

1 **Vine shoots pre-treatment strategies for improved hydrogen production and**
2 **metabolites redistribution in *Clostridium butyricum***

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15 **Abstract**

16 Physical pre-treatments by steam explosion (SE), chemical by organosolv (OS) and
17 biological by laccase (LAC) were carried out in vine shoots to disrupt the cell fiber and
18 increase the biomass hydrolysis and fermentation into hydrogen (H₂). After SE, there was
19 a slight decrease in cellulose and hemicellulose contents in biomass fibers, while a
20 decrease in lignin content occurred after OS pre-treatment. There were no quantifiable
21 changes after laccase pre-treatment, however the enzyme-substrate oxidative reactions
22 were favorable for hydrolysis and fermentation since an increase in soluble sugars and H₂
23 production was observed with LAC vine shoots as substrate. 300.1 mL H₂/L were
24 obtained from raw material vine shoots, while 649.4, 399.8 and 749.7 mL H₂/L were
25 obtained from biomass pre-treated by SE, OS and LAC, respectively. Furthermore, the
26 hydrolysis of pre-treated biomass by addition of cellulase was evaluated to improve H₂
27 production. Higher amounts of H₂ were obtained from hydrolyzed biomass in relation to
28 non-hydrolyzed ones (154.2, 602.0 and 167.1% more with SE, OS and LAC hydrolyzed,
29 respectively). In all cases, the mixed acid pathway was carried out by *Clostridium*
30 *butyricum*, since acetic and butyric acids were produced.

31

32 **Keywords:** Lignocellulosic biomass, steam explosion, organosolv, laccase,
33 butyric acid, hydrogen

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36 **1. Introduction**

37 Winemaking, one of the main agro-industrial activities in the world, had an
38 estimated wine production of 260 million hectoliters in 2022, of which 157 million hl
39 were produced in the European Union (EU) (OIV, 2022). Along with this intense
40 production, the wine industry generates a large number of waste and by-products that are
41 traditionally destined for composting and animal feed. (Bignami et al., 2022; Rani et al.,
42 2020).

43 Among viticulture waste, vine shoots are the main waste generated during the vine
44 pruning agronomic practice, with up to 2 tons of production per hectare annually
45 (Sánchez-Gómez et al., 2017b). Vine shoots consist of cellulose (28-40%), hemicellulose
46 (17-28%) and lignin (25-32%) in addition to extractives (~3%). This residue has low
47 economic value and very limited use, and it is generally destined for burning and soil
48 disposal (Contreras et al., 2022; Senila et al., 2020).

49 Seeking a more noble use, vine shoots can be used to produce polyphenolic
50 compounds that are found as non-structural components or as part of lignin (Gullón et al.,
51 2017). These vine shoot extracts have some potential purpose, such as in cosmetics,
52 nutraceuticals or pharmaceuticals which are linked to their antioxidant effects, or in
53 organic agriculture due to their anti-food and allelopathic activities (Sánchez-Gómez et
54 al., 2017a). Along with polyphenols, Rajha et al. (2014) reported protein extraction by
55 physical treatments of vine shoots.

56 Considering the fermentable portion of the biomass, hemicellulose (Dávila et al.,
57 2016) and glucose (Dávila et al., 2017) can be recovered. El Achaby et al. (2018) reported
58 the production of cellulose nanocrystals from vine shoots using chemical treatments
59 followed by acid hydrolysis process. Senila et al. (2020) used vine shoots as substrate for
60 second-generation bioethanol from simultaneous saccharification and fermentation.
61 Therefore, this requires the optimization of autohydrolysis pre-treatment and chlorite
62 delignification. The maximum bioethanol production (6%) was obtained by
63 autohydrolysis (165 °C), chlorite delignification and SSF process at 37 °C, 10% solid
64 loading (w/v), 72 h. For methane production from vine shoots, Pérez-Rodríguez et al.
65 (2016) evaluated ultrasound pre-treatments and enzymatic hydrolysis of the biomass. The
66 authors observed that ultrasounds were negative and the enzymatic hydrolysis was
67 beneficial, increasing the methane production by 59.8%.

68 It was observed that, due to the complex structure of the vine shoots
69 interconnected by strong covalent and noncovalent bonds and forces, a biomass pre-

70 treatment step is required for its conversion into bioactive compounds, cellulose
71 nanocrystals, bioethanol or methane. There is still no information about the best vine
72 shoots pre-treatment for biological hydrogen (H₂) production.

73 The H₂ production as an alternative fuel is attracting interest in the context of
74 global climate change. The direct combustion of H₂ does not emit carbon dioxide (CO₂),
75 reducing dependence on fossil fuels and mitigating environmental impacts (Lepage et al.,
76 2021). H₂ production methods can be divided according to the feedstocks used: fossil
77 fuels (natural gas steam reforming, partial oxidation of heavy hydrocarbons, coal
78 gasification), water (water electrolysis, photo-electrochemical and thermochemical
79 processes), and biomass (biological processes, biomass gasification, ethanol steam
80 reforming, and liquid-phase reforming).

81 H₂ production from fossil fuels can take advantage of the existing infrastructure
82 for extracting, transporting, and storing these fuels. It can be carried out on a large scale,
83 which can result in more efficient production in terms of quantity produced (Nahar et al.,
84 2017). However, there is CO₂ emission, so environmental aspects need to be considered,
85 and in this regard, H₂ production from renewable sources, such as water and biomass, is
86 more attractive.

87 Water electrolysis and photo-electrochemical processes use renewable energy,
88 resulting in low greenhouse gas emissions, but require significant amounts of electrical
89 energy to break down the water molecules to obtain hydrogen. Therefore, the energy
90 efficiency of these methods is a particular challenge, since some of the energy provided
91 is dissipated in the form of heat during the process (Rasul et al., 2022).

92 H₂ production from biomass uses organic waste, reducing waste and contributing
93 to waste management. In addition, the concomitant production of metabolites, such as
94 organic acids and alcohols, can have industrial applications and be exploited as high
95 value-added products (Rabelo 2018). There are challenges in efficiency, substrate
96 selection, the need to optimize fermentation conditions, and economic feasibility
97 (Camargo et al., 2023). Biological production is considered a promising way to produce
98 H₂ providing a viable means for sustainable energy supply with low pollution and high
99 efficiency (Ramprakash et al., 2022). Despite the challenges, hydrogen as an alternative
100 fuel can play an important role in the transition to a low-carbon economy, requiring
101 investment in research, development and infrastructure.

102 Pre-treatment by physical, chemical or biological means have been studied for the
103 use of biomass in fermentation processes. To choose the pre-treatment, the production of

104 a reactive cellulosic fiber for enzymatic attack should be considered. It prevents the
105 destruction of hemicelluloses and cellulose, and the formation of possible biological
106 inhibitors (Camargo et al., 2023). With so many requirements, one must carefully study
107 the inherent factors of the biomass and also the cost-effective requirements.

108 In physical pre-treatments, chemical reagents or microorganisms are not needed
109 to promote the breakdown of the lignocellulosic structure. Among them, steam explosion
110 has been applied in sugarcane bagasse (Ratti et al., 2015), olive leaves (Romero-García
111 et al., 2016), olive tree pruning (Oliva et al., 2020) to increase the release of soluble
112 sugars, the production of hydrogen and methane, respectively. During steam explosion
113 pre-treatment, the biomass is subjected to high temperatures and pressure for a short
114 period of time inside a reactor. The pressure is then rapidly reduced, leading to disruption
115 of the cellular fiber, facilitating the subsequent biological hydrolysis and soluble sugars
116 fermentation (Yu et al., 2022). Romero-García et al. (2016) evaluated steam-explosion
117 treatment as a procedure to recover sugars and natural antioxidants from olive leaves.
118 Operating conditions were optimized and, with whole leaves, at 180 °C, 8.3 min, 70% of
119 the initial sugars in the olive leaves were recovered with low formation of inhibitory
120 compounds.

121 The chemical pre-treatment occurs through the reagents added to the biomass,
122 whether acid, alkali or organic solvents, in order to change the physico-chemical
123 characteristics of the biomass. Pre-treatments with addition of organic solvents, also
124 known as organosolv, preferably use low-cost alcohols or mixed with water to remove
125 lignin and hydrolyze hemicellulose. The formation of fermentation inhibitors is very low,
126 and solvents must be removed before fermentation (Behera et al., 2014). The liquid
127 fraction can be used to recover lignin with high purity and low molecular weight, phenolic
128 compounds (Padilla-Rascón et al., 2022) or sugars for anaerobic digestion (Ostovareh et
129 al., 2015). The solid fraction, composed of a cellular fiber that is less recalcitrant due to
130 the partial breakage of lignin-hemicellulose bonds, can be used as a substrate in
131 fermentation processes. Gómez-Cruz et al. (2021) reported the efficiency of organosolv
132 pre-treatment (50% ethanol, 1% sulfuric acid, 130 °C, 60 min) for exhausted olive pomace
133 delignification. Organosolv has already been used in pre-treatment of several other types
134 of biomass such as sugarcane bagasse (Romero et al., 2010), wheat straw (Huijgen et al.,
135 2012), bamboo (Li et al., 2012), palm oil tree residues (Alriols et al., 2009) and olive
136 stones (Padilla-Rascón et al., 2022).

137 Biological pre-treatment uses a metabolite from a microorganism, and as no
138 chemicals are used in this process, there is no need to recycle the chemical products, and
139 it does not release toxic compounds to the environment. It is an environmentally friendly
140 process, with few limitations in using this strategy for the pilot scale process (Camargo
141 et al., 2023), and has gained much attention to generate biofuels/biochemicals (Rajak and
142 Banerjee, 2018). Laccases are enzymes from a microorganism that act on substrates rich
143 in aromatic compounds such as lignin and are widely used in lignocellulosic biomass pre-
144 treatment (Avanthi and Banerjee, 2016). Furthermore, the laccase reaction in the
145 lignocellulosic structure can also favor the biomass fermentation. Rajak et al. (2018)
146 obtained higher ethanol production from kans grass subjected to the enzymatic partial
147 hydrolysis/saccharification step followed by fermentation (63.2 g/L) than from kans grass
148 subjected to simultaneous saccharification and fermentation (57.9 g/L). The authors
149 related the increase in ethanol produced to the structural distortion of biomass due to
150 enzymatic action. For sugarcane bagasse (SCB) fermentation, Rabelo et al. (2022)
151 reported an 84% increase in the fermentative H₂ production (and 184% in the amount of
152 H₂) after enzymatic pre-treatment with laccase (0.4 U laccase/mL, 24.0 g SCB/L and 120
153 min reaction at 37 °C) when compared with sugarcane bagasse without pre-treatment.

154 Although a study with the use of vine shoots for biological H₂ production has not
155 yet been reported, the importance of vine shoots pre-treatment is observed when it is used
156 in fermentation processes for ethanol production (Dávila et al., 2019; Senila et al., 2020)
157 or digestion in methane (Pérez-Rodríguez et al., 2016). Therefore, this work evaluates,
158 for the first time, the possibility of using vine shoots as a substrate for the fermentative
159 H₂ production, evaluating one type of each physical, chemical and biological pre-
160 treatments in order to increase biofuel production. It also brings a complete
161 characterization of the cellular fiber before and after each pre-treatment that will serve as
162 a basis for future studies with the scope of reusing shoots in biological processes. This
163 work is in line with the search for new possibilities to reuse vine shoots and the
164 sustainable production of clean energy.

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166 **2. Material and methods**

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168 **2.1. Biomass raw material**

169 The vine shoots used as substrate were collected in Penedés region, Spain. The
170 biomass was ground in a mill Retsch® model SM 100, (Haan, Germany), with a 1 cm

171 sieve separator and rotational speed of 1500 rpm, into particles ≤ 1 cm. The biomass was
172 air-dried to constant humidity ($10.33 \pm 0.12\%$), stored at room temperature and used in
173 all pre-treatments tests.

174

175 2.2. Biomass pre-treatments

176 Due to the lack of studies with suitable pre-treatment conditions for vine shoots
177 to be used as substrate for the fermentative H_2 production, the pre-treatment conditions
178 for vine shoots were based on maximizing pre-treatment efficiency and minimum
179 production of inhibitors fermentation processes, both requirements obtained with other
180 types of biomass.

181 The physical pre-treatment of vine shoots was conducted in a custom-built steam
182 explosion system (SE). The SE pilot unit (ATI[®] Sistemas, S. L., La Coruña, Spain) was
183 equipped with a 4.5 L reaction tank designed to achieve high operating pressures (up to
184 40 bar). The reactor, previously preheated, was charged with 400 g of raw material (the
185 one described in Section 2.1) and immediately heated again with saturated steam. The
186 reactor was closed and, when it reached a temperature of 170 °C, for 5 min, it was
187 suddenly depressurized. The selection of physical pre-treatment conditions with low
188 severity aimed at the minimum production of inhibitors for subsequent fermentation
189 (Romero-García et al., 2016). All pre-treated biomass (wet solid) was taken for
190 characterization and fermentation.

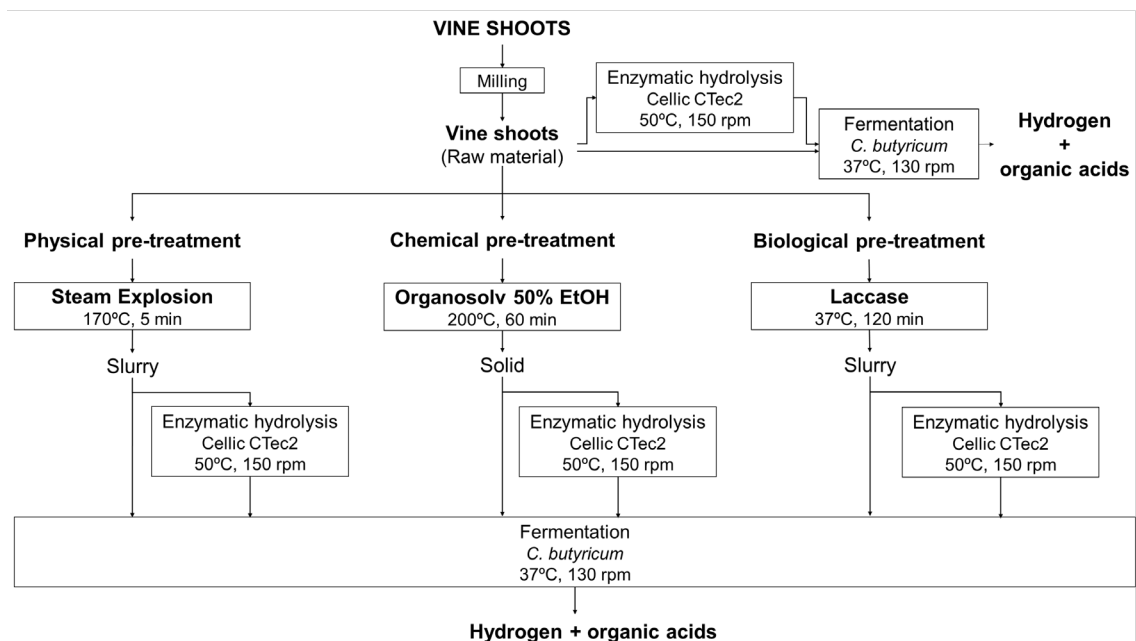
191 The organosolv chemical pre-treatment (OS) was carried out at 15% (w/v)
192 biomass and 50% (v/v) aqueous ethanol solution in a laboratory scale 1 L stirred tank
193 reactor (Parr[®] Instrument Company, Moline, IL, USA). Biomass and ethanol were added
194 to the reactor, which was closed and kept at 200 °C for 60 min under stirring. The OS
195 process conditions (200 °C, 60 min, no acid) were selected based on previous studies with
196 higher levels of delignification of wheat straw (Huijgen et al., 2012), olive stone (Padilla-
197 Rascón et al., 2022) and olive tree biomass (Díaz et al., 2011). The pre-treated biomass
198 was separated from the liquor by vacuum filtration, washed, characterized and used in the
199 fermentation assays. The liquor was discarded due to the harmful alcohol content for
200 bacterial growth.

201 The biological treatment was carried out with laccase enzymes (LAC) from
202 *Trametes versicolor* (Sigma-Aldrich[®] 38429) with activity 0.7 U/mg. Laccase was diluted
203 in 25 mL of citric-citrate buffer (pH 4) and added to the vine shoot flasks at a
204 concentration of 16.7 U/g-biomass, resulting in a 5% w/v ratio. The flasks were closed

205 with a plastic screw and incubated at 37 °C, 130 rpm for 120 min (optimized conditions
 206 by Rabelo et al., 2022). All slurry resulting from enzymatic hydrolysis (solid plus liquid)
 207 was used in the fermentation assays. A condition without vine shoots was performed as a
 208 control of the biological pre-treatment to verify the contribution of the enzyme as a
 209 substrate in the fermentation assays.

210 Enzymatic hydrolysis with enzyme cocktail of cellulase, β -glucosidase, and
 211 **hemicellulase** (Cellic[®] CTec2, Novozymes A/S, Bagsværd, Denmark) was tested in
 212 addition to the pre-treatments. The wet solid obtained in SE, the solid obtained in OS, as
 213 well as the slurry from LAC pre-treatment, were used as substrate for enzymatic
 214 hydrolysis. Briefly, each solid (5% w/v, in dry weight) was mixed with 0.05 M citric
 215 citrate buffer (pH 4.8) and the enzyme cocktail (15 FPU/g-dry biomass). For the
 216 biological pre-treatment slurry, the pH of the liquid was changed to 4.8 with the addition
 217 of sodium citrate, and the enzyme cocktail (15 FPU/g-dry biomass) was added. The
 218 enzymatic hydrolysis flasks were kept at 50 °C, 150 rpm for 72 h (Padilla-Rascón et al.,
 219 2022). For comparison purposes, enzymatic hydrolysis was also carried out on raw
 220 material. The hydrolysis efficiency was determined from glucose concentration values
 221 obtained from enzymatic hydrolysis and the glucose potential concentration in the vine
 222 shoots (pre-treated or raw material).

223 Fig. 1 illustrates a scheme of the strategies for the use of vine shoots as a substrate
 224 in the fermentative H₂ production.



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Fig. 1 Scheme summarizing the strategy used for the valorization of vine shoots for H₂ and organic acids production

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229 **2.3. Fermentative inoculum**

230 *Clostridium butyricum* was used as a fermentation inoculum in the H₂ production
231 assays. The pure culture was obtained from the Tropical Culture Collection (CCT7470)
232 of the André Tosello Foundation (Campinas SP, Brazil). Cells were reactivated in
233 Reinforced Clostridial Medium, according to the protocol provided by the Foundation,
234 following the steps detailed in Moura et al. (2020).

235 After 36h of growth, aliquots corresponding to 5.7 g-TVS/L were centrifuged
236 (1717 g-force/4 min), the supernatant was discarded and the pellet stored at -20 °C.

237

238 **2.4. Fermentative assays**

239 Fermentation assays for H₂ production were carried out in the same flasks as in
240 the enzymatic hydrolysis and/or pre-treatment step. The substrate assays were: vine
241 shoots (raw material), steam explosion pre-treated vine shoots (SE vine shoots),
242 organsolv pre-treated vine shoots (OS vine shoots) and laccase pre-treated vine shoots
243 (LAC vine shoots), in addition to pre-treated plus hydrolyzed vine shoots (hydrolyzed
244 raw material vine shoots, hydrolyzed SE vine shoots, hydrolyzed OS vine shoots and
245 hydrolyzed LAC vine shoots).

246 A previously autoclaved macronutrient solution (5.0 g/L meat extract, 1.5 g/L
247 yeast extract, 5.0 g/L peptone, 2.5 g/L NaCl and 1.5 g/L sodium acetate) was added to the
248 flasks, the pH was adjusted to 6.8 with NaOH, and the fermentative inoculum was added
249 last. The flasks (Isolab[®] flat bottom flask 100 mL, 50% reactional volume and 50%
250 headspace) were then subjected to an atmosphere of N₂ (100%) for 10 min, closed with a
251 silicone cap and plastic screw and incubated in an orbital shaker incubator at 37 °C, 130
252 rpm.

253 Fermentation control assays were conducted under the same conditions as
254 described, but (1) without vine shoots, (2) with laccase and without vine shoots, and (3)
255 with cellulase and without vine shoots, to verify whether the H₂ production can only be
256 derived by the macronutrients and/or enzymes addition.

257

258 **2.5. Analytical methods**

259 The determination of total volatile solids (TVS) of inoculum was performed
260 according to APHA (2012). Analysis of the production of soluble metabolites (volatile

261 fatty acids and monomeric carbohydrates) were determined by high performance liquid
262 chromatography (HPLC) (Padilla-Rascón et al., 2022).

263 Cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin in the **raw material** and recovered solid of pre-
264 treatment were carried out by gravimetric analysis in accordance with the protocol of the
265 National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL) (Sluiter et al., 2012) **and reported as**
266 **percentage of solid (g/100 g of raw material or g/100 g of pre-treated recovered-solids).**
267 **The values of solids recovery percentages after the SE, OS and LAC pre-treatments (97.2,**
268 **53.1 and 88.4%, respectively) were considered for the comparative calculations of the**
269 **pre-treated recovered-solids with the raw material.**

270 The H₂ headspace gas was determined by gas chromatography (GC 2010
271 Shimadzu® Corp., Kyoto, Japan) equipped with a Carboxen column (1010 PLOT 30 m x
272 0.32 mm and 0.3 µm film thickness), a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and argon as
273 the carrier gas and PAL® autosampler (Zwingen, Switzerland). The injector temperature
274 was 90 °C, in split mode (1:20) for 2 min. The injection volume was 40 µL. The oven
275 temperature was 130 °C for 4.2 min. A ramp of 30 °C/min until 135 °C, maintained for 2
276 min. The column flow was 1.2 mL/min. The detector was maintained at 180 °C,
277 employing at a current of 20 mA and a negative polarity.

278 Gaseous samples (1.0 mL) were collected directly from the headspace of the
279 reactors using a syringe with a push button valve and transferred to 2 mL vials with
280 vacuum. The vials were placed in the autosampler of the GC for analysis.

281 The H₂ data were adjusted to the modified Gompertz model (Zwietering et al.,
282 1990) which has been described as a suitable model for the adjustment of accumulated
283 biogas production data in batch experiments. **The model calculates the H₂ production**
284 **potential (*P*) based on the sigmoid curve obtained according to the H₂ concentration**
285 **versus time. In general, when the model is well adjusted (with R² close to 1) *P* is always**
286 **very close to the maximum value obtained experimentally.** According to the model
287 (Equation 1), it is possible to estimate the maximum H₂ production potential (*P*),
288 maximum H₂ production rate (*R_m*), and time of initial H₂ production (*λ*):

$$289 \quad H = P \cdot \exp \left\{ - \exp \left[\frac{R_m \cdot e}{P} (\lambda - t) + 1 \right] \right\} \quad (1)$$

290 where *H* is the cumulative H₂ production per unit of headspace volume (mL/L), *t*
291 is the operation time (h) and *e* is Euler number (2.71828). The parameters were calculated
292 using OriginPro 9.0 software (OriginLab Corp., Northampton, MA, USA).

293 The H₂ production values obtained from biomass with the different pre-treatments
 294 were statistically compared using Student's t distribution (two tailed, for paired samples).
 295 Differences were considered statistically significant when $p < 0.05$.

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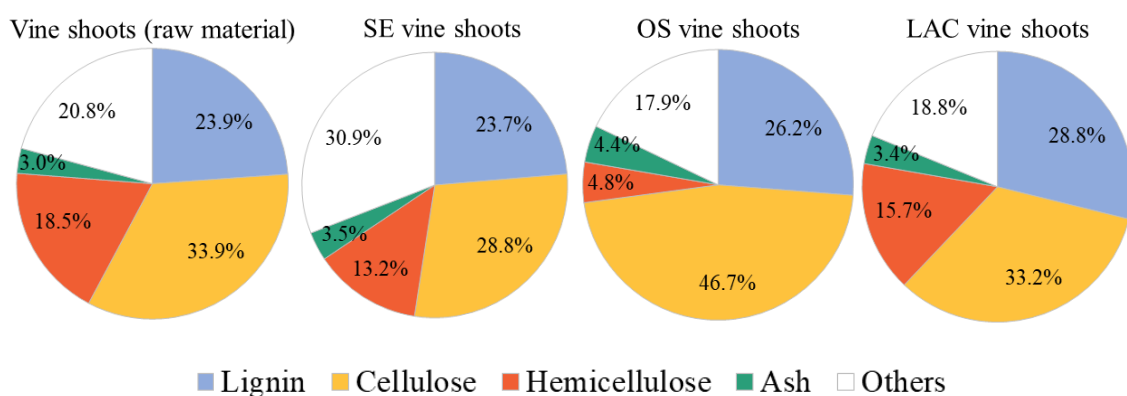
297 3. Results and discussion

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299 3.1. Structural analysis of pre-treated vine shoots

300 In the composition of the vine shoots, their content in structural carbohydrates
 301 stands out, mainly glucose (37.27%) and xylose (18.00%) which are the main constituents
 302 of the polysaccharides cellulose and hemicellulose, respectively. The complete chemical
 303 characterization of the raw vine shoots is presented in Table S1 (supplementary material).

304 According to the gravimetric analysis, the structural composition of vine shoots
 305 changed according to the applied pre-treatment (Fig. 2). Vine shoots raw material have a
 306 significant polysaccharide content (33.9% cellulose and 18.5% hemicellulose) in addition
 307 to 23.9% lignin. Due to this fermentable sugar content (52.4%), vine shoots are potential
 308 substrates in fermentative processes for the production of ethanol (Dávila et al., 2019;
 309 Senila et al., 2020) and methane (Pérez-Rodríguez et al., 2016). In order to compare the
 310 compositions of raw material and pre-treated **recovered-solid**, the structural composition
 311 of pre-treated vine shoots was expressed as a percentage in relation to the total **solid**
 312 content (and not in relation to the raw material biomass).



313

314 **Fig 2. Composition of raw material and steam explosion (SE), organosolv**
 315 **(OS) and laccase (LAC) pre-treated recovered-solids. Values are expressed as a**
 316 **percentage of dry weight.**

317

318 A slight decrease in the contents of structural polysaccharides (28.8% cellulose
 319 and 13.2% hemicellulose) was observed with the physical SE pre-treatment, probably

320 resulting from their solubilization due to **the low severity conditions** of the SE system
321 **(Jacquet et al., 2011)**. In addition, a **similar** proportion of lignin **was obtained** in the pre-
322 treated **recovered-solids (23.7%)**.

323 With the addition of organosolvent in the chemical pre-treatment (OS), there was
324 a marked decrease in the hemicellulose content (4.8%) and an increase in the cellulose
325 content in the biomass (46.7%). The main objective of OS pre-treatment is the
326 solubilization of lignin from biomass, along with hemicellulose. As a result, a significant
327 increase in cellulose content is observed. As in the present study, Padilla et al. (2022)
328 observed a significant increase in cellulose content (from 21.0 to 31.7%), hemicellulose
329 solubilization (from 24.8 to 7.3%) and an increase in lignin content (from 32.9 to 49.5%)
330 after organosolv pre-treatment of olive stones. The increase in lignin content observed in
331 OS biomass is related to the decrease in hemicellulose content (in %) of the cell fiber and
332 not to its quantitative increase.

333 After the biological LAC pre-treatment, few alterations were observed in the fiber
334 composition of the biomass, since the contents of the LAC vine shoots (33.2% cellulose,
335 15.7% hemicellulose and 28.8% lignin) were close to those of raw material biomass
336 (33.9% cellulose, 18.5% hemicellulose and 23.9% lignin). Similar results were obtained
337 in the study conducted by Suman et al. (2022) with biomass of jute rods. The composition
338 of biomass pre-treated with laccase (45.9% cellulose, 8.5% hemicellulose and 25.8%
339 lignin) was similar to that of raw material biomass (44.9% cellulose, 9.7% hemicellulose
340 and 26.1% lignin). However, the authors observed a difference in the spectra of treated
341 and untreated samples by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy analysis. There was a
342 decrease in the OH functional group induced by the formation of active radicals due to
343 electron delocalization, in addition to an increase in free CH₂ groups indicating ring
344 opening in lignin compounds. Furthermore, according to porosity studies carried out by
345 Rajak et al. (2018), after enzymatic pre-treatment of kans grass biomass, changes in
346 biomass properties are directly related to the action of enzymes, since the authors
347 observed changes in surface area, decrease in pore size and pore volume of enzymatically
348 pre-treated biomass. Thus, in the LAC pre-treatment of vine shoots, although no changes
349 were observed in the gravimetric analysis, changes in the lignin functional groups and
350 changes in properties of the biomass may have occurred due to enzymatic pre-treatment.

351 **Random laccase attack forms radical products that can undergo further oxidation**
352 **or undergo other reactions such as hydration, disproportionation, or polymerization**
353 **reactions (Gonzalo et al., 2016)**. Chen et al. (2012) observed the degradation and

354 depolymerization of lignin in laccase-treated ensiled corn stover by
355 tetramethylammonium hydroxide thermochemolysis and gas chromatography–mass
356 spectroscopy analysis. Molecular signals of lignin decomposition were observed by the
357 increasing ratios of acids to aldehydes, demonstrating evidence that the laccase system
358 induces significant oxidation of the lignin side chain.

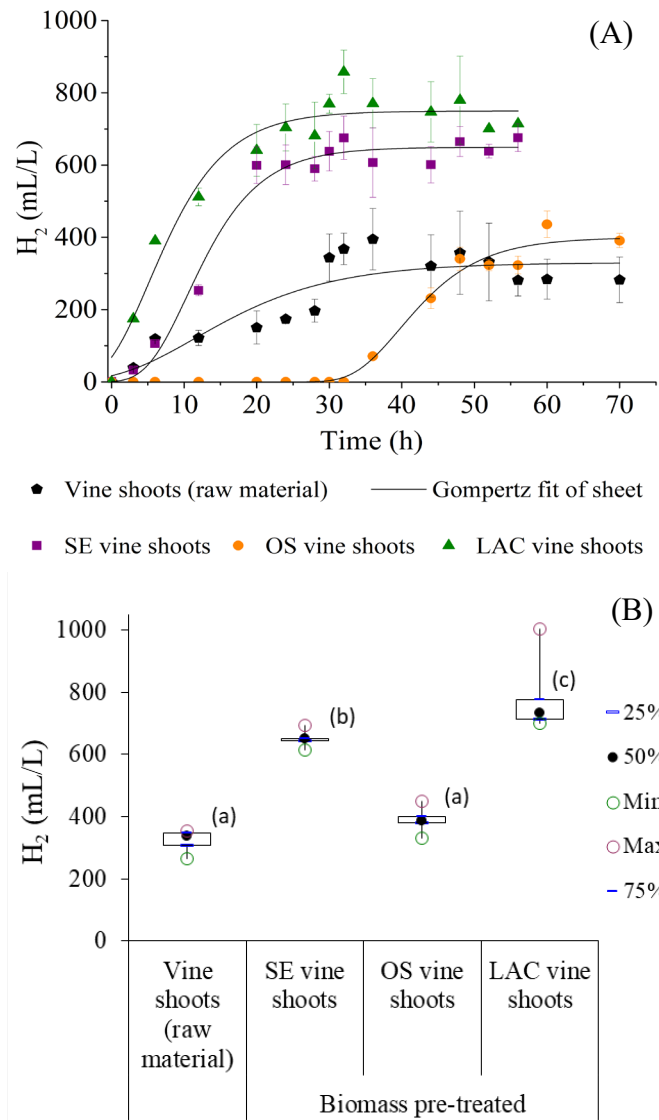
359 Alterations in the cell wall structure were also examined by polarized optical
360 microscopy, which displayed the scattered cellulose building block (microfibrils) in
361 wheat straw pre-treated by laccase, compared with the tightly arranged microfibrils in
362 untreated control straw (Lu et al., 2010). In sugarcane bagasse pre-treated with laccase,
363 fibers with a more irregular structure and more indentations were also observed by
364 scanning electron microscopy (Rabelo et al., 2022). Therefore, in the vine shoots pre-
365 treatment, although a decrease in lignin content was not quantified in gravimetric
366 analysis, the pre-treatment by laccase may have caused re-localization of lignin (Masran
367 et al., 2016), causing a structure modification, rather than lignin removal, which also
368 contributes to the digestibility and accessibility of the cellulose for hydrolysis and
369 fermentation (Kristensen et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2010).

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371 **3.2. Effect of vine shoots pre-treatments on H₂ production**

372 The relation between the biomass pre-treatment and the increase in fermentative
373 products is an indirect approach. With pre-treatment, whether physical, chemical or
374 biological, the degree of biomass polymerization is reduced, which provides an increase
375 in accessible surface area for the cellulose hydrolysis (Zhang et al., 2023). As a result,
376 there is an increase **in the concentration of soluble sugars** that will be converted in greater
377 amounts into H₂ (Rabelo et al., 2022), ethanol (Fang et al., 2015) and/or volatile fatty
378 acids (VFA) (Rabelo et al., 2018).

379 The H₂ production potential increased from pre-treated vine shoots (649.4, 399.8,
380 and 749.7 mL/L for SE, OS, and LAC pre-treatments, respectively) relative to raw
381 material biomass (300.1 mL/L) (Fig. 3A).



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Fig 3. (A): H₂ production from raw material and pre-treated vine shoots by steam explosion (ES), organosolv (OS), and laccase (LAC). (B): Boxplots of H₂ production (mL/L) from raw material and pre-treated vine shoots. Different lowercase letters indicate significant differences at the $p < 0.05$ level (n = 5).

388

A hydrolysis of glycosidic bonds in the hemicelluloses and, to a lesser extent, in the cellulose of biomass are achieved in the physical pre-treatment by steam explosion. A cleavage of hemicellulose-lignin bonds can also occur. Thereby, cellulose with a reduced degree of polymerization (DP) is obtained in the solid residue (Li et al., 2007).

392

In the case of sugarcane straw, 92.7% of hemicellulose solubilization was obtained with steam explosion (200 °C/15 min), but it required an alkaline pre-treatment (NaOH, 100 °C/1 h) to achieve lignin solubilization (81.3%) (Oliveira et al., 2013). Wanderley et al. (2013) also evaluated alkaline delignification (NaOH, 100 °C/1 h) before steam explosion pre-treatment (200 °C/7 min) of sugarcane bagasse. The authors reported

396

397 a decrease from 25.8% to 8.9% in hemicellulose content after steam explosion, and no
398 removal of cellulose and lignin. 84% lignin removal was achieved with the previous
399 alkaline delignification. Hydrolysis and fermentation of the solid pre-treated with NaOH
400 and steam explosion resulted in a 450% increase in ethanol production (23.38 g/L)
401 compared with the solid pre-treated with steam explosion alone (5.21 g/L) (Wanderley et
402 al., 2013).

403 In the present study, a previous chemical treatment was not carried out before the
404 steam explosion so as to have no separation of solid and liquid phases and thus use all the
405 slurry for fermentation. Therefore, as expected for biomass pre-treated by steam
406 explosion (with recuperation of 97.2%), a decrease in pre-treated recovered-solid was
407 observed with hemicellulose (30.6%) and cellulose (17.5%) contents, but not in the lignin
408 content, in reference to raw material. These changes in the structure of the vine shoots
409 due to the steam explosion were favorable to the fermentation of the biomass, since more
410 than 216.4% of H₂ was produced (649.4 mL/L) than raw material vine shoots (300.1
411 mL/L).

412 Organosolv pre-treatment has been evaluated as an effective method for high-
413 lignin lignocellulosic biomass such as olive stones (lignin, 35.6%) (Padilla-Rascón et al.,
414 2022), sugarcane bagasse (lignin, 27.2%) (Mesa et al., 2010) and empty fruit bunches
415 (lignin, 24.0%) (Alriols et al., 2009). In the case of vine shoots (lignin, 23.9%), due to the
416 pre-treatment conditions (organic solvent at high temperatures), in addition to the
417 solubilization of lignin (43.6% in relation to raw material biomass), there was also
418 solubilization of hemicellulose (86.1%) and cellulose (26.8%), with 53.1% solid
419 recuperation. However, the changes in the cell fiber were not enough to increase the
420 bacterial hydrolysis/fermentation, since the 133.2% more H₂ produced from the OS vine
421 shoots (399.8 mL/L) were not statistically significant in relation to raw material biomass
422 (300.1 mL/L) (Fig. 3B).

423 The following aspects were observed regarding the use of OS vine shoots: The
424 production of H₂ took longer to start (λ , 39.7h for OS vine shoots, while 11.6h for raw
425 material vine shoots, 10.4h for SE vine shoots and 5.2h for LAC vine shoots), this was
426 probably given the need for an additional step of bacterial hydrolysis of cellulose, and a
427 lower amount of H₂ produced (399.8 mL/L) in relation to the other pre-treated biomass,
428 probably due to the loss of readily available sugars for the liquid fraction. The purpose of
429 laccase pre-treatment is also the biomass delignification. However, no decrease in LAC
430 vine shoots lignin content was observed after laccase pre-treatment. Laccase has already

431 been applied to different types of biomass, such as sugarcane bagasse (Dionizio et al.,
432 2022), wheat straw (Moreno et al., 2012), sweet sorghum straw (Shanmugam et al., 2018)
433 and corn stover (Fang et al., 2015) for delignification, which resulted in increased
434 production of H₂ (Dionizio et al., 2022) or ethanol (Fang et al., 2015). In the present study,
435 laccase was applied for the first time in vine shoots, and there was a significant increase
436 in the amount of H₂ produced (from 300.1 to 749.7 mL/L). In the control assay (with
437 laccase and without vine shoots) no H₂ was produced.

438 The greatest increase in the amount of H₂ was obtained with the vine shoots pre-
439 treated (249.8, 216.4 and 133.2% with LAC, SE and OS, respectively), in relation to the
440 raw material biomass. The disruption of the vine shoots fibers by pre-treatments is
441 essential to increase the production of biofuels, as well as other biomass consolidated as
442 substrates in fermentative processes (Table 1).

443

Table 1: Pre-treated biomass used as a substrate for biofuels production

Biomass	Pre-treatment Physical (P), Chemical (C) or Biological (B)	Goal of pre-treatment	Increase in the biomass conversion into biofuels	Reference
Pulp and paper biosludge	(B) Protease	Degradation of the extracellular polymeric substances matrix	Biogas 26%	Bonilla et al., 2018
Food waste	(P) Mechanical pre-treatment	Increased surface area available to microorganisms	CH ₄ 28%	Izumi et al., 2010
Corn stover	(B) Cellulase	Disruption of surface structure and degradation of cellulose	Biogas 36.9%	Wang et al., 2018
Barley straw and wheat straw	(P) Mechanical pre-treatment	It does not produce inhibitory or toxic substances	CH ₄ 54.2% and 83.5%	Menardo et al., 2012
Corn stover	(C/F/B) H ₂ SO ₄ + steam explosion + laccase	Removes a small part of the lignin, depolymerizes cellulose and hemicellulose	Ethanol 111%	Fang et al., 2015
Paper industry wastes	(C) H ₂ SO ₄	Simplicity, no special equipment required, and less time consuming	H ₂ 179%	Moreno-Dávila et al., 2017
Sugarcane bagasse	(B) Laccase	Alteration of the lignocellulosic matrix	H ₂ 184%	Rabelo et al., 2022
<i>Sida hermaphrodita</i> and <i>Miscanthus giganteus</i>	(C) NaOH	High delignification level and significant hemicellulose degradation	CH ₄ 146.7% and 194.7%	Michalska et al., 2015
Sugarcane bagasse	(B) Laccase	Improved delignification, maximizing biomass fermentation	H ₂ 196.1%	Dionizio et al., 2020
Sugarcane bagasse	(C/F) H ₂ O ₂ assisted hydrothermal	Residue rich in cellulose content	CH ₄ 218.7%	Ahmad et al., 2018
Sweet sorghum stover	(B) Laccase	Delignification in an eco-friendly and precise manner	H ₂ 326%	Shanmugam et al., 2018
Vine shoots	(F) Steam explosion	Solubilization of cellulose and hemicellulose	H ₂ 216.4%	Present study
Vine shoots	(C) Organosolv	Biomass delignification	H ₂ 133.2%	Present study
Vine shoots	(B) Laccase	Structural changes in cell fiber	H ₂ 249.8%	Present study

3.3. Effect of enzymatic hydrolysis of vine shoots pre-treated on H₂ production

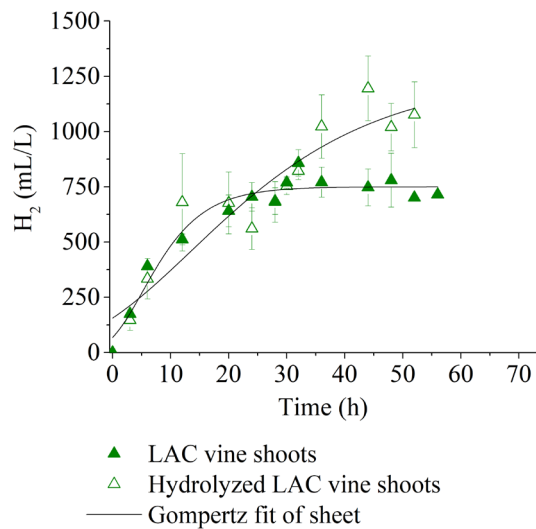
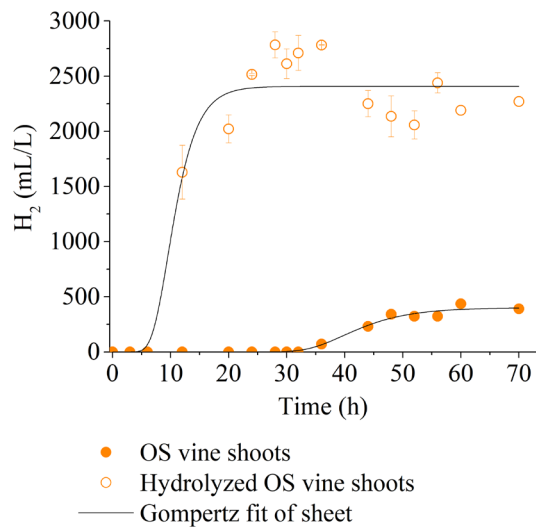
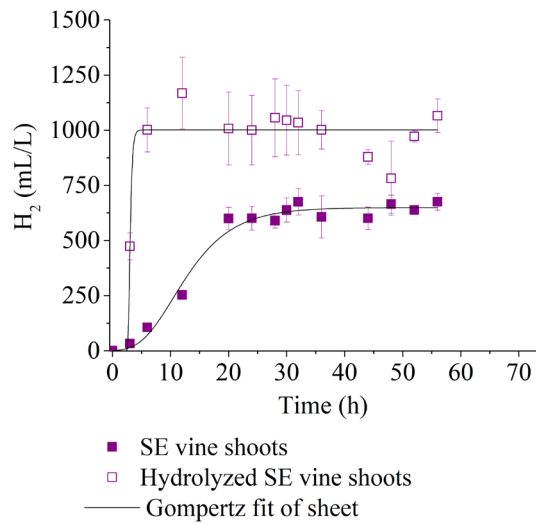
The pre-treated vine shoots were submitted to enzymatic hydrolysis by a cellulase complex and there was saccharification of the substrate into glucose. Saccharification efficiency varied according to the type of vine shoots pre-treatment, from 3.5% for raw material biomass, 7.3% for LAC vine shoots, 53.1% for SE vine shoots and 77.0% for OS vine shoots (Table S2).

The use of laccase as a pre-treatment of vine shoots increased the amount of glucose converted from biomass by 184% (from 1.3 to 2.4 g/100g vine shoots). However, the efficiency of the enzymatic hydrolysis of LAC vine shoots was low (7.3%) compared with other pre-treated biomass (53.1% with SE vine shoots and 77.0% with OS vine shoots). The increase in the concentration of soluble sugars as a result of biomass pre-treatment by laccase has been reported before (Rabelo et al., 2022; Sherpa et al., 2018), and is related to the deconstruction of lignin and exposure of hemicellulose and amorphous regions of cellulose, resulting in the release of sugars that were entangled in the cellular fiber, to the liquid medium. These modifications in biomass structure can enhance bacterial hydrolysis that precedes fermentation of lignocellulosic materials (Dionizio et al., 2022), such as vine shoots. Therefore, even with some initial amount of soluble sugars present, an increase in soluble sugars may result from the hydrolysis of cellulose and hemicellulose. Monitoring the concentration of soluble sugars throughout the incubation period of batch reactors was one of the objectives of the work of Rabelo et al. (2018) during the fermentation of sugarcane bagasse in H₂. The authors confirmed the concomitant increase and decrease of sugar concentration during fermentation. Accordingly, in the present study, the initial amount of soluble sugars reported in Table 2 may have increased over time due to bacterial hydrolysis of vine shoots, making it impractical to calculate the H₂ yield based on the molar ratio between the H₂ produced and the glucose initially present. Thus, even with low enzymatic yield, structural changes and depolymerization of LAC vine shoots were favorable for hydrolysis and fermentation, since 184% more soluble sugars were solubilized from the biomass and 213.3% more H₂ was produced (1252.9 mL/L), in relation to the hydrolyzed raw material biomass (587.4 mL/L).

According to Ruiz et al. (2008), the efficiency of enzymatic hydrolysis of pre-treated steam explosion biomass improved with increasing pre-treatment temperature. At 220 °C steam explosion of sunflower stalks, the hydrolysis efficiency was 72%. If, on the one hand, there is an increase in the efficiency of enzymatic hydrolysis due to the

480 solubilization of the hemicellulose and an increase in the cellulose content of the fiber,
481 on the other hand, the increase in temperature implies an increase in cost and an increase
482 in the formation of lignin degradation products, which may be fermentation inhibitors and
483 need to detoxify the pre-treated liquor (Romero-García et al., 2022). For the steam
484 explosion of vine shoots, 170 °C was used in the system and 53.1% of efficiency was
485 achieved in the enzymatic hydrolysis, however there was no generation of products that
486 inhibit fermentation, and all pre-treated slurry of SE pre-treatment (solid plus liquid) was
487 used as substrate for fermentation without the need for an additional detoxification step.

488 The highest enzymatic efficiency was achieved with the OS vine shoots (77.0%),
489 certainly a consequence of the solubilization of the lignin and hemicellulose components
490 and greater cellulose recovery in biomass (46.7%) for enzymatic hydrolysis. H₂
491 production from hydrolyzed biomass increased proportionally to the enzymatic
492 hydrolysis yields, with the highest production also with hydrolyzed OS vine shoots
493 (2406.5 mL H₂/L) (Fig. 4). In the control assay (with cellulase and without vine shoots)
494 no H₂ was produced.



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497

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Fig 4. H₂ production from pre-treated vine shoots by steam explosion (SE), organosolv (OS) and laccase (LAC), and hydrolyzed pre-treated vine shoots.

499 The **volume** of H₂ produced increased in all fermentation assays in which
500 hydrolyzed pre-treated vine shoots were used as substrate in relation to non-hydrolyzed
501 biomass. An increase of 154.4 and 167.1% in the amount of H₂ using SE biomass and
502 LAC biomass were produced with the respective hydrolyzed biomass (1001.2 and 1252.9
503 mL H₂/L, respectively) in relation to the non-hydrolyzed biomass (649.4 and 749.7 mL
504 H₂/L, respectively). However, the sharp increase in H₂ production after hydrolysis was
505 with fermentation of OS vine shoots (over 600%). With the hydrolyzed OS vine shoots
506 2406.5 mL/L were produced, **compared with** 399.8 mL/L with the non-hydrolyzed
507 biomass.

508 All H₂ production results obtained from the vine shoots fermentation, adjusted
509 according to the modified Gompertz model, are shown in Table S3.

510 In general, the fermentation of various types of hydrolyzed biomass produces
511 greater amounts of H₂, due to the availability of readily fermentable sugars for conversion
512 to H₂. Tang et al. (2013) studied fermentative H₂ production using different enzymatic
513 hydrolysates pre-treated of corn cob, but obtained similar H₂ production independent of
514 substrate pre-treatment. The authors reported 1215, 1184 and 1220 ml H₂/L when
515 enzymatic hydrolyzed pre-treated with acid steam explosion, alkali soaking and steam
516 explosion were used as substrate, respectively. Ren et al. (2010) reported the best
517 performance of H₂ production (2430.4 mL/L) from hydrolyzed corn stover. The substrate
518 underwent the first delignification with 2% NaOH and then hydrolyzed by cellulase and
519 xylanase.

520 It is clearly observed that when using hydrolyzed vine shoots as substrate, the H₂
521 production (749.7 to 2406.5 mL/L) obtained from this study is comparable or higher than
522 other hydrolyzed biomass already used as substrate (Table 2). Therefore, the H₂
523 production can also be one of the products with biotechnological interest obtained from
524 vine shoots and/or hydrolyzed vine shoot.

Table 2: H₂ production from hydrolyzed biomass

Biomass	Pre-treatment	Hydrolysis	Total sugar (g/L) ^a	Glucose (g/L) ^a	Inoculum fermentative	H ₂ (b)	H ₂ (mL/L)	Reference
Corn stover	Alkali (NaOH)	Cellulase and xylanase	15.1	11.2	<i>Thermoanaerobacterium thermosaccharolyticum</i>	108.5 mmol/L	2430.4	Ren et al., 2010
Rice mill wastewater	Thermic (Autoclave)	<i>Aspergillus niger</i> enzymes	15.8	12.3	<i>E. aerogenes</i>	3480 mL	6960	Ramprakash and Muthukumar, 2014
Apple pomace	Acid (HCl)	Cellulase	-	-	River sludge	134.04 mL/g TS	178.7	Wang et al., 2010
Sugarcane bagasse	-	Acid hydrolysis	11.3	1.5	Elephant dung	1314.08 mL/L	1314.1	Fangkum and Reungsang, 2011
Waste paper	Acid (H ₂ SO ₄)	Acid hydrolysis	18.9	-	Anaerobic sludge	125.9 mL	1258.9	Eker and Sarp, 2016
Corn cob	Acid steam explosion	Cellulase	5.1	3.3	<i>C. hydrogeniproducens</i>	1215 mL/L	1215	Tang et al., 2013
Corn cob	Alkali soaking	Cellulase	6.1	3.6	<i>C. hydrogeniproducens</i>	1184 mL/L	1184	Tang et al., 2013
Corn cob	Steam explosion	Cellulase	4.7	2.8	<i>C. hydrogeniproducens</i>	1220 mL/L	1220	Tang et al., 2013
Wheat flour	-	Glucoamylase	-	35.1	Anaerobic sludge	2379.6 ml	1586.4	Han et al., 2015
Corn stover	Washing and grinding	Acid hydrolysis	5	0.9	Anaerobic granular sludge	821.8 mL/L	821.8	Zhang et al., 2015
Vine shoots	Laccase	Cellulase	1.9	1.3	<i>C. butyricum</i>	1252.9 mL/L	1252.9	Present study
Vine shoots	Steam explosion	Cellulase	7.2	5.7	<i>C. butyricum</i>	1001.2 mL/L	1001.2	Present study
Vine shoots	Organosolv	Cellulase	25.9	22.0	<i>C. butyricum</i>	2406.5 mL/L	2406.5	Present study

^a In hydrolysate, after hydrolysis^b Unit reported by the author

3.4. Metabolites redistribution during fermentation of vine shoots and hydrolyzed vine shoots

During the hydrolyzed vine shoots fermentation, H₂ production was accompanied by production of metabolic products, mainly butyric acid and acetic acid, typical mixed acid fermentation pathway of *Clostridium butyricum* (Rainey, 2009). As in other works (Gupta et al., 2014; Rabelo et al., 2020), the substrate type regulated the formation of the final product (acetic or butyric acid). Rabelo et al. (2020) observed greater production of acetic acid (2.9 g/L) with glucose fermentation, and greater production of butyric acid (2.8 g/L) with cellulose fermentation by *Paraclostridium* sp. The metabolic pathway of *C. butyricum* was altered due to the type of pre-treated biomass, since acetic acid was the main metabolite observed with hydrolyzed SE vine shoots and hydrolyzed LAC vine shoots (3.2 and 9.7 g/L, respectively), and butyric acid was the main acid observed in hydrolyzed OS vine shoots fermentation (11.4 g/L).

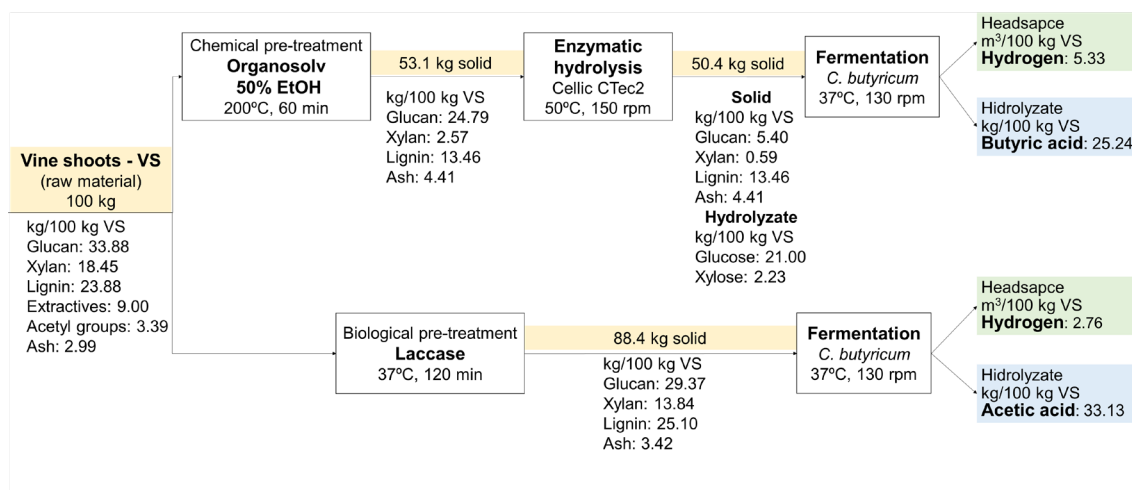
The mixed acid pathway also occurred in the fermentation of pre-treated vine shoots, but like the H₂ production, the production of soluble metabolites was lower than in the fermentation of hydrolyzed biomass. In SE vine shoots and LAC vine shoots, acetic acid was the main metabolite observed (2.7 and 9.0 g/L, respectively), while in OS vine shoots, butyric acid was the most produced (9.7 g/L) (Fig. S1).

The fermentative production of butyric acid from renewable raw materials has been widely studied due to increasing demands in the pharmaceutical and food industries (Fu et al., 2022) and environmental and sustainable concerns with its chemical production (Oh et al., 2019). Butyric acid production (5.8 g/L) from sugarcane bagasse was reported by Rabelo et al. (2020) during the H₂ production with *Paraclostridium* as inoculum and by Dionizio et al. (2022) with *C. butyricum* (4.7 g butyric acid/L). However, those previous reports, like the present study, did not focus on the optimization of butyric acid production, but on the H₂ production.

Butyric acid production values are higher when the study objective is the effective production of this acid. To increase the production of butyric acid, Chi et al. (2018) added *C. tyrobutyricum* as inoculum and obtained an increase from 5.53 to 18.05 g/L with the culture addition. Oh et al. (2019) demonstrated that mixed biomass with alga and rice straw was effective as substrate in butyric acid production (14.77 g/L) with *C. tyrobutyricum*. Fu et al. (2022) determined optimal fermentation parameters (37 °C, 5 g/L of yeast extract, pH 6.0 and 80 g/L of substrate) for the production of butyric acid (21.72 g/L) from raw cassava starch and *C. butyricum* SCUT620 as inoculum.

561 In the present study, the redistribution of metabolites was directly related to the
 562 pre-treatment strategies, obtaining the highest butyric acid production of 11.4 g/L with
 563 OS hydrolyzed vine shoots. In this sense, the increase of butyric acid production is
 564 another possibility of using vine shoots in fermentation processes, especially with the
 565 biomass pretreated by organosolvent.

566 The mass balance and the obtained yields from vine shoots fermentation are
 567 shown in detail in Fig. 5. The conditions that include the use of LAC vine shoots and
 568 hydrolyzed OS vine shoots were considered for the mass balance, since the highest yields
 569 of fermentative products (H₂ and organic acids) were achieved. For comparative
 570 purposes, the yield considered the recovery of the material after the respective pre-
 571 treatments (88.4% for laccase and 53.1% for organosolv) and were calculated from 100
 572 kg of raw material.



573
 574 **Fig 5: Mass balance obtained through the fermentation from hydrolyzed pre-**
 575 **treated organosolv vine shoots and pre-treated laccase vine shoots**

577 4. Conclusion

578 The strategy proposed in this work allows, for the first time, the valorization of
 579 vine shoots in fermentative processes for the production of biological H₂ and also organic
 580 acids (acetic and butyric). The amount of H₂ produced increased by 216.4, 133.2 and
 581 249.8% after physical, chemical and biological pre-treatments of vine shoots, in relation
 582 to *in nature* biomass. With hydrolysis of pre-treated biomass, H₂ production was even
 583 higher (1001.2, 2406.5 and 1252.9 mL H₂/L with hydrolyzed SE, OS and LAC vine
 584 shoots, respectively). Therefore, in order to obtain higher H₂ production from vine shoots,
 585 pre-treatment with laccase was the most effective (749.7 mL/L). If one considers the
 586 addition of the enzymatic hydrolysis step, organosolv was the most effective (2406.5

587 mL/L). The mixed acid pathway was predominant in all conditions, since acetic and
588 butyric acids were produced. The maximum value of butyric acid was 11.4 g/L with
589 hydrolyzed OS vine shoots.

590 There are several significant points in the overall process that can be exploited
591 and optimized to increase the H₂ and/or soluble metabolites production. In fact, vine
592 shoots can be used as substrates in fermentation processes, and the importance of pre-
593 treatment of the biomass was verified. Thus, from this first study that addresses the H₂
594 production from vine shoots, the optimization of parameters (namely, solid-liquid ratio,
595 evaluation of severity of the SE process, reduction/reuse of liquid waste in OS pre-
596 treatment, optimization of laccase addition for biological pre-treatment) will be the
597 continuation of experimental work with vine shoots to increase H₂ production before
598 important scale-up and technical-economic and environmental evaluations.

599

600 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

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

604

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858

860 **Supplementary material**

861

862 **Vine shoots pre-treatment strategies for improved hydrogen production and**
863 **metabolites redistribution in *Clostridium butyricum***

864

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S1. Results and Discussion

878

Table S1 contains the chemical characterization of the raw vine shoots.

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Table S1: Composition of raw material (%)

Composition	g/100 g vine shoots (dry basis) Mean values of three replicates ± standard deviation
Cellulose ^a	33.88 ± 1.04
Glucose	37.27 ± 0.24
Hemicellulose ^b	18.45 ± 0.43
Xylose	18.00 ± 0.32
Galactose	1.47 ± 0.11
Arabinose	0.81 ± 0.08
Mannose	0.52 ± 0.03
Total lignin	23.88 ± 0.53
Acid insoluble lignin (AIL)	22.11 ± 0.53
Acid soluble lignin (ASL)	1.77 ± 0.04
Ash	2.99 ± 0.03
Others	
Acetyl groups	3.39 ± 0.04
Galacturonic acid	1.06 ± 0.09
Extractives	9.00 ± 0.36
Glucose in extractives	0.77 ± 0.03

Mean values of three replicates ± SD

^a as glucose^b as hemicellulose sugars

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883 Saccharification efficiency varied according to the type of vine shoots pre-
 884 treatment (Table S2).

885

886 **Table S2:** Efficiency of saccharification of vine shoots

Vine shoots	g glucose/100 g vine shoots	Efficiency ^a (%)	Yield ^b (%)
Raw material	1.3	3.5	3.5
Pre-treated by laccase	2.4	7.3	6.3
Pre-treated steam explosion	11.5	53.1	31.0
Pre-treated organosolv	21.0	77.0	56.3

^a in relation to theoretical of glucose in pre-treated material

^b in relation to theoretical of glucose in raw material

887

888 All results obtained from the vine shoots fermentation, H₂ production (*P*), H₂
 889 production rate (*Rm*) and H₂ production start time (λ), adjusted according to the modified
 890 Gompertz model, are shown in Table S3.

891

892 **Table S3:** H₂ production parameters adjusted by modified Gompertz model for vine
 893 shoots fermentation **and in terms of productivity (m³ H₂/100 kg biomass)**

	<i>P</i> (mL/L)	<i>Rm</i> (mL/L.h)	λ (h)	R ²	m ³ H ₂ /100 kg biomass
Vine shoots (raw material)	300.12	0.09	11.59	0.77	1.3
SE vine shoots	649.4	0.18	10.43	0.98	2.7
Hydrolysed SE vine shoots	1001.2	3.78	2.92	0.9	4.2
OS vine shoots	399.77	0.16	39.73	0.98	1.7
Hydrolysed OS vine shoots	2406.5	0.36	9.57	0.93	10.0
LAC vine shoots	749.74	0.17	5.17	0.95	3.1
Hydrolysed LAC vine shoots	1252.9	0.05	13.6	0.86	5.2

SE: Steam explosion physical pre-treatment, OS: organosolv chemical pre-treatment,
 LAC: Laccase biological pre-treatment

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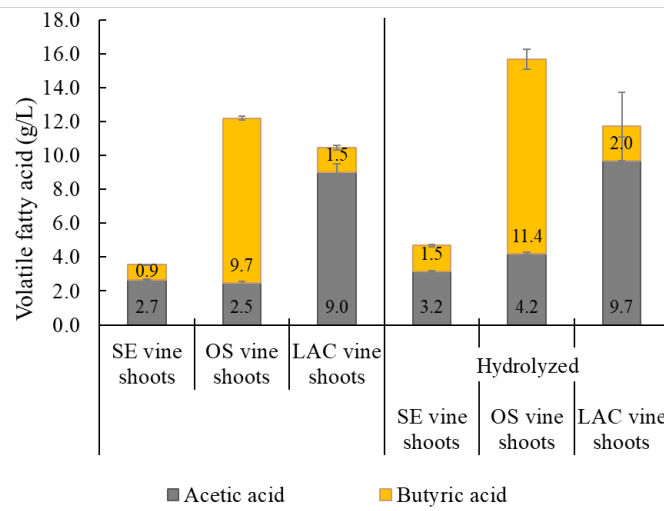
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899 Production of acetic and butyric acids by *Clostridium butyricum* during vine
900 shoots fermentation is shown in Fig. S1.



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Fig. S1: Acetic and butyric acids produced during fermentation of pre-treated vine shoots and hydrolyzed pre-treated vine shoots.