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1	Lactic acid production from food waste using a microbial consortium: Focus on
2	key parameters for process upscaling and fermentation residues valorization
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9	
10	Abstract
11	In this study, the production of lactic acid from food waste in industrially relevant
12	conditions was investigated. Laboratory assays were first performed in batch conditions
13	to determine the suitable operational parameters for an efficient lactic acid production.
14	The use of compost as inoculum, the regulation of the temperature at 35°C and pH at 5
15	enhanced the development of Lactobacillus sp. resulting in the production of 70 g/L of
16	lactic acid with a selectivity of 89% over the other carboxylic acids. Those parameters
17	were then applied at pilot scale in successive fed-batch fermentations. The subsequent
18	high concentration (68 g/L), yield (0.38 g/gTS) and selectivity (77%) in lactic acid
19	demonstrated the applicability of the process. To integrate the process into a complete
20	value chain, fermentation residues were then converted into biogas through anaerobic
21	digestion. Lastly, the experiment was successfully replicated using commercial and
22	municipal waste collected in France.
23	

25 Keywords

Lactic acid; Food waste; Mixed culture fermentation; Biogas; Microbial communityanalysis

28

29 1. Introduction

30 Lactic acid (LA) is an important platform chemical that has a wide range of 31 application. It is commonly used in the food and beverage sector as a preservative and 32 pH adjusting agent but also in the cosmetics and pharmaceutics industries. LA can also 33 be converted into lactate ester or poly-lactic-acid (PLA), a nontoxic, biocompatible, 34 thermo-tolerant and biodegradable plastic (Chen et al., 2016). The market value of LA 35 was 2.7 billion dollars in 2020 and is predicted to increase at a compound annual 36 growth rate of 8.0% from 2021 to 2028 (see Lactic Acid Market Share, Industry Report, 37 2021-2028).

38 Nowadays, most of LA is produced by homolactic microorganisms such as 39 Lactobacillus delbrueckii using sugars extracted from agricultural resources as a carbon 40 source (mainly cassava, sugarcane and corn; see Lactic Acid Market Share, Industry 41 Report, 2021-2028 and Alves de Oliveira et al., 2018). However, this biological 42 production route competes with food and feed and is often expensive due to the high 43 price of raw materials, which represents 40-70% of the total production cost (Abdel-44 Rahman and Sonomoto, 2016). Thus, studies have been conducted to produce LA from 45 inexpensive and more renewable resources such as lignocellulosic biomass and food 46 waste (Abdel-Rahman et al., 2013; Alves de Oliveira et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020b). 47 The industrial feasibility and rentability of those processes are still to be demonstrated.

48 According to the UNEP (United Nations Environment Programme) Food Waste 49 Index Report, around 931 million tons of food waste were generated in the world in 50 2019 coming from households, food services and retails (UNEP Food Waste Index 51 Report 2021). Food wastes (FW) represent a large part of the organic fraction of 52 municipal solid waste (OFMSW) and still often end-up in landfill or incinerated. 53 Anaerobic digestion (AD) is seen as a good strategy to valorize complex organic wastes 54 such as FW into biogas and fertilizers (Capson-Tojo et al., 2016). However, this 55 solution is not always the best choice in terms of economic and environmental impact 56 due to its long digestion cycle (low organic loading rate and long retention time) and its 57 instability related to high ammonia concentration and volatile fatty acids accumulation 58 (Nayak and Bhushan, 2019). Recently, numerous regulations have been implemented to 59 better valorize FW. The European Union develops a policy of household biowaste 60 selective sorting that will lead to the implementation of novel strategies for FW 61 conversion into more valuable products (such as LA). Indeed, FW is an attractive 62 feedstock due to its high biodegradability, its high sugars and proteins content and its 63 availability throughout the year (Dou and Toth, 2021; Wang et al., 2020b). 64 LA fermentation performance is known to be strongly dependent on the quality of 65 the substrate and its pretreatment, on the inoculum used and on operational conditions, 66 such as pH, temperature, and content of total solids (TS) during the bioconversion. 67 Several strategies have been implemented to maximize LA production including substrate pretreatment (Demichelis et al., 2017; Yousuf et al., 2018), bioaugmentation 68 69 with lactic acid bacteria (LAB: Streptococcus sp., Bacillus coagulans, Pediococcus 70 acidilactici or Lactobacillus sp. (López-Gómez et al., 2020; Ohkouchi and Inoue, 2006; 71 Pleissner et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2021)) and pH control (Feng et

72	al., 2018; Li et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2020b). By combining different strategies (e.g.,
73	fungal hydrolysis, bioaugmentation with Lactobacillus casei Shirota and pH regulation
74	to 6), Kwan et al., (2016) reached a maximal LA concentration of 94 g/L with a
75	productivity of 2.61 g/L/h and a yield of 0.31 g/gTS. Other strategies including co-
76	fermentation with other substrates (Alexandri et al., 2020; Li et al., 2015; Tang et al.,
77	2016), different reactor configurations (Bonk et al., 2017; Tang et al., 2017), activated
78	carbon addition (Wang et al., 2021), supplementation with copper and nano iron (Wang
79	et al., 2020a; Ye et al., 2018) and modification of the osmotic pressure (Li et al., 2021)
80	were also evaluated as efficient solutions to improve LA production. However, no
81	consensus has been achieved on a preferential strategy for industrialization.
82	Several studies highlighted that final LA concentration and fermentation yield were
83	respectively positively and negatively correlated with the TS concentration of the
84	feedstock (Kim et al., 2003; Pleissner et al., 2017; Yousuf et al., 2018). To avoid
85	excessive substrate costs and the generation of significant amounts of fermentation
86	residues, studies often focused on maximizing fermentation yields (i.e., g of LA per g of
87	initial feedstock) by operating the process at low TS content. However, from a techno-
88	economic point of view, a high final LA concentration combined with a high selectivity
89	over other organic acids is mandatory to limit the costs of downstream processing
90	(Abdel-Rahman and Sonomoto, 2016; López-Garzón and Straathof, 2014). The value of
91	fermentation residues can still be upgraded through two-stage processes in which LA is
92	produced from FW fermentation while the remaining solid residues are extracted and
93	valorized into biomethane and/or compost (Demichelis et al., 2017; Dreschke et al.,
94	2015; Kim et al., 2016). In such process setting, the overall process performance and
95	costs can be optimized (Demichelis et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2016).

96 This study focused on the identification of key parameters for industrially relevant 97 FW fermentation at high concentration (20%_{TS} is representative of non-diluted FW). No 98 substrate pretreatment was applied to minimize the process complexity and costs. The 99 effects of inoculum, temperature and pH regulation were assessed on both LA 100 fermentation performance and the evolution of the microbial community structure. 101 Then, the best operational conditions were assessed at pilot scale and the fermentation 102 residues were valorized into biogas through anaerobic digestion. Lastly, replication 103 assays were performed with an industrial waste stream consisting of FW pulps collected 104 from a commercial depackaging unit. 105 106 2. Materials and Methods 107 2.1. Substrate and inoculum 108 A model FW was prepared according to Capson-Tojo et al. (2017) to ensure the 109 relative stability and reproducibility of the substrate properties during the experiments. 110 This substrate, composed of fruits and vegetables (25.9% apple and 25.9% lettuce), 111 carbohydrates (25.9% potato, 4.8% wheat meal and 6.2% bread), meat (4.1% chicken 112 and 4.1% beef), dairy products (1.9% yoghurt) and pastries (1.5% cookies), is 113 representative of real FW collected in Europe from households or canteens and has 114 already been used as substrate in previous research on anaerobic digestion (Capson-Tojo 115 et al., 2017). The measured TS and VS content of this model FW is 25.13%_{TS} and 116 89.53%_{VS/TS} (Table 1). The total carbohydrates content of the model FW was estimated 117 at 0.69 g/gTS, its lipids content at 0.07 g/gTS and its crude protein content at 0.17 118 g/gTS. The C/N ratio is 16.3 g/g and the pH of this model FW was estimated to be 5.6 119 (Capson-Tojo et al., 2017). This FW mixture was roughly milled (shredder BLICK

BB230) and blended (Hachoir Reber 9603) to ensure its homogeneity, and then stored at
-20°C before use.

When indicated, real FW collected in France from either a high-school canteen or a commercial depackaging unit (a unit in which wrapped food are crushed and plastics from packaging are then separated from the organic matter) were tested.

In some conditions, a microbial inoculum, composed of a mixture of commercial yoghurt and/or leachate and solid compost from an industrial platform, was used. The compost and leachate have a buffering capacity (presence of NH_4^+ and HCO_3^- ions) and bring a diversified microbial consortium while yoghurt was tested as an input of LAB (especially *Lactobacillus delbrueckii subsp. bulgaricus* and *Streptococcus thermophilus* (Nagaoka, 2019)). Each inoculum was characterized by measuring its total and volatile solids content (Table 1).

132

133 2.2. Batch fermentation (0.5 L)

134 Batch fermentations in 500 mL flasks were first performed to maximize LA 135 production through operational parameters optimization. The total substrate mass feed 136 was 200 g at 20%_{TS}. This total solid content is consistent with previously reported FW 137 solid contents (Capson-Tojo et al., 2016) and may allow to reach the reasonable 138 production of 50 g/L lactic acid, enabling a cost-effective downstream processing 139 (López-Garzón and Straathof, 2014). Substrate to inoculum ratio (S/X) was set to 10 (on 140 a VS basis) as a starting point. Fermentations were carried out during 21 days at several 141 temperature (24, 35 or 55° C).

Depending on the condition, pH was either left uncontrolled or corrected at 5 or 6
by manual addition of NaOH (1 M or 5 M) or KOH (1 M) every 2 days. This pH

regulation mode allows for a swing of pH that oscillates between 3.5 and 5 or 6,
improving the development of LAB (Tashiro *et al.*, 2016). The culture medium was
regularly sampled in order to monitor pH and to measure the quantity of lactic acid,
ethanol and other organic acids produced. Gas production (CO₂ and H₂) was also
regularly quantified. After each opening, the flasks were purged with N₂ gas to restore
anaerobic conditions.

- 150
- 151 2.3. Fed-batch fermentation at a pilot scale (12 L)

152 Fed-batch fermentations were carried out in a laboratory scale pilot (12 L working 153 volume) designed for high TS anaerobic digestion (Garaud, France). The temperature 154 was automatically controlled at 35°C using a water bath circulator and a built-in water 155 jacket. A pH electrode (METTLER TELEDO InPro® 42XX) allowed for continuous pH 156 monitoring which was then manually adjusted once a day using 1 M KOH. In pilot scale 157 fermentation, compost and leachate were used as an inoculum. Fermentation residues 158 from previous experiments were also tested as an input for LAB. 159 Those reactors were fed once a day without digestate withdrawal (fed-batch

160 fermentation). The initial TS content in the reactor was 20% with an initial S/X ratio of

161 20 g VS of substrate per g VS of inoculum. The Organic Loading Rates (OLR) was 25

162 gTS/L/d for the first four days.

- 163
- 164

2.4. *Potential for methane production*

165 LA-fermented residues using model FW were recovered to perform AD tests.

166 Those residues had a TS and VS contents equal to 18% and 16.5%. Non fermented FW

167 was also used as a control. Methane production assays were realized as described

168	previously (Motte et al., 2014). Batch assays (400 mL) were carried out in anaerobic						
169	conditions at 35 °C for 35 days. To correct the endogenous contribution to the biogas						
170	from the inoculum, blank assays were conducted. Each condition was performed in						
171	triplicate.						
172							
173	2.5. Analytical methods						
174	2.5.1. Determination of total solids and volatile solids contents						
175	The Total Solids (TS) and Volatile Solids (VS) contents of substrates and inocula						
176	were obtained by drying samples at 105°C (Memmert) for 24h and then at 550°C for 3h						
177	(Nabertherm). The differences of mass at each step indicates the percentage of TS and						
178	VS.						
179							
180	2.5.2. High Performance Liquid Chromatography						
181	Concentrations of organic acids, sugars and alcohols were measured by High						
182	Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) with a refractive index detector (Waters						
183	R410). HPLC analysis were performed at a flow rate of 0.3 mL/min on an Aminex						
184	HPX-87H, 300*7.8 mm (Bio-Rad) column at a temperature of 35°C. H ₂ SO ₄ at 4 mM						
185	was used at mobile phase. A pre-column (Micro guard cation H refill cartbridges, Bio-						
186	Rad) was disposed before the main column. Lactate, ethanol, and organic acids						
187	concentration, given in this study, are uncorrected for dilution due to NaOH or KOH						
188	addition.						
189							
190	2.5.3. Gas Chromatography						

191 Biogas composition was determined using a gas chromatograph (Clarus 580, Perkin

192	Elmer) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector. The columns used were a
193	RtQbond column (for H ₂ , O ₂ , N ₂ and CH ₄) and a RtMolsieve column (for CO ₂). Argon
194	was used as mobile phase.
195	
196	2.6. Calculation
197	Four performance indicators (see equation 1 to 4) were monitored: LA
198	concentration in the reaction medium (g/L), the yield of LA produced depending on the
199	substrate introduced (g/gTS), the productivity (g/L/h) and the selectivity for LA
200	production over other organics acids ($\%_{molOA}$).
201	Eq. (1) Concentration = g of LA / L of medium
202	Eq. (2) Yield = g of LA / g of TS of FW introduced
203	Eq. (3) Productivity = Δ concentration / Δ hours
204	Eq. (4) Selectivity = mol LA / mol total organic acids x 100
205	
206	2.7. Microbial community analysis
207	Samples of the initial inoculum and from the batch reactors were analyzed by 16S
208	rRNA gene sequencing to determine the structure of the microbial community and to
209	evaluate the effect of operating conditions on the evolution of this community. DNA
210	was extracted from the samples using the QIAamp fast DNA stool mini kit (Qiagen),
211	amplified by PCR and sequenced. Precise description of the methodology employed can
212	be found in the literature (Moscoviz et al., 2016).
213	
214	3. <u>Results and Discussion</u>
215	3.1. Identification of key parameters for industrially relevant food waste

216 *fermentation*

3.1.1. Laboratory scale fermentation of model food waste: optimization of
 fermentation performance Fermentation experiments were conducted at high TS (20%) using unsterilized

220 model FW. To determine the most suitable conditions to achieve a high LA

221 concentration with a high selectivity, several operational parameters were tested. Hence,

222 FW was incubated with or without addition of compost and yoghurt, at several

temperature (24°C, 35°C and 55°C) and with (pH = 5 or pH = 6) or without

224 (uncontrolled) pH regulation. The resulting fermentation performances (concentration,

productivity, yield and selectivity, summarized in Table 2) are given for the day at

which LA concentration is maximal (most of the time after 8 days). Typical time

227 courses for FW fermentation with or without pH regulation are shown in Fig.1a and

228 typical time courses for FW fermentation at several temperatures and with different

inoculums can be found in supplementary material.

230 At 35°C and without pH control, the maximal concentration of LA (36.3 ± 1.3 g/L 231 vs 15.9 ± 0.5 g/L) and its selectivity $(77 \pm 2\%_{molOA} vs 66 \pm 2\%_{molOA};$ see supplementary 232 material) were higher when an inoculum consisting of a mixture of yoghurt and 233 compost was added compared to a fermentation without exogeneous inoculation. First, 234 addition of compost induced a higher initial pH with a value of 6.3 ± 0.2 compared to 235 5.1 ± 0.1 without inoculation. In addition, 16S rRNA gene sequencing at the beginning 236 of the experiment indicated that the initial microbial community structure was similar 237 with or without addition of inoculum (main bacterial class are *Clostridia*: the genus 238 *MBA03_ge* representing $25.2 \pm 2\%$ of the total microorganism relative abundance; 239 Sphingobacteriia: an unidentified genus from the Lentimicrobiaceae family representing

240 $11.1 \pm 2.1\%$ of the total microorganism relative abundance; and *Bacilli* with the genus 241 Streptococcus representing $6.0 \pm 2.7\%$ of the total microorganism relative abundance; 242 see supplementary material). This may be explained by the fact that there are many 243 endogenous microorganisms in the model FW (micro-organisms coming from the raw 244 materials used and the natural contamination during its preparation) and therefore, the 245 LAB coming from yaourt were not detected. Sequencing results also indicated that the 246 Lactobacillus species that dominated the microbial community at the end of the 247 fermentation were similar with or without inoculum addition. The increase in final LA 248 concentration and selectivity with inoculum addition might therefore be correlated to 249 the higher initial pH. Indeed, it would allow for more LA to be produced before 250 reaching pH values below 3.5 that would prevent *Lactobacillus* growth and more 251 globally all biological activities. These results are consistent with the experiments 252 carried out when the inoculum was made of 72% of yoghurt. In this condition, the final 253 LA concentration $(33.6 \pm 0.5 \text{ g/L})$ was lower than in the condition using 18% of yoghurt 254 which is likely related to a lower initial pH ($pH_i = 5.6 \pm 0.1$). The inoculum composed 255 of compost and 18% of yoghurt was therefore retained for further screening 256 experiments. 257 Temperature is known to play an important role in LA fermentation (Song et al., 258 2021) due to the higher hydrolysis rates of FW at high temperature and to a modification of the microbial community structure and enzymatic activities (Tang et al., 259

260 2016). In this study, maximal LA concentration was higher at $35^{\circ}C (36.3 \pm 1.3 \text{ g/L})$

than at 24°C (29.9 \pm 0.2 g/L) or 55°C (10.5 \pm 0.8 g/L). LA selectivity was similar at

262 24°C and 35°C (78 \pm 1% _{molOA} and 77 \pm 2% _{molOA} respectively) and lower at 55°C (61 \pm

263 $3.6\%_{molOA}$). At 24°C, the LAB dominated the microbial community but grew more

264 slowly and therefore more time was required to reach a similar LA concentration (Table 265 2: 8 days at 35°C vs 16 days at 24°C). At 55°C, butyric acid and H₂ production were 266 observed (see supplementary material) indicating that the microbial community was not 267 dominated by LAB and resulting in lower LA production, as reported previously (Tang 268 et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2021). In further studies, an adapted bacterial consortium 269 (such as thermophilic anaerobic sludge (Arras *et al.*, 2019)) or a specific thermotolerant 270 LAB (Sakai and Yamanami, 2006; Wang et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2015) could be used 271 to operate in thermophilic conditions but the strength of this selected microbial 272 community remains to be proven overtime when facing a rich endogenous microbial 273 diversity. 274 Lastly, pH has been demonstrated to have an important effect on LA fermentation 275 performance (Feng et al., 2018; Li et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2020b) but the optimal pH 276 and its ideal regulation type (*i.e.*, continuous or at regular interval) for LA fermentation 277 is still unknow (Song et al., 2021). In this study, only acidic pH values were considered 278 because alkaline pH would require an excessive quantity of reagents for pH buffering 279 (*i.e.*, increasing process costs) and because it has been proven that acidic pH allowed for 280 the selection of LAB among all the microorganism present in FW. 281 The final concentration of LA, its productivity and yield were improved by pH 282 regulation at 5 or 6 (regulated every two days allowing a dynamic evolution of pH; 283 Table 2 and Fig.1a). Indeed when pH was not regulated, it rapidly decreased as LA was 284 accumulating, preventing the growth and activity of many micro-organisms (including 285 LAB (Alves de Oliveira et al., 2018; Farah et al., 2009)). As a consequence, the 286 quantity of LA produced reached a plateau after 4 days of fermentation (Fig. 1a). This 287 mode of fermentation is not efficient to reach high LA concentration, but it is robust and

repeatable (5 fermentations realized in triplicates led to a production of 30.9 ± 2.6 g/L LA after 4 days and 36.3 ± 1.3 g/L after 8 days).

290 LA fermentation performances were similar by regulating pH at 5 or 6 after 8 days 291 of fermentation (58.4 \pm 6.6 g/L vs 57.0 \pm 4.8 g/L; Table 2 and Fig. 1a). However, as the 292 fermentation continued, an important decrease in LA concentration (from 57.0 ± 4.8 g/L 293 at day 8 to 0 g/L at day 21; Fig. 1a) and specificity (from $86 \pm 1\%_{molOA}$ to $0\%_{molOA}$; Fig. 294 1b) occurred at pH 6 mainly due LA consumption for butyric, propionic, and acetic acid production. Sequencing results indicated a change in the microorganism community that 295 296 shifted from a Lactobacillus dominated consortium towards a Clostridium dominated 297 consortium (acetate-butyrate producing bacteria; Fig. 1c). LA only being an 298 intermediate fermentation product have already been observed in previous studies (Feng 299 et al., 2018; Hussain et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2003; Ohkouchi and Inoue, 2006; Probst et 300 al., 2015; Tang et al., 2016). At pH 5, a decrease in LA concentration was also observed 301 after 8 days of fermentation but it was less intense than at pH 6. This result suggests a 302 growth inhibition of microorganisms other than Lactobacillus at this pH, as observed in 303 the final microbial community (Fig. 1c). 304 Lastly, by regulating pH with a more concentrated NaOH solution (5 M instead of 1 305 M), the fermentation broth was less diluted resulting in a higher LA concentration

306 (Table 2 and Fig. 1a). Hence, the maximal LA concentration (70.1 \pm 1.5 g/L),

307 productivity (0.37 \pm 0.01 g/L/h) and yield (0.39 \pm 0.01 g/gTS) was obtained after 8 days

308 of fermentation at 35°C, by regulating pH at 5 with 5 M NaOH and with an inoculum

309 composed of yaourt and compost. The low quantity of ethanol produced (0.18 ± 0.0 mol

310 per mol of LA; Table 2) and high selectivity ($89 \pm 2\%_{molOA}$) for LA achieved using

311 those parameters also strengthen the great industrial potential of this process with a

312	minimization of downstream processing cost for LA separation from ethanol and others
313	organic acids. The fermentation performance (except for productivity) reported in this
314	study were higher than those previously achieved in batch (19.6 to 58.4 g/L; 0.12 to
315	2.38 g/L/h, 0.10 to 0.24 g/gTS, 63 to $71\%_{molOA}$) in studies operating at a high TS
316	without substrate pretreatment or inoculation with a specific micro-organisms (RedCorn
317	and Engelberth, 2016; Yousuf et al., 2018).
318	
319	3.1.2. Validation of the retained parameters for efficient fermentation of
320	canteen food waste
321	As LA fermentation was efficient at 35°C by regulating pH at 5 with 5 M NaOH
322	and with compost and yoghurt as an initial seed, those optimal operational conditions
323	were tested for LA production from canteen FW. As for model FW, a high LA
324	concentration (66.3 \pm 1.1 g/L for real vs 70.1 \pm 1.5 g/L for model FW), productivity
325	$(0.35 \pm 0.01 \text{ g/L/h} \text{ for real } vs \ 0.37 \pm 0.01 \text{ g/L/h} \text{ for model FW})$, yield $(0.37 \pm 0.01 \text{ g/gTS})$
326	for real vs 0.39 \pm 0.01 g/gTS for model FW) and a good selectivity (over 90% $_{molOA}$ for
327	real vs 89% _{molOA} for model FW, see supplementary material) were achieved after 8 days
328	when using canteen FW. Those results indicated that the model FW used for process
329	parameters optimization was representative of real FW and that the retained parameters
330	were suitable for efficient canteen FW fermentation. Fed-batch pilot scale test were
331	therefore performed to provide further insights onto process industrial feasibility.
332	
333	3.2. <i>Model food waste fermentation at pilot scale in industrially relevant</i>
334	conditions
335	3.2.1. Adaptation of the operational parameters to get closer to industrially

relevant conditions

337 Pilot scale experiments were conducted under mesophilic conditions (35°C) and by 338 regulating pH at 5. To get closer to industrially relevant conditions and because 339 preliminary experiments have shown that addition of yoghurt as a LAB input in a pH-340 regulated condition did not improve final LA concentration, the inoculum was only 341 composed of compost and leachate. Compost was added as a buffering agent but the 342 substrate to inoculum ratio was increased to 20 (instead of 10 in flasks experiments) to 343 maximize the quantity of FW processed and because no difference in fermentation 344 efficiencies have been noticed when operating at those two ratios (data not shown). 345 Furthermore, in the perspective of developing an industrially relevant process, the 346 question of the valorization of remaining solids residues was addressed. Since it has 347 previously been demonstrated that anaerobically fermented model kitchen refuse (*i.e.*, 348 residues after LA fermentation by B. subtilis KBKU21 and LA removal) can be used as 349 soil amendment to promote plants (Brassica rapa) growth (Kitpreechavanich et al., 350 2016), the use of KOH instead of NaOH for pH regulation was assessed to increase the 351 agronomical value of the fermentation residues. Similar LA concentration (60.4 ± 10.8) 352 g/L with NaOH and 55.8 \pm 9.2 g/L with KOH), yield (0.31 \pm 0.06 g/gTS with NaOH 353 and 0.29 ± 0.05 g/gTS with KOH), productivity (0.28 ± 0.05 g/L/h with NaOH and 0.26354 \pm 0.04 g/L/h with KOH) and selectivity (80 \pm 6.6% molOA with NaOH vs 79 \pm 0.4% molOA 355 with KOH) were achieved with the two pH regulating chemicals. Those two alkaline 356 agents allowed for suitable pH regulation and favorized Lactobacillus growth (98.8% 357 and 98.9% of Lactobacillus with NaOH and KOH, respectively). 358 Hence, pilot experiments were conducted with compost and leachate (S/X = 20) as

a pH buffering agent and by regulating pH at 5 with KOH instead of NaOH.

361 3.2.2. Validation of the optimized operational parameters at pilot scale using a 362 fed-batch feeding strategy

The operational parameters (use of compost, 35° C, pH regulated to 5 with KOH) were evaluated at pilot scale (12 L working volume) using model FW (20%_{TS}). A fedbatch feeding strategy was preferred to alleviate the decrease in fermentation efficiency due to lower substrate availability in late batch fermentation.

367 The final concentration (68.5 g/L), yield (0.38 g/gTS) and selectivity (77 $\%_{molOA}$) 368 obtained at pilot scale after 3 days of fermentation (Fig. 2a-c) were slightly lower than 369 the performance obtained after 7 days of fermentation at laboratory scale (83.0 ± 8.2 370 g/L, 0.43 \pm 0.04 g/gTS, 88 \pm 0.6% molOA). Yet, the global productivity in fed-batch pilot 371 (0.95 g/L/h) was twice better than in flask batch assays $(0.49 \pm 0.05 \text{ g/L/h})$. The 372 productivity was similar for the first two days of fermentation using a batch or fed-batch 373 strategy, but it increased rapidly afterwards in the fed-batch mode. This can be 374 explained by the addition fresh substrate in a reactor already dominated by the 375 Lactobacillus community and therefore the rapid conversion of newly added sugars into 376 LA. 377 The final concentration, yield and productivity of LA obtained in this study were 378 higher than the ones reported by Farah et al. (2009) at pilot scale operating in similar conditions (57.6 g/L, 0.8 g/L/h and 0.32 g/gTS respectively). However, Pleissner et al. 379

380 (2017) reported an higher productivity of 2 g/L/h related to the use of a specific

inoculation with *Streptococcus sp.* and Sakai *et al.* (2003) achieved a higher

382 concentration of 80 g/L by applying an enzymatic pretreatment and an inoculation with

383 L. rhamnosus. In conclusion, the fed-batch feeding strategy seems to be an appropriate

strategy to enhance LA production from FW.

386	3.2.3. Assessment of the process robustness in repeated fed-batch fermentation
387	Repeated batch or fed-batch fermentation, which involves the inoculation of a
388	reactor with fermentation residues from the previous one (Zhao et al., 2010), has been
389	described as a good strategy to improve LA fermentation while reducing operational
390	cost (no cleaning of the fermenter and no seed purchase or preparation ; as summarized
391	in Abdel-Rahman et al., 2013). Hence, 3 repeated fed-batch runs were carried out using
392	compost and leachate as a seed for the first one (Fed-batch 1) and then fermentation
393	residues from the previous run for the two others (Fed-batch 2 and 3). These
394	fermentation residues had a TS content of 18%, a VS/TS content of 79% and their
395	microbial community was rich in Lactobacillus (over 99% in relative abundance).
396	The fermentation profile, maximal LA concentration (68.5 g/L for Fed-batch 1,
397	64.8 g/L for Fed-batch 2 and 61.2 g/L for Fed-batch 3; Fig. 2a) and selectivity
398	$(77\%_{molOA}$ for Fed-batch 1, 71% _{molOA} for Fed-batch 2 and 70% _{molOA} for Fed-batch 3;
399	Fig. 2b) were similar for every run, indicating that LA fermentation is stable in a
400	repeated fed-batch configuration although a minor decrease in fermentation
401	performance can be observed at the beginning of the 3 rd fermentation run. The initial
402	microbial community was slightly richer (2.5% vs 1%) in Lactobacillus when the
403	reactor was reinoculated with fermentation residues from a previous run (Fig. 2c). In
404	every run, the microbial community was rapidly dominated by Lactobacillus with more
405	than 99% of Lactobacillus observed after 4 days of fermentation (Fig. 2c). In a previous
406	study conducted using waste activate sludge as an inoculum, authors have shown the
407	stability of LA production for nine repeated batch cycles. They reported an increase

408 (from 26% in batch 1 to 44.5% in repeated cycle 6) of the relative abundance of LAB
409 genera (*i.e.*, *Alkaliphilus*, *Dysgonomonas*, *Enterococcus* and *Bifidobacterium*) but also
410 of propionic acid producing microorganisms (Xu *et al.*, 2020).

To conclude, the recirculation of fermentation residues rich in *Lactobacillus* from one batch to the next did not increased *Lactobacillus* propagation kinetics nor LA production efficiency. This could be due to the high concentration of endogenous micro-organisms in FW. However, operating in successive batches will allow for cost reduction and process stabilization especially when operating using FW with variable endogenous microbial community. To be truly meaningful, this experiment should be further continued to determine the maximum number of cycles that can be performed.

418

419 3.3. Integration of the process into a complete value chain: biogas production
420 using fermentation residues

421 Coupling LA fermentation to anaerobic digestion of solid residues has been

422 proposed as a suitable strategy to improve the process rentability. However, only a few

423 studies demonstrated the possibility to recover both LA and biogas from FW

424 (Demichelis *et al.*, 2017; Kim *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, in this study, the methane

425 production potential of LA-fermented residues was determined.

426 After 35 days, the methane potential of fermented FW reached 365 ± 4 NmL CH₄

427 per g of FW initial volatile solids (*i.e.*, before fermentation), which was similar to the

- 428 methane potential of non-fermented FW ($366 \pm 7 \text{ NmL CH}_4 \text{ per gVS}(FW)$) indicating
- 429 that fermentation did not induced a loss of the methane potential. Moreover, the

430 methane produced after 17 days was even higher when using fermented FW (346 ± 3

431 NmL CH₄ per gVS(FW) vs 333 ± 6 NmL CH₄ per gVS(FW)) most likely because

fermented substrate has already been hydrolyzed during fermentation. This result is
consistent with a previous study (Demichelis *et al.*, 2017).
By extrapolating the results obtained in this study at pilot scale and assuming an
extraction of 75% of the produced LA (using a pre-purification step followed by an ion
exchange and vacuum distillation as performed in Alvarado-Morales *et al.*, 2021), the
final products would theoretically be 0.31 gLA/gVS(FW) and 250 NmL CH₄/gVS(FW)

(Fig. 3). Therefore, 58 kg LA and 47 Nm³ CH₄ can be produced per ton FW (at 20%_{TS}),
using a two-stage process with FW fermentation in LA followed by AD of the

440 remaining residues.

441

442 3.4. Efficiency of the developed process for the fermentation of an industrial
443 food waste stream: depackaging pulp

444 Most of the work carried out in this study was realized using model FW for 445 simplicity and repeatability reasons. However, once the best operational parameters 446 have been identified, it is important to transpose them to available industrial FW 447 streams. Hence, fermentation assays were performed using undiluted depackaging pulp. 448 A lower maximal LA concentration $(39.2 \pm 0.4 \text{ g/L})$, yield $(0.21 \pm 0.0 \text{ g/gTS})$, 449 productivity $(0.23 \pm 0.0 \text{ g/L/h})$ and selectivity $(70 \pm 0.0\%_{molOA})$ was achieved using 450 depackaging pulp (Fig. 4a-b) compared to the performance obtained with model FW 451 (68.5 g/L; 0.38 g/gTS; 0.95 g/L/h; 77%_{molOA}). This can be partially explained by the fact 452 that there is slightly less volatile matter in depackaging pulp (86%_{TS} vs 89.5%_{TS} in 453 model FW) and that a part of depackaging pulps volatile matter is composed of non-454 biodegradable plastics. Moreover, the soluble sugars content (especially fructose) in 455 model FW was twice higher than in the depackaging pulp. Interestingly, the relative

456 abundance of Lactobacillus at the beginning of the depackaging pulp fermentation was 457 80% but this was not correlated with a high initial amount of LA. This higher relative 458 abondance can then be explained by the lower amount of microbial biomass in 459 deconditioning pulp compared to FW. LA fermentation from depackaging pulp was 460 driven by Lactobacillus which dominated the microbial community (Fig. 4c). Hence, 461 the lower LA concentration achieved with depackaging pulp is more likely correlated to 462 the lower sugars content of this substrate than to an unsuited process, since a high 463 selectivity for LA and a Lactobacillus dominated microorganism community were 464 observed. In conclusion, the developed process is suitable for depackaging pulp 465 fermentation into LA but the valorization of the high quantity of fermentation residues 466 should be considered (not address in this study). To our knowledge, this is the first pilot 467 scale fermentation of a low quality and already industrially available food waste 468 substrate.

469

470 **4.** <u>Conclusions</u>

471 Operating fermentation conditions were tested and validated in this study to drive the 472 development of a Lactobacillus dominated microbial community selected from 473 endogenous bacterial consortia. Among key parameters, pH was the most critical factor 474 enhancing LA production from model and industrial FW. At pilot scale, 68 g/L of LA 475 were produced in successive fed-batch fermentations showing the efficiency and 476 robustness of the process. The high LA selectivity (77%_{molOA}) and the high methane 477 potential (250 NmLCH₄/gVS(FW)) of the remaining fermentation residues strengthen 478 the process promising industrial potential. Lastly, further optimization is required to

479	increase yields when applied to industrial waste such as depackaging pulps, for which
480	lower LA concentration (39.2 g/L) were produced in the current study.
481	
482	E-supplementary data for this work can be found in e-version of this paper
483	online
484	
485	CRediT authorship contribution statement
486	Célia Chenebault: Data Curation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review &
487	editing; Roman Moscoviz: Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing; Eric
488	Trably: Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing - review & editing; Renaud Escudié:
489	Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing - review & editing; Benjamin Percheron:
490	Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing - review & editing.
491	
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496	
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675	(Sugarc	ane, Corn, Ca	ssava), By Applic	ation (PLA, Food	& Beverage	es), By Region,				
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678	https://v	www.grandvie	wresearch.com/in	dustry-analysis/la	actic-acid-and	<u>d-poly-lactic-</u>				
679	acid-ma	arket								
680										
681	Tables	and figures	<u>captions</u>							
682	Table 1. Characteristics of the substrates and inocula									
683	Table 2. M	lodel food wa	ste fermentation	performance de	pending on t	the key				
684	operationa	l conditions (inoculum, tempe	rature, pH). Erro	or bars repres	sent standard				
685	deviation fr	$rom n \ge 3 expo$	erimental replicate	es. $ND = Not dete$	rmined					
686										
687	Fig. 1. Moo	del food wast	e fermentation de	epending on the	pH regulatio	on mode				
688	(uncontrol	led or regula	ted at pH 5 or 6 e	every two days).	Evolution of	the LA				
689	concentratio	on (a.), selecti	vity over other OA	A (b.) and microb	ial communi	ty (c.). Error				
690	bars represe	ent standard d	eviation from 3 ex	perimental replic	ates.					
691	LA = Laction	c Acid; AA =	Acetic Acid; PA=	Propionic Acid;	FA= Formic	Acid; BA =				
692	Butyric and isobutyric Acid									

694	Fig. 2. Fed batch fermentation of model food waste at pilot scale (12 L) during 3							
695	consecutive cycles. Evolution of the LA concentration (a.), selectivity over other OA							
696	(b.) and microbial community (c.).							
697	LA = Lactic Acid; AA	A = Acetic Acid; PA= Ph	ropionic Acid					
698								
699	Fig. 3. Mass balance	of conventional food v	vaste valorization chai	n through				
700	anaerobic digestion o	compared to the propo	sed two stages valoriz	ation chain				
701								
702	Fig. 4. Fed batch ferr	mentation of a comme	rcial and industrial fo	od waste stream				
703	(depackaging pulp) a	nt pilot scale (12 L). Ev	olution of the LA conce	entration (a.),				
704	selectivity over other OA (b.) and microbial community (c.). Error bars represent the							
705	minimum and maximum of the 2 experimental replicates.							
706	LA = Lactic Acid; AA = Acetic Acid; PA= Propionic Acid							
707	Table 1.							
		0/ 0/000		Methane production				

	% _{TS} [gTS/100 g product]	% _{VS/TS}	Methane production potential (NmL/gVS)	
Model FW	25.13%	89.53%	366 ± 7	
Canteen FW	25.62%	94.66%	Not measured	
Depackaging pulp	19.8%	86%	Not measured	
Yoghurt	14.51%	94.43%	Not measured	
Leachate	3.02%	59.65%	205	
Compost	55.54%	46.43%	Not measured	

709 <u>Table 2.</u>

Number of experiments * replicates	Inoculum	Temperature	рН	Fermentation time	Maximum LA concentration (g/L)	Average productivity (g/L/h)	Yield (g/g TS FW)	Selectivity (% _{mol} OA)	Hetero- fermentation (mol Ethanol produced per mol of lactacte)
N = 1 * 3	No inoculum	35	Uncontrolled	8 days	15.9 ± 0.5	$\begin{array}{c} 0.08 \\ \pm \ 0.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.09 \\ \pm \ 0.0 \end{array}$	66% ± 2%	ND
N = 5 * 3	Compost + 18% yoghurt	35	Uncontrolled	8 days	36.3 ± 1.3	0.19 ± 0.01	0.20 ± 0.01	77% ± 2%	0.18 ± 0.03
N = 1 * 3	Compost + 72% yoghurt	35	Uncontrolled	8 days	33.5 ± 0.5	$\begin{array}{c} 0.17 \\ \pm \ 0.0 \end{array}$	0.19 ± 0.0	$79\% \\ \pm 0.5\%$	0.13 ± 0.02
N = 1 * 3	Compost + 18% yoghurt	24	Uncontrolled	15 days	29.9 ± 0.2	$\begin{array}{c} 0.08 \\ \pm \ 0.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.17 \\ \pm \ 0.0 \end{array}$	78% ± 1%	0.14 ± 0.02
N = 2 * 3	Compost + 18% yoghurt	55	Uncontrolled	4 days	$\begin{array}{c} 10.5 \\ \pm \ 0.8 \end{array}$	0.11 ± 0.01	$\begin{array}{c} 0.06 \\ \pm \ 0.0 \end{array}$	61% ± 3.6	0.0 ± 0.0
N = 1 * 3	Compost + 18% yoghurt	35	pH 6 NaOH = 1 M	8 days	57.0 ± 4.8	0.30 ± 0.02	0.32 ± 0.03	86% ± 1%	0.21 ± 0.01
N = 2 * 3	Compost + 18% yoghurt	35	pH 5 NaOH = 1 M	8 days	58.4 ± 6.6	0.30 ± 0.03	0.33 ± 0.04	87% ± 2%	0.20 ± 0.02
N = 1 * 3	Compost + 18% yoghurt	35	pH 5 NaOH = 5 M	8 days	70.1 ± 1.5	0.37 ± 0.01	0.39 ± 0.01	89% ± 2%	0.18 ± 0.0









- **<u>Fig. 2</u>**



Fig. 3



<u>Fig 4.</u>

