the material (and not
134 only the surface) [35].

135
136 Moreover, separation and purification processes after microwave pretreatment will be easier
137 compared to ultrasounds or extrusion, because with microwave pretreatment no colloidal (or
138 very thin) particles are produced.

139 The innovative approach of this work is to compare *p*-hydroxycinnamic acid yields obtained
140 after applying (i) only microwave pretreatment, (ii) only enzymatic hydrolysis or (iii)
141 microwave pretreatment followed by enzymatic hydrolysis. Another novelty in this study was
142 to understand how biomass composition and organization affect the *p*-hydroxycinnamic acid
143 release yields.

144

145 II. Material and methods

146 II.1 Raw Biomass and Reagents

147 Maize stalks genotypes (F 98902 and F 7025) were supplied by INRAE IJPB (Versailles-Grignon
148 unit, Versailles Cedex, 78026, France) and were harvested in September 2016.

149 *Miscanthus* leaves (*M. x giganteus Britannique* noted GIB, *M. x giganteus Floridulus* noted FLO
150 and *M. sinensis Rotsilber* noted ROT) were supplied by INRAE AgrolImpact (Estrées Mons
151 experimental unit, Péronne, 80203, France) and were harvested in February 2017.

152 Air-dried samples of biomass were coarsely crushed (Viking, model GE 220, STIHL, Stuttgart,
153 Germany) before being finely ground to 1 mm (using a Fritsch Pulverisette 19) and sieved to
154 retain only particles between 200 μm and 1000 μm (Figure 1). Ground and sieved samples
155 were stored in closed boxes at ambient temperature until use. Biomass compositions were
156 compared between 2016/2017 and 2018 (date of the study) in order to ascertain whether
157 storage had an impact on composition. As no significant differences were detected (results
158 not shown), biomass compositions were considered to be identical between the harvest date
159 and 2018.

160

161 The commercial enzymatic cocktail, Rovabio[®], was provided by Adisseo CINABio (Toulouse,
162 France) and consisted of an enzymatic mixture of endo-1,4-xylanase, feruloyl and acetyl
163 esterases, and endo-1,3,(4)-glucanase.

164 All chemicals were purchased from Merck. Ultrapure water (Merck Millipore Quantum TEX)
165 was used for all pretreatments and analyses.

166

167 II.2 Microwave pretreatments

168 Microwave pretreatment was performed using a Minilabotron 2000 (SAIREM, FRANCE),
169 operating at 2.45 GHz with a maximum power of 2 kW. This equipment was used to pretreat
170 biomass using a PTFE reactor, which does not absorb microwaves (PTFE/TFM.BOLA (T18)
171 hydrolyzing digestion vessel with liners, Cat. No. A250-08), can be tightly closed and supports
172 pressures up to 20 bar (Figure 2). The pressure reactor (G) consists of a reaction vessel (E) and
173 a cover composed of a part that screws onto the lower part (A) and a plug (B) that serves as a
174 safety valve. Two safety membranes (C and D) placed between the tank and the cover ensure
175 the tightness of the pressure reactor. These membranes can withstand a maximum pressure
176 of 20 bar.

177

178 In a previous study [21], optimal conditions were determined to reach temperatures higher
179 than 100 °C without exceeding a pressure of 4 bar, so as to ensure that the temperature does
180 not rise above 150 °C, which could damage some biomass components, *i.e.*, the *p*-
181 hydroxycinnamic acids [36]. 2 gDM of biomass were added to 40 ml ultrapure water in the
182 reactor corresponding to a 4.7 %DM S:L ratio. Neither magnetic nor mechanical stirring were
183 implemented in the vessel, since the reaction medium self-mixes during boiling. Samples
184 underwent one hour of pre-soaking at ambient temperature before microwave treatment,
185 which lasted 180 seconds at 300 W. The final pressure did not exceed 4 bar, corresponding to
186 a peak temperature of 150 °C, thus preventing the degradation of *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids.
187 Pressure and temperature could not be directly monitored during tests but were calculated
188 [21]. In order to have sufficient pretreated biomass to perform further analyses and due to
189 the size limitation of the pressurized microwave vessel, the treatment was carried out on five
190 samples which were pooled. Microwave pretreatments under these specific conditions were
191 identified as PMW (pressurized microwave).

192 Following the treatment, the vessel was air-cooled for 15 min before weighing and opening.
193 The reaction medium was filtered through a 200 µm sieve; solids were washed with 300 mL
194 of ultrapure water to remove by-products. The solid fraction was dried in an oven for 72 hours
195 at 40 °C. The dry matter content (DM) was then measured in order to assess the amount of
196 dissolved matter during processing. The amount of remaining solid matter ($\frac{g_{\text{pretreated solid}}}{g_{\text{raw matter}}}$)
197 was an indicator of the effectiveness of the treatment, as it indicates the
198 extent of solubilization of the parietal content after microwave pre-treatment. Finally, the
199 liquid fraction was filtered through a cellulose filter (2.7 µm) and stored at -20°C until the
200 quantification of *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids.

201

202 II.3 Enzymatic hydrolysis

203 To access cell wall biodegradability and to release *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids, raw and PMW
204 treated biomass were subjected to enzymatic hydrolysis using the commercial enzyme

205 cocktail, Rovabio[®], primarily designed for the modification of *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids in
206 maize tissues to enhance animal digestion; therefore this cocktail was selected because maize
207 stalk was the studied biomass. Hence, although improved efficiency of the cocktail on maize
208 stalks was expected compared to its effect on *Miscanthus* leaves, this cocktail was also applied
209 to *Miscanthus* leaves for sakes of comparing results.

210 According to the method of utilization supplied by Adisséo, this is an enzymatic mixture of
211 xylanase-1,4, ENDO-, Glucanase-1,3,(4), ENDO-β between 10,000 and 12,000 U/g (assayed by
212 DNS method on birch xylan) and phenolic acid esterases.

213 Biomass (62 mg) was placed in hemolysis tubes with 2.5 ml ultrapure water. After one hour of
214 soaking at ambient temperature (20°C) the Rovabio[®] cocktail (50U xylanase-equivalent/gDM)
215 was added, and the medium was incubated at 50 °C, 110 rpm for 24 h. Subsequently, the
216 suspension was centrifuged (12000 g, 5 min) and the supernatant was harvested and stored
217 at 4°C and -20°C for futher analysis. Reactions with and without enzymes were performed in
218 triplicate.

219
220 The aim of this study was not to optimise the enzymatic conversion, but to highlight the
221 beneficial effect, absence of effect, or negative effect of chemical-free microwave
222 pretreatment (at atmospheric pressure or under 4 bar) on the release of *p*-hydroxycinnamic
223 acids in a successive physical - enzyme treatment. Thus, the enzymatic hydrolysis operating
224 conditions were implemented in such a way that the effect of the hydrolysis was visible
225 without completely erasing the effect of the microwave pretreatment. In order to better
226 understand the study, Figure 3 summarises the three processes tested:

227

228 II.4 Biochemical analysis

229

230 The composition in parietal polymers of the biomass was determined before and after
231 treatment using the Van Soest protocol [37]. This protocol is based on mass sequential
232 partitioning of cell walls, from most extractible to less extractible, with successive extractions
233 using different solvents (ultrapure water, neutral detergent solution, acid detergent solution
234 and sulfuric acid 72 %).

235

236 Ferulic acid (FA) and *para*-coumaric acid (*p*CA) were quantified by HPLC in duplicate using an
237 HPLC-DAD Waters system: autosampler 717, multisolvent delivery system 600, Diode Array
238 Detector 2996. *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids (*p*HCA) were detected at 320 nm and peak areas
239 calculated using Empower3 software (Waters). The mobile phases consisted of ultrapure
240 water/formic acid - 95/5 (v/v, Solvent A) and acetonitrile/ultrapure water/formic acid -
241 80/15/5 (v/v/v/, Solvent B). The flow rate was 1 ml/min and the sample injection volume was
242 10 µl. Separation was performed at 30°C on a Waters Atlantis T3 Column, 100 Å, 5 µm, 4.6
243 mm X 250 mm (C18) equipped with a C18 - 4x3 mm Security Guard Cartridge (Phenomenex,
244 France). Results were expressed in mg_{*p*HCA}/g_{DM} (equation [1]).

245

$$pHCA \left(\frac{mg}{g} \right) = \frac{pHCA (mg/l) \times Total Volume sample (l)}{initial biomass mass (g)} \quad [1]$$

247

248 FA and *p*CA released after physico-chemical pretreatment or enzymatic hydrolysis were
 249 quantified in the liquid phase. Initial amounts of ester bonded FA and *p*CA were quantified
 250 after a mild alkaline extraction. Briefly, 20 mg raw matter were soaked during 15 hours in 2
 251 ml NaOH 2 N to allow the release of the esterified *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids [38-40]. *p*HCA
 252 release yields were calculated (equation [2]):

- 253 - after microwave pretreatment (*p*HCA release exclusively due to microwave action);
- 254 - after enzymatic hydrolysis (*p*HCA release due to the action of enzymes.).

255

$$pHCA \text{ yield } (\%) = \frac{\text{released } pHCA \left(\frac{mg}{g} \right)}{\text{initial } pHCA \left(\frac{mg}{g} \right)} \quad [2]$$

257

258 In this study, cell wall biodegradability was used to determine the effect of enzymatic
 259 hydrolysis on biomass structure [41]. Cell wall biodegradability was defined by the reducing
 260 sugar content that could be quantified in enzymatic hydrolysis supernatants using the 3,5
 261 Dinitrosalicylic acid method (DNS) [42]. One volume of supernatant was mixed with two
 262 volumes of DNS and heated to 95 °C for 10 min. The optical density was then measured at 540
 263 nm using a TECAN SPARK spectrophotometer. Results were expressed in mg of xylose
 264 equivalent reducing ends per gDM of biomass. The natural release of reducing ends occurring
 265 in ultrapure water alone, in the same operational conditions as for enzymatic hydrolysis, was
 266 consistently deducted in the results.

267

268 II.5 Statistical analysis

269 All statistical analyses were performed using R (3.4.0) software. Anova and Tukey tests were
 270 used to determine the effect of biomass on *p*HCA release. An effect was considered significant
 271 if the *p*-value was less than 5%.

272

273 III. Results and Discussion

274 III.1 Raw and pretreated biomass biochemical composition

275 Biomass composition was analyzed for the distribution of parietal polymers before and after
 276 microwave treatment (Table 1).

277 Table 1: Raw and pressurized microwave pretreateds (PMW) biomass parietal composition analyzed by the Van Soest method

278

		Raw biomass					PMW biomass				
		Maize 98902	Maize 7025	<i>Miscanthus</i> GIB	<i>Miscanthus</i> FLO	<i>Miscanthus</i> ROT	Maize 98902	Maize 7025	<i>Miscanthus</i> GIB	<i>Miscanthus</i> FLO	<i>Miscanthus</i> ROT
Soluble content	%DM	37.30 ± 1.9	35.70 ± 1.3	8.29 ± 0.2	5.77 ± 2.4	6.63 ± 4.5	43.05 ± 3.8	39.95 ± 4.2	15.43 ± 4.6	13.41 ± 3.8	13.98 ± 2.6
PMW soluble content	%DM	/	/	/	/	/	34.61 ± 3.8	34.45 ± 4.2	15.27 ± 4.6	13.01 ± 3.8	9.56 ± 2.6
VS ^a soluble content	%DM	37.30 ± 1.9	35.70 ± 1.3	8.29 ± 0.2	5.77 ± 2.4	6.63 ± 4.5	8.44 ± 0.4	5.50 ± 0.4	0.16 ± 0.1	0.40 ± 0.3	4.42 ± 1.0
Cell wall	%DM	62.70 ± 1.9	64.30 ± 1.3	91.71 ± 0.2	94.23 ± 2.4	93.37 ± 4.5	56.96 ± 0.4	60.05 ± 0.4	83.56 ± 0.1	86.59 ± 0.3	86.02 ± 1.0
Hemicellulose	%DM	26.00 ± 0.9	30.09 ± 1.5	22.91 ± 3.6	25.86 ± 0.4	35.68 ± 1.2	16.59 ± 2.2	27.19 ± 0.3	22.13 ± 0.4	24.58 ± 0.8	32.85 ± 0.7
Cellulose	%DM	28.51 ± 0.9	27.36 ± 1.5	52.78 ± 3.5	51.78 ± 1.6	47.33 ± 2.4	28.96 ± 2.1	25.17 ± 1.8	40.62 ± 1.5	34.58 ± 1.2	43.48 ± 1.2
ADL ^b	%DM	6.85 ± 1.5	5.30 ± 1.0	15.46 ± 0.4	16.21 ± 0.8	10.14 ± 2.1	10.13 ± 0.5	6.51 ± 1.2	19.95 ± 1.4	26.42 ± 0.8	9.16 ± 0.9
Ash	%DM	1.18 ± 0.4	1.55 ± 0.6	0.56 ± 0.4	0.38 ± 0.38	0.22 ± 1.9	1.27 ± 0.2	1.18 ± 0.1	0.86 ± 0.1	1.00 ± 0.1	0.53 ± 0.3

279 Data are expressed as g of parietal component per 100 g of initial dry biomass matter (%DM) ± standard deviation

280 ^a: Van Soest

281 ^b: Acid Detergent Lignin

282 As indicated in Table 1, raw maize stalks and raw *Miscanthus* leaves were very different in
283 terms of parietal composition. Raw *Miscanthus* leaves had a low soluble content (from 5.77
284 %DM for *Miscanthus* FLO to 8.29 %DM for *Miscanthus* GIB) in comparison to raw maize stalks
285 which contained 35.70 %DM for maize 7025 and 37.30 %DM for maize 98902. The high
286 parietal content of *Miscanthus* leaves was mainly due to their high cellulose (from 47.33 %DM
287 for *Miscanthus* ROT to 52.78 %DM for *Miscanthus* GIB) and lignin (from 10.14 %DM for
288 *Miscanthus* ROT to 16.21 %DM for *Miscanthus* FLO) contents, which were about two fold
289 higher than for maize 98902 stalks (28.51 %DM for cellulose and 6.85 %DM for lignin). These
290 results from maize stalks and *Miscanthus* leaves are consistent with those provided by Van
291 der Weijde *et al.* [43] and Pang *et al.* [44].

292 After PMW (pressurized microwave pretreatment), PMW-treated biomass composition was
293 modified compared to both raw biomasses. For all pretreated biomass samples, the total
294 soluble content (sum of treatment-solubilized soluble fraction and Van Soest soluble fraction),
295 was higher than the raw biomass Van Soest soluble content, thus pointing out cell wall
296 solubilization. For *Miscanthus*, the soluble fractions doubled following microwave treatment:
297 they increased from 8.29 %DM to 15.43 %DM for *Miscanthus* GIB, from 5.77 %DM to 13.41
298 %DM for *Miscanthus* FLO and from 6.63 %DM to 13.98 %DM for *Miscanthus* ROT. This increase
299 in the *Miscanthus* soluble fraction results from the solubilization of the parietal cellulose
300 component during microwave pretreatment, as highlighted in Table 1. Moreover, apart from
301 *Miscanthus* ROT (which has a higher hemicellulose content than the GIB and FLO), the lignin
302 content increased, indicating that chemical-free pressurized microwave pretreatment did not
303 induce delignification, or very slightly (for *Miscanthus* ROT). VS soluble contents of the
304 pretreated samples were very low, in particular for *Miscanthus* GIB (0.16 %DM) and
305 *Miscanthus* FLO (0.40%DM), compared to PMW treatment-solubilized soluble contents (15.27
306 %DM for *Miscanthus* GIB, equivalent to 99% of the total soluble content and 13%DM for
307 *Miscanthus* FLO, equivalent to 97% of the total soluble content). For *Miscanthus* ROT, the VS
308 soluble content after pretreatment was 4.42 %DM, while the treatment-solubilized soluble
309 content was 9.56% DM, equivalent to 68.4% of the total soluble content. As a result of the
310 solubilization, PMW-treated *Miscanthus* cell walls (DM) decreased respectively 8.1% for
311 *Miscanthus* GIB, 7.64% for *Miscanthus* FLO and 7.35% for *Miscanthus* ROT.

312 Thus, pressurized microwave pretreatment enhanced the solubilization of cellulose from
313 *Miscanthus* cell walls more than hemicellulose, in contradiction to Boonmanumsin *et al.* [45].
314 These authors studied *Miscanthus sinensis* pressurized microwave pretreatment (120 °C for
315 15 min) and also observed an alteration in the composition of the biomass after the treatment.
316 Nevertheless, according to the study, the changes in cell wall composition, which included
317 hemicellulose solubilization and delignification, could result from the use of alkaline agents
318 (ammonium hydroxide, NH₄OH) during the first steps of pretreatment. Indeed, alkali-based
319 treatments promote the saponification of intermolecular ester bonds cross-linking xylan
320 hemicellulose and lignin, resulting in biomass delignification [46]. In the present study,
321 cellulose solubilization was mostly observed, as the decrease in cellulose content in the solid
322 parietal fraction following liquid-solid phase separation was stronger than for the other

323 fractions. The cellulose decrease in parietal residues was higher for *Miscanthus* GIB and
324 *Miscanthus* FLO (-12.16 % and -17,2% respectively, as % of parietal component of initial
325 biomass dry matter) and lower for *Miscanthus* ROT (-3.85%).

326 In the case of maize stalks, as for *Miscanthus* leaves, a partial parietal solubilization was
327 observed following microwave pretreatment: soluble fractions increased from 37.30 %DM to
328 43.05 %DM for maize 98902 and from 35.70 %DM to 39.95 %DM for maize 7025. This parietal
329 solubilization can mostly be explained by hemicellulose solubilization: hemicellulose
330 decreased in cell walls from 26.00 %DM to 16.59 %DM for maize 98902 and from 30.09 %DM
331 to 27.19 %DM for maize 7025. As for wheat straw, Fan *et al.* [47] found that 50 %DM of the
332 biomass could be solubilized after pressurized microwave pretreatment at 190 °C, thus
333 confirming the effect of pressurized microwave on biomass composition.

334 For both maize stalks and *Miscanthus* leaves (except for *Miscanthus* ROT), the lignin content
335 increased from 6.85 %DM to 10.13 %DM for maize 98902, from 5.30 %DM to 6.51 %DM for
336 maize 7025, from 15.46 %DM to 19.95 %DM for *Miscanthus* GIB and from 16.21 %DM to 26.42
337 %DM for *Miscanthus* FLO. An increase in the proportion of lignin (0.6 % – 3.9 %) was also
338 observed by Pang *et al.* [44] who worked on a maize stover and combined pressurized
339 microwave and steam explosion at 190 °C for 5 min. These strong increases in ADL proportions
340 could be explained by a variation in the lignin chemical bonds. Indeed, the lignin component
341 solubilized in the ADS fraction and thus not accounted for in the Acid Detergent Lignin (ADL),
342 is correlated to β -O-4 lignin bonds [48]. If the ADL fraction should increase, this could imply
343 that the chemical bonds within the lignin have been reorganized due to the microwave
344 pretreatment [25]. The chemical links between lignin units could be analyzed by conducting a
345 thioacidolysis.

346

347 III.2 Release of *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids after microwave pretreatment

348 After MW pretreatment, the liquid phase was analyzed by HPLC to measure the amounts of
349 solubilized *p*-hydroxycinnamic acid (*p*HCA). In Table 2, initial *p*HCA in raw biomass is presented
350 and expressed as $\text{mg}_{p\text{HCA}}/\text{gDM}$. The content of each *p*-hydroxycinnamic acid (FA or *p*CA) in the
351 liquid phase following treatments was expressed in $\text{mg}_{p\text{HCA}}/\text{l}$. As closed vessel was used, no
352 evaporation occurred and the swelling volume was considered to remain equal to 1 ml/gDM
353 for all tests. Using equation [3], the liquid collected after treatment was estimated to be 38
354 ml for all tests.

$$355 \text{Collected liquid (l)} = \text{Initial } V - \text{swelling } V = 40 - 2 = 38 \text{ ml} \quad [3]$$

356

357 The collected volume was used for calculating the extraction yields, expressed in $\text{mg}_{p\text{HCA}}$
358 $\text{released}/\text{g}_{p\text{HCA initial}}$ (equation [2]) using the pretreated solid mass.

359

360

361

362

363

364 Table 2: *p*-Hydroxycinnamic acids (*p*HCA) release after microwave pretreatment

	Raw Biomass (mg _{pHCA} /gDM)		<i>p</i> HCA release in pretreated liquid (mg/l)		Extraction yield (% mg _{pHCA} released/g _{pHCA} initial)	
	FA	<i>p</i> CA	FA	<i>p</i> CA	FA	<i>p</i> CA
Maize 98902	4.2 ± 0.1	13.1 ± 2.6	12.22 ± 0.0	29.32 ± 0.1	5.48	4.21
Maize 7025	3.5 ± 0.0	8.4 ± 0.4	0.61 ± 0.0	3.10 ± 0.0	0.33	0.7
<i>Miscanthus</i> GIB	2.1 ± 0.5	6.5 ± 2.4	0.73 ± 0.0	16.84 ± 0.2	0.65	4.9
<i>Miscanthus</i> FLO	2.8 ± 0.3	5.8 ± 2.1	0.79 ± 0.0	13.81 ± 0.6	0.45	3.05
<i>Miscanthus</i> ROT	3.1 ± 0.8	7.4 ± 1.6	2.37 ± 0.2	21.96 ± 2.1	1.53	5.56

365
366 According to Table 2, observed *p*CA concentrations (in mg/l) in the liquid phase were higher
367 than FA concentrations for all tests. This could result from the covalent links within the
368 structure of the biomass: FA is esterified and etherified to cell wall polymers whereas *p*CA is
369 almost exclusively esterified to cell wall polymers with a small proportion (less than 10%)
370 etherified to cell walls [27, 49, 50]. Ester links can be broken by mild alkaline hydrolysis (5 mL
371 of 2 M NaOH, room temperature, 20 h), while the hydrolysis of ether links requires more
372 severe conditions (5 mL of 4 M NaOH, 170 °C for 2 h) [51, 52]. This confirms that, inside the
373 biomass structure, *p*CA was more easily accessible than FA, even though no alkaline hydrolysis
374 was performed in the present study. Moreover, microwave treatment was widely studied
375 during the nineties, when it seemed relevant for the determination of total *p*HCA, in various
376 types of biomass, to break covalent bonds, whether ester or ether bonds [49].
377 Therefore, for all biomass samples, excepting maize 98902, *p*CA extraction yields were higher
378 than FA extraction yields, thus confirming higher *p*CA accessibility subsequent to thermal
379 pretreatment.
380 FA extraction yields were higher but similar to those obtained by Moreira *et al.* [53] who
381 worked with brewer’s spent grains and reached a 0.953 % FA yield after 20 min at 80 °C. In
382 the present study, pressurized treatment might explain the yields that are higher than those
383 obtained by Moreira *et al.* [53]. However, the characteristics of the raw biomass are
384 undoubtedly the main explanatory factor for this difference.
385 To understand the biomass composition effects on *p*HCA solubilization, Anova tests were
386 performed. In the tested conditions, FA and *p*CA releases (expressed in mg/l) were
387 significantly dependent on the biomass, with *p*-values equal respectively to 6.33.10⁻¹⁰ and
388 1.05.10⁻⁵. Was the difference due to a species (maize or miscanthus) or to a genotype or a
389 clone itself? A post-hoc statistical test (Tukey test) was conducted to identify the specific
390 biomass responsible for this difference. When compared to maize 7025 or all *Miscanthus*
391 leaves (*Miscanthus* GIB, ROT or FLO), maize 98902 was the biomass sample that allowed for
392 the highest amount of *p*HCA to be directly released into the liquid phase. The *p*HCA release
393 differences between biomass were not coincidental, but rather depend on the characteristics
394 of the raw biomass.
395 Microwave pretreatment could produce a greater impact on maize 98902 than on other types
396 of biomass due to its parietal organization. Indeed, as demonstrated in the “biomass
397 biochemical composition” item, maize 98902 had 30 % less parietal components than

398 *Miscanthus* leaves. Since parietal components are responsible, to a large extent, for plant
399 recalcitrance, (resistance to degradation and therefore to pretreatment effectiveness), the
400 higher *p*HCA yield obtained from maize stalks could be expected, or at least understood [11].
401

402 III.3 Cell wall biodegradability and release of *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids after 403 enzymatic hydrolysis

404 The pretreated biomass was subjected to enzymatic treatment in order to determine whether
405 successive treatments (microwave pretreatment followed by enzymatic hydrolysis) could
406 enhance *p*-hydroxycinnamic acid release. The enzymatic effects were quantified by analyzing
407 two parameters: the cell wall biodegradability and the release of *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids.
408

409 III.3.1 Cell wall biodegradability

410 Figure 4 represents the amount of xylose-equivalent reducing ends released into the liquid
411 after enzymatic hydrolysis for the different biomass samples. The higher the release of xylose
412 equivalents, the more parietal polymers become accessible and the more easily *p*-
413 hydroxycinnamic acids are extracted. For each biomass, results were compared between raw
414 and microwave pretreated biomass.
415

416 As errors bars overlapped for maize 7025 (Figure 4), it is impossible to conclude about xylose
417 equivalent ends released into the liquid phase between raw and PMW biomass.

418 Nevertheless, this result must be considered with caution. Indeed, during microwave
419 pretreatment, soluble sugars – hence reducing ends – in monomer or oligomer forms were
420 extracted and then solubilized in the liquid phase. These “easily degradable” compounds were
421 therefore no longer present in the biomass during enzymatic hydrolysis and were not
422 accounted for in the DNS (3,5 Dinitrosalicylic acid) test after enzymatic hydrolysis on
423 pretreated biomass. On the contrary, they could be accounted for in the DNS test following
424 enzymatic hydrolysis on raw biomass if enzymatic hydrolysis could impact them.

425 For maize 98902, the pressurized microwave pretreatment enabled a significantly higher
426 release of xylose equivalent ends release than without pretreatment: indeed, at least 15 mg/g
427 more reducing ends, equivalent to +57 %, were released compared to the same maize stalks
428 that had not been pretreated. This result was consistent with Aguilar-Reynosa *et al.* [33] who
429 demonstrated the positive impact of microwave pretreatment before enzymatic hydrolysis: a
430 95.1 % solids conversion was reached when maize stover was pretreated by microwave prior
431 to hydrolysis, for 10 to 50 minutes at 160 °C to 200 °C. Similar results were obtained by Fan *et*
432 *al.* [47]: *Laminaria saccharina*, a brown seaweed, could be converted into hydrolysate with a
433 yield of 65 % when pressurized microwave was used as pretreatment. This could be expected,
434 considering the lack of lignin in the biomass.

435 Results were contrary for *Miscanthus* leaves (Figure 4B): xylose equivalent ends were more
436 than three-fold higher for raw biomass than for pretreated biomass. Raw biomass released on
437 average 1.5 g xylose equivalent ends, which corresponds to a 25 % soluble fraction in
438 *Miscanthus* leaves (Table 1). PMW and Rovabio® cocktail were not as efficient on *Miscanthus*

439 leaves as on maize 98902. PMW did not increase the biodegradability of *Miscanthus* leaves
440 for enzymatic hydrolysis, probably due to the initial parietal composition of *Miscanthus* leaves
441 that are rich in lignin and cellulose (respectively 13.9 % and 50.6 % in average) that are not
442 easily degradable polymers [46].

443 Finally, the release of xylose equivalent ends was more than ten-fold higher for maize stalks
444 than for *Miscanthus* leaves, thus highlighting the high resistance of *Miscanthus* leave walls to
445 microwave and biological pretreatments as well as the efficiency of Rovabio® on maize
446 residues. The enhanced release of xylose equivalent reducing ends using maize stalks should
447 improve the action of the FAEs on the *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids present within the biomass
448 and the *p*-hydroxycinnamic acid release yield should therefore increase.

449

450 *III.3.2 p-hydroxycinnamic acids release after enzymatic hydrolysis*

451 Following enzymatic hydrolysis, *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids (*p*HCA) were quantified and results
452 are presented on Figure 5.

453

454 According to Figure 5, FA release ($\text{mg}_{\text{FA}}/\text{gDM}$) in maize stalks was more than four-fold higher
455 than the release of *p*CA ($\text{mg}_{\text{pCA}}/\text{gDM}$), hence partly demonstrating the efficiency of the
456 Rovabio® cocktail on FA release and thus the enrichment of FAE in the cocktail.

457 On the contrary, the release of FA in *Miscanthus* leaves was low (less than $0.02 \text{ g}_{\text{FA}}/\text{gDM}$), and
458 even lower than the release of *p*CA in *Miscanthus* GIB ($0.053 \text{ g}_{\text{pCA}}/\text{gDM}$).

459 Since Rovabio® was designed for maize residues to produce animal feed, as explained in I.3,
460 the structure of maize stalks is particularly sensitive to the cocktail unlike *Miscanthus* leaves,
461 which appear to be much more resistant towards these specific FAE. *Miscanthus* leaves also
462 had a more parietal structure than maize stalks, which give them stronger resistance to
463 external attacks, such as enzymatic hydrolysis, despite microwave pretreatment.
464 Furthermore, it is likely that the *p*HCA organization within the *Miscanthus* structure made
465 them less accessible to enzymes if they were bonded to lignin rather than to hemicellulose
466 and by both ether and ester covalent bonds.

467 The release of FA from maize 98902 was two-fold the FA release of maize 7025, due to the
468 higher initial FA content in raw maize 98902, respectively $4.2 \text{ mg}_{\text{FA}}/\text{gDM}$ and $3.5 \text{ mg}_{\text{FA}}/\text{gDM}$.
469 Enzymatic treatment therefore seems to be more appropriate for FA release in maize 98902.

470

471 **III.4 Release of total *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids by pretreatment and enzymatic** 472 **hydrolysis**

473 According to the two previous sections, the global yields in FA and CA were calculated using
474 equation [4]:

$$475 \textit{pHCA yield} (\%) = \textit{pHCA}_{\textit{microwave yield}} (\%) + \textit{pHCA}_{\textit{enzymatic hydrolysis yield}} (\%) \quad [4]$$

476 For enzymatic hydrolysis *p*HCA yield, it was necessary to subtract the mass solubilized during
477 treatment from the initial pretreated mass. Results are presented for maize stalks and
478 *Miscanthus* leaves in Figure 6.

479

480 The global FA yield for maize 98902 reached 18 %; 1/3 resulted from microwave released FA
 481 and 2/3 from enzymatic released FA. The part of enzymatic FA release was more important in
 482 maize 7025, representing 90 % of the total FA extraction. The *p*HCA and more particularly *p*CA
 483 in *Miscanthus* leaves were essentially released after the microwave pretreatment. These
 484 results highlight the substantial role of the nature of the biomass in the release of *p*HCA: for
 485 maize stalks, the enzymatic hydrolysis step clearly released more ferulic acid, whereas for
 486 *Miscanthus* leaves, the microwave pretreatment rather released more *p*-coumaric acid.
 487 Nevertheless, Figure 5 and 6 clearly illustrate esterases inefficiency on coumaric acid release
 488 either from *Miscanthus* or maize.

489
 490 According to these results, it is doubtful whether microwave pretreatment of maize stalks had
 491 any effect on *p*HCA release. For maize stalks, if the conversion process had begun directly at
 492 the enzymatic hydrolysis stage (when the most PA had been released), the cost of microwave
 493 pretreatment could have been avoided. Consequently, enzymatic hydrolysis was performed
 494 directly on raw biomass maize stalks and *Miscanthus* leaves in order to highlight the benefits
 495 of starting the process with microwave pretreatment, under the conditions described in I.3.
 496 The results are summarized according to the three different treatment options (calculation
 497 details are available in Supplementary Table 1):

- 498
 499 1. **Process 1:** Successive microwave pretreatment - enzymatic hydrolysis: total *p*HCA yield
 500 corresponded to the sum of *p*HCA released during microwave pretreatment and *p*HCA
 501 released during enzymatic hydrolysis.
 502 2. **Process 2:** Microwave pretreatment alone: *p*HCA yield corresponded to *p*HCA released
 503 during microwave pretreatment.
 504 3. **Process 3:** Enzymatic hydrolysis alone: *p*HCA yield corresponded to *p*HCA released
 505 during enzymatic hydrolysis on raw biomass
 506

507 *Table 3: Summary of the extraction yields (% mg_{pHCA release}/g_{initial pHCA}) depending on the treatment options:*
 508 *process 1 the PMW followed by enzymatic hydrolysis; process 2 the PMW alone and process 3 the enzymatic*
 509 *hydrolysis alone on raw biomass.*

	Process 1		Process 2		Process 3	
	FA (%)	<i>p</i> CA (%)	FA (%)	<i>p</i> CA (%)	FA (%)	<i>p</i> CA (%)
Maize 98902	18.2	5.2	5.5	4.2	7.6	0.6
Maize 7025	6.6	1.0	0.3	0.7	4.5	0.6
Miscanthus GIB	1.3	5.6	0.7	4.9	0	0
Miscanthus FLO	0.8	3.8	0.5	3.5	0.5	0
Miscanthus ROT	2.2	7.2	1.6	7.1	0.2	0

510
 511 Table 3 presents the yield of each process for both FA and *p*CA vary as a function of the
 512 biomass. For maize 98902, process 1 appears to be the most efficient process, with a release
 513 of 18.2 % FA versus 5.5% for process 2 and 7.6% for process 3. For maize 7025, the microwave
 514 pretreatment followed by enzymatic hydrolysis allowed the highest yield of FA release (6.6%),

515 but process 3 allowed a higher FA release compared to process 2; the opposite of what was
516 observed for Maize 98902. In contrast, microwave pretreatment alone (process 2) led to a
517 higher *p*CA yield than enzymatic hydrolysis (process 1) for both maize 98902 and maize 7025),
518 but process 3 (microwave + enzymatic hydrolysis) allowed the highest *p*CA release yield, as
519 for FA. Similarly, the *p*CA release observed in *Miscanthus* leaves was essentially due to
520 microwave pretreatment (process 2), whereas enzymatic hydrolysis (process 3) had no
521 significant effect.

522 The *p*CA release observed in *Miscanthus* leaves was essentially due to microwave
523 pretreatment (process 2), whereas enzymatic hydrolysis (process 3) had no effect.

524 Yields of FA release in *Miscanthus* leaves were low, regardless of the process used, while
525 enzymatic hydrolysis was not affective on this raw material: indeed, release yields remained
526 close to 0 %. The Rovabio® enzymatic cocktail was designed to extract FA from maize residues,
527 explaining why it was more efficient on this type of biomass but inadequate for *Miscanthus*
528 leaves, which contain almost twice more lignin. *p*CA was more sensitive to the high
529 temperatures that were reached during microwave treatment (100 °C) rather than to the
530 duration of the enzymatic hydrolysis itself. This explains why the release yields were higher in
531 process 2 than in process 3: indeed, the covalent esterified links between *p*CA and lignin and
532 *p*CA and hemicellulose, are known to be particularly sensitive to heat [49].

533 In conclusion, the different processes tested in this study, under specific operational
534 conditions, highlighted maize 98902 biomass and *Miscanthus* GIB biomass as the most
535 promising types of biomass for extracting *p*-hydroxycinnamic acids (*p*HCA) through successive
536 microwave - enzymatic processes. Results are summarized in Figure 7.

537 For details concerning economic aspects of PMW pretreatment, in a previous study [54] Bichot
538 et al. compared pressurized microwave pretreatment costs with that of others thermal
539 treatments.

540

541 IV. Conclusion

542 The present study was designed to assess the enzymatic hydrolysis release of *p*-
543 hydroxycinnamic acids from pressurized microwave pretreated biomass (with pretreatment
544 conditions optimized in a previous study). Two biomass with contrasted cell wall content were
545 chosen and pretreated by pressurized microwave and submitted to enzymatic hydrolysis:
546 three maize stalk genotypes and two *Miscanthus* clones. The enzymatic cocktail employed in
547 the study is a commercially available cocktail designed to facilitate the livestock digestion of
548 corn stover.

549 Results indicate that pressurized microwave pretreatment was effective for extracting *p*HCA
550 from cell walls on 98902 maize stalks, a *p*HCA-rich biomass with the lowest parietal-content.
551 Indeed, among the types of studied biomass and under the tested conditions, 98902 maize
552 stalks represented the feedstock with the highest FA release yield (5.5 %) after pressurized
553 microwave pretreatment. Subsequent enzymatic hydrolysis then led to a global FA yield of
554 18%. Maize stalks are thus highlighted as being more easily degradable and with a more
555 accessible *p*HCA than the other types of biomass. *Miscanthus* leaves, which are significantly

556 richer in parietal compounds than maize stalks, were only slightly affected by the process with
557 a global yield (microwave pretreatment yield and enzymatic hydrolysis yield) that did not
558 exceed 5.9 % for *p*CA from *Miscanthus* GIB.

559 To conclude, the bioprocess designed and developed in this study is dependent on the type of
560 substrate, being more effective on maize, since the enzyme cocktail was specifically
561 formulated for this substrate. Pressurized microwave pretreatment followed by an enzymatic
562 hydrolysis of maize 98902 produced an FA yield of almost 20 %. However, for the other types
563 of biomass (maize 7025 and *Miscanthus* GIB, ROT and FLO) microwave pretreatment followed
564 by enzymatic hydrolysis was not as efficient and did not exceed 6 %. The process therefore
565 still needs to be optimized for *Miscanthus* leaves and probably other types of lignocellulosic
566 biomass. More precisely, in order to optimize the yields, the enzymatic cocktail applied should
567 be adapted to each type of biomass.

568

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List of figures

Figure 1: Initial and prepared biomass used in the study: A and B, initial biomass (----- 2cm); C and D, prepared biomass ground to 1mm and sieved to 200 μ m (---- 0.6cm). A and C correspond to maize F 98902, B and D correspond to Miscanthus GIB

Figure 2: Minilabotron 2000 with pressurized microwave reactor

Figure 3: Schema of the treatment conditions tested. NoT: No treatment. Treated and raw biomass samples underwent the same analytical protocol

Figure 4: Xylose equivalent reducing ends (mg/g enzymatically pretreated biomass), in hatch raw biomass, in dots pressurized microwave biomass (PMW biomass). A represents maize stalks and B represents miscanthus leaves

Figure 5: p-hydroxycinnamic acids (pHCA) released after enzymatic hydrolysis (mgpHCA/gDM)

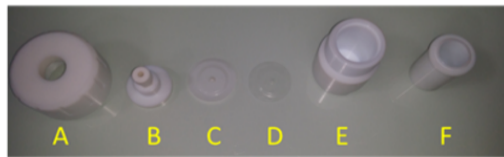
Figure 6: pHCA global yield of after pretreatment and enzymatic hydrolysis

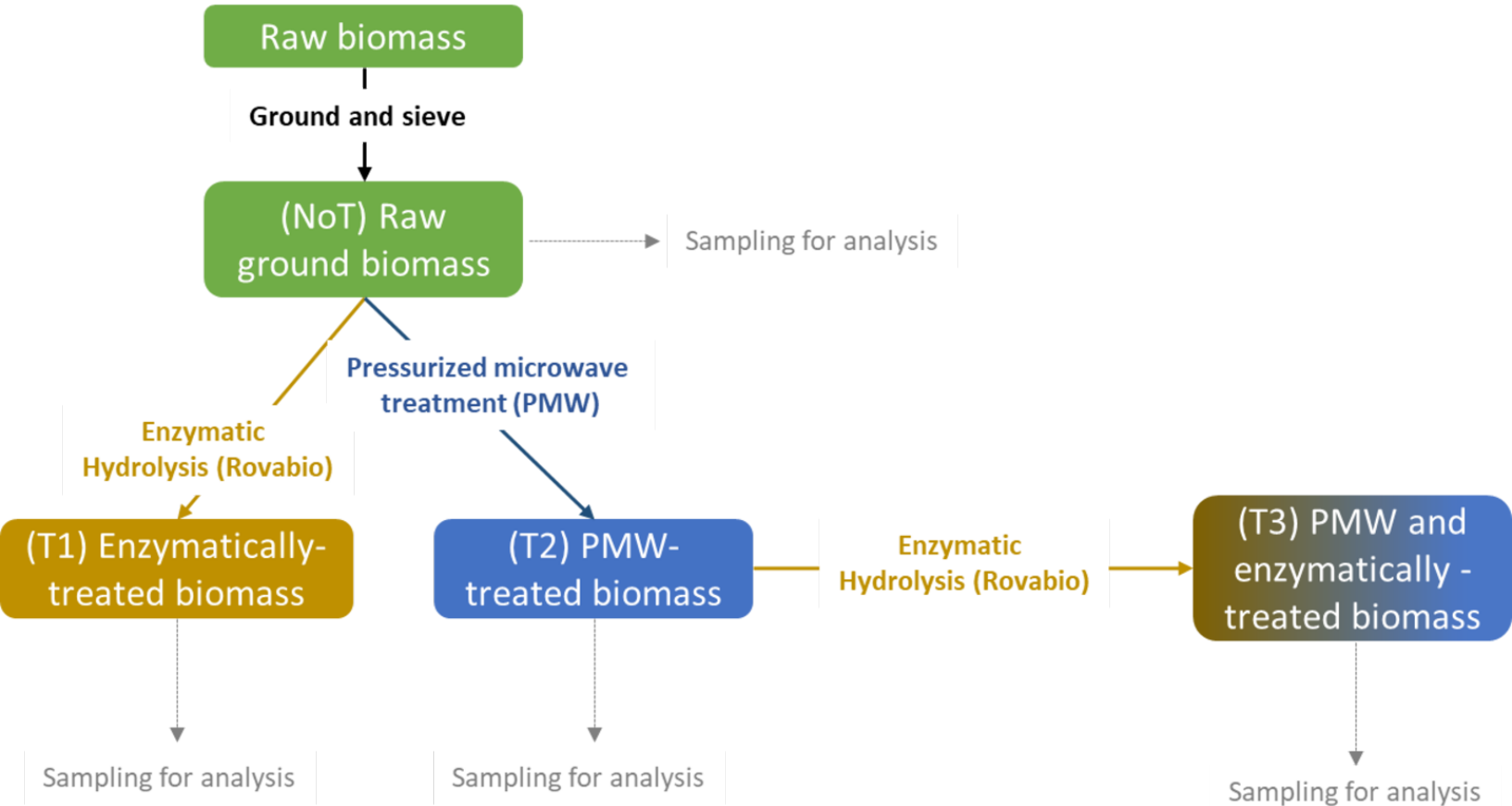
Figure 7: Extraction yield summary for maize 98902 biomass and Miscanthus GIB biomass

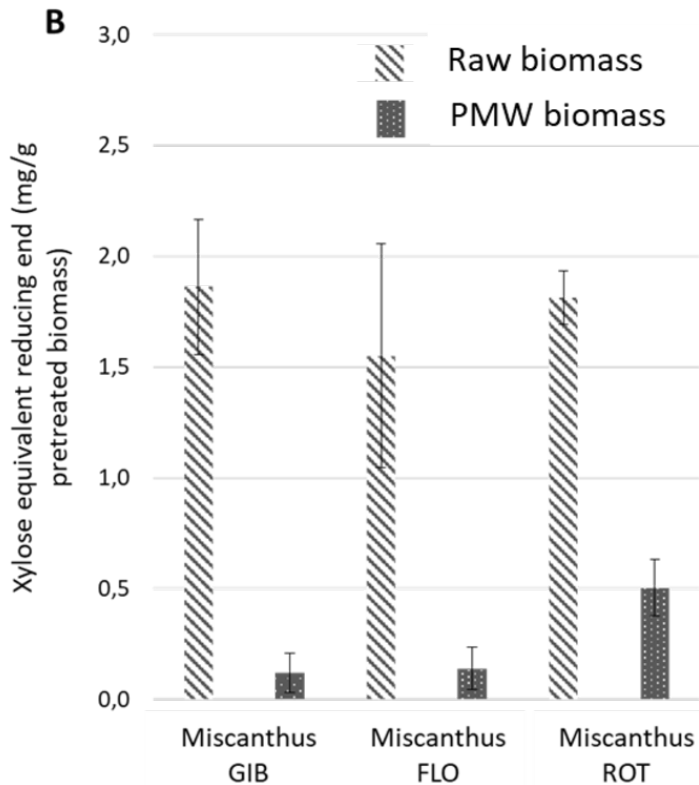
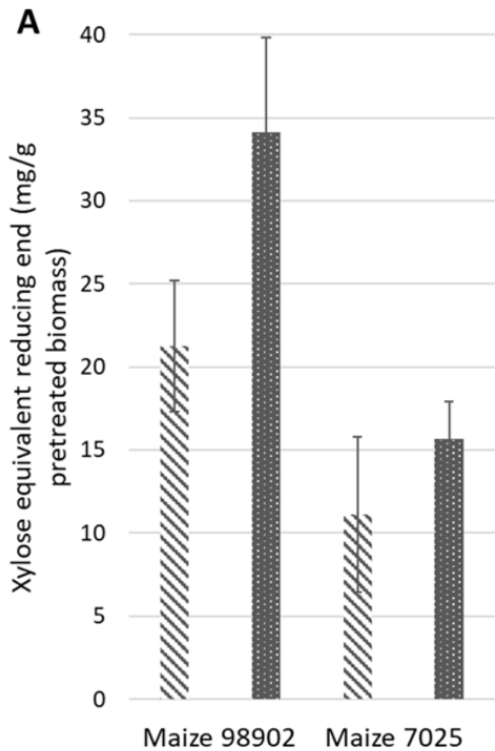




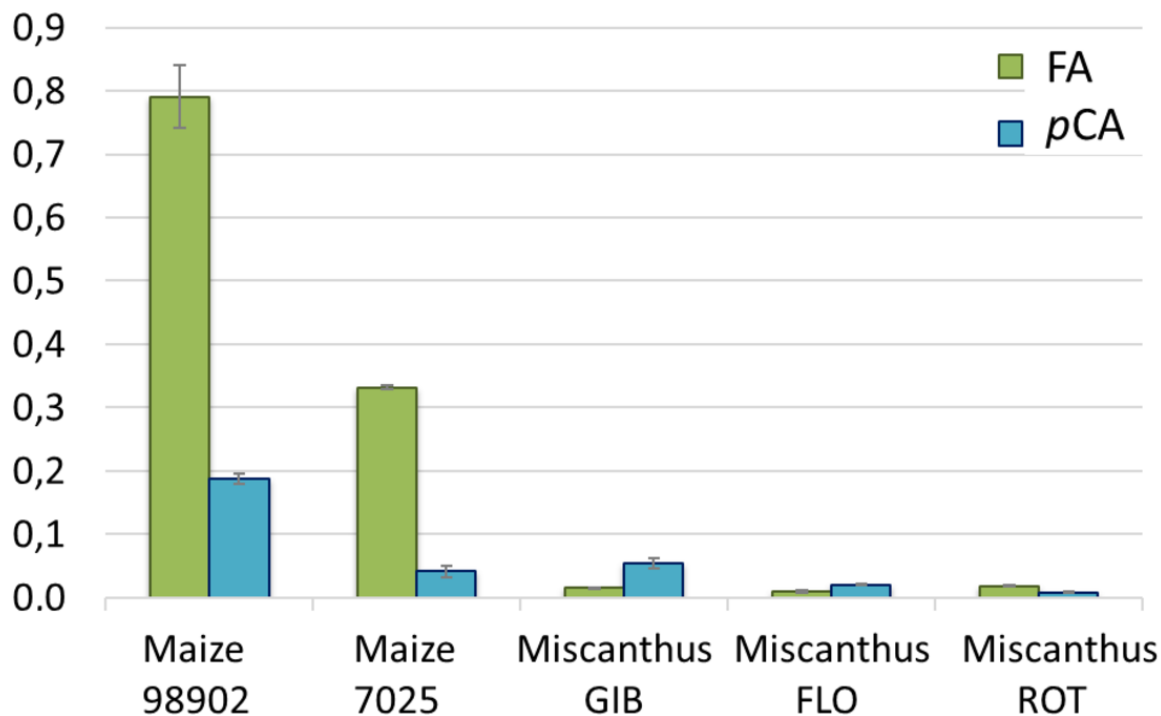
----- 3cm



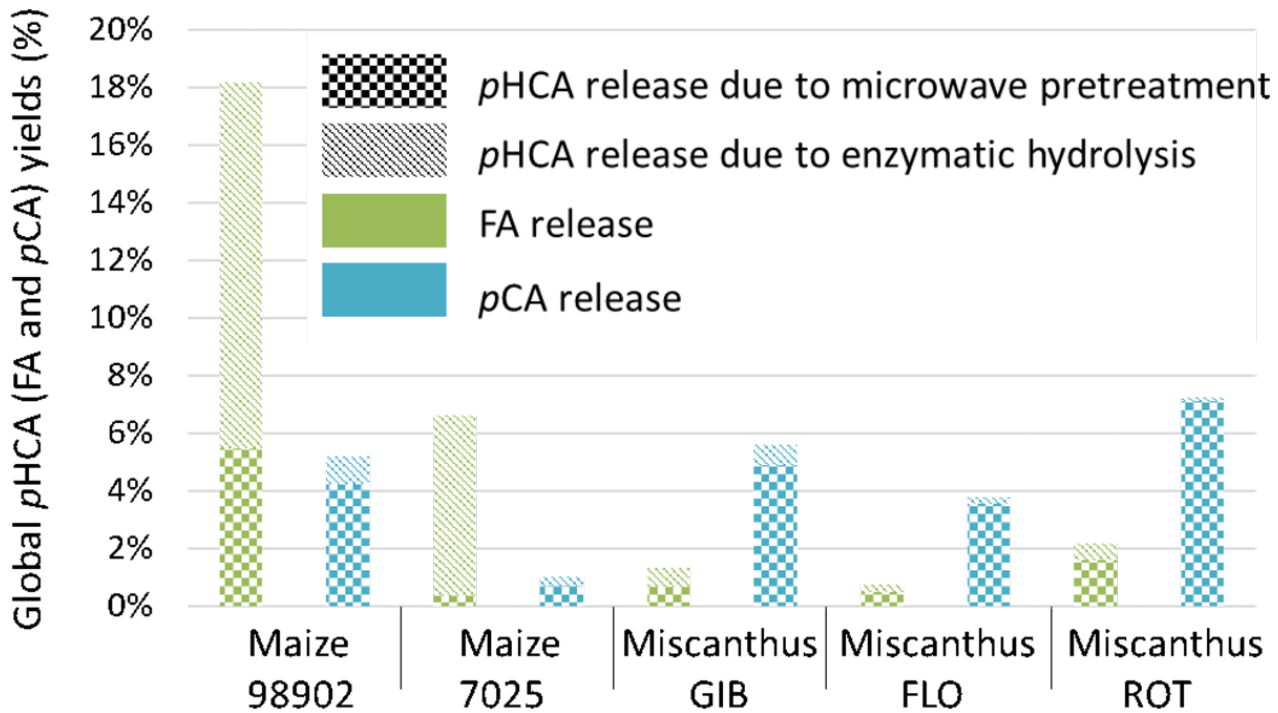




pHCA released during enzymatic hydrolysis ($\text{mg}_{\text{pHA}}/\text{gDM}$)



FA	0,791	0,332	0,016	0,010	0,018
pCA	0,187	0,042	0,053	0,020	0,008



Pressurized microwave pretreatment yield (%) Enzymatic hydrolysis yield (%) **Total yield (%)**

**Maize
F 98902**

FA = 5,5%
pCA = 4,2%



FA = 12,7%
pCA = 1,0%

FA = 7,6%
pCA = 0,6%

FA = 18,2%
pCA = 5,2%

FA = 7,6%
pCA = 0,6%

**Miscanthus
GIB**

FA = 0,7%
pCA = 4,9%



FA = 0,7%
pCA = 0,7%

AF = -0,2%
pCA = -0,9%

FA = 1,3%
pCA = 5,6%

FA = -0,2%
pCA = -0,9%