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| 1 | Co-production of ethanol-hydrogen by genetically engineered Escherichia coli in | | | | | | | | | | | |
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24 Abstract

This work shows the impact of the hydrogen and ethanol co-production -via dark 25 fermentation-using a genetically modified Escherichia coli in the environmental and 26 27 economic sustainability of a lignocellulose-based biorefinery. Wheat straw (WS) and corn stover (CS) were used as feedstock pretreated with either a dilute acid pretreatment (DAP) 28 or an autohydrolysis followed by very-dilute acid pretreatment (AH-VDAP) to compare the 29 30 effect of the lignocellulosic matrix and the pretreatment as strategies for obtaining rich hemicellulosic hydrolysates, which were used as substrate in the dark fermentation 31 32 experiments. Further, their impact on the profitability was determined on biorefinery conceptual designs incorporating the experimental results of the pretreatment and dark 33 34 fermentation stages. The dark fermentation stage contributed with 20% to 30% of the total ethanol production in the lignocellulose-based biorefinery designs proposed in this work. 35 Techno economic and sustainability analyses established that the biorefinery design using 36 37 WS as feedstock and employing AH-VDAP presented the lowest negative environmental 38 impact with the lowest Total Production Cost. The results show that co-production schemes 39 could be an alternative for lignocellulosic ethanol biorefineries.

40

41 **Keywords:** lignocellulosic biomass; biorefineries; dark fermentation; metabolic

42 engineering; techno economic analysis; sustainability analysis

43 1 Introduction

One of the most urgent and important challenges of this century is averting global warming 44 whilst satisfying the growing energy demands of humankind. Renewable energies (e.g. 45 solar, wind and biofuels) seems to be the most promising alternatives to address this 46 challenge [1]. Therefore, the design, development, and optimisation of sustainable 47 biorefineries for the efficient production of biofuels are needed to duly provide society with 48 49 this renewable energy source [2,3]. A biorefinery is a facility in which biomass is converted into marketable products and energy using multistep processing approaches [4]. 50 51 Lignocellulose is a sustainable and world-wide available biomass, thus a suitable feedstock for biorefining purposes [5,6]. Wheat straw (WS) and corn stover (CS) are lignocellulosic 52 biomasses (LCB) with potential as feed-stocks for producing bioenergy and high value 53 added products [7] since they are the most abundant agricultural residues worldwide. The 54 annual global production of these residuals is around 0.5 and 1 billion tons, respectively 55 [8,9]. Their glucan and xylan pools represents a significant potential source of glucose and 56 57 xylose [10,11]. These carbohydrates, after being pretreated and hydrolysed [12], produce biofuels (e.g., alcohols or hydrogen) by different fermentation strategies. Among them, 58 dark fermentation has been extensively studied, concluding that high yields and 59 60 productivities as well as low production costs are required to achieve profitable industrialscale production [13–15]. Genetically modified microorganisms with redesigned metabolic 61 systems have been hailed as a possible solution since they can improve yield and 62 productivity, thus reducing CAPEX and OPEX [16–18]. In particular, *Escherichia coli* is 63 the most convenient onset to engineering microbial catalysts for biofuel production owing 64 to extensive knowledge of its genetic and metabolism [19,20]. Among those biofuels 65 produced using microbial fermentation, hydrogen has gained interest because its eco-66

friendly nature and energy content (120 kJ/g), as well as ethanol due to mature production 67 technology and its well established existing fuel market [16,21]. E. coli is capable to co-68 produce hydrogen and ethanol through dark fermentation from pentoses and hexoses 69 70 (analytical grade), as well as from hemicellulose hydrolisates? [22,23]. This is because oxidative decarboxylation of pyruvate to produce acetyl-CoA and formate. Therefore, the 71 72 co-production of hydrogen and ethanol can be more profitable than their production in 73 separate fermentation stages [24]. Moreover, co-production schemes can improve the energy balance of the biorefinery designs [25,26]. 74

75 This work studies the impact of hydrogen and ethanol co-production from hemicellulose -76 via dark fermentation– using a genetically modified E. coli strain in the sustainability of a 77 biorefinery producing ethanol and hydrogen using lignocellulosic biomass. Two types of 78 lignocellulosic biomass, which were subject to two different pretreatment methods to obtain hemicellulose-rich hydrolysates, and then used in the dark fermentation as substrate. 79 80 Results were used for designing of biorefineries employing the dark-fermentation stage for 81 improving the biorefinery energy balance. This stage provided part of the ethanol produced in the biorefinery, as well as the hydrogen used together with the biogas and solid residues 82 from the wastewater treatment stage for cogenerating energy. The dark fermentation 83 84 batches were carried out with hemicellulosic hydrolysates from WS and CS obtained from dilute acid pretreatment (DAP) or autohydrolysis followed by very-dilute acid pretreatment 85 (AH-VDAP). These pretreatment methods were selected based on their glucose and 86 hemicellulose high yields obtained in post-pretreatment stages from previous experiences 87 88 on pilot-scale continuous mode pretreatment strategies [10,11,27] and their high yield in 89 hydrogen production [28,29]. Techno economic and sustainability analyses of the resulting 90 biorefinery designs was carried out considering the environmental and economic domains

91 [30] to identified the role of the co-production of hydrogen and ethanol strategy on the92 proposed biorefinery designs.

93

94 2 Experimental setup and procedures

95 2.1 Feedstocks

Wheat straw (WS) and corn stover (CS) were harvested in the spring of 2017 in La Barca
(Jalisco, Mexico). Both feedstocks were milled with a hammer mill (Azteca 301012) using
a 1.27 cm screen. LCB composition was determined according to NREL analytical
procedures [31]. Cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin content in LCB (dry basis) were
48.88, 17.83 and 6.51% for WS; and 43.00, 22.11 and 18.00% for CS, respectively.

101

102 2.2 LCB pretreatment methods

Hemicellulosic hydrolysates were produced by two methods: a) dilute acid pretreatment 103 104 (DAP) and b) autohydrolysis followed by a very-dilute acid pretreatment (AH-VDAP). 105 DAP was carried out in an autoclave at 121°C for 1 hour with a 15% (w/v) solid loading and 1.5% (v/v) H₂SO₄. Liquid fractions from DAP using WS and CS as feedstock were 106 identified as WSC and CSC, respectively. Autohydrolysis (AH) was carried out in a semi-107 108 pilot scale pretreatment continuous tubular reactor (PCTR) at 1034 kPa (185°C) with a mean residence time of 18 min [11]. Pretreated biomass from AH was further hydrolysed in 109 an autoclave at 121°C for 60 min using H₂SO₄ 0.25% (v/v) with a 1:2 (w/v) ratio solids 110 111 loading. Liquid fractions from AH-VDAP using wheat straw and corn stover as feedstock 112 were identified as WSP and CSP, respectively. The hydrolysates composition is shown in Table 1. Further hydrolysates dilutions were made to obtain concentration between 10-15 113

g/L of total reducing sugars, which were used in the experiments of co-production ofhydrogen and ethanol via dark fermentation described in the following subsection.

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117 2.3 Hydrogen and ethanol co-production via dark fermentation by the genetically

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modified *E. coli* strain

The genetically modified E. coli strain used in this work has a genotype that corresponds to 119 120 absence of hycA, ldhA and frdD genes. These genes were deleted as described elsewhere [32]. This genotype confers the strain the ability to overproduce ethanol (EtOH) and 121 122 hydrogen (H_2) , as well as decreasing the amounts of lactic and succinic acids produced. From now on, this strain will be referred as EtOH-H₂-coproducing E. coli. The co-123 124 production of hydrogen and ethanol was performed using hemicellulosic hydrolysates as 125 substrates, at 31°C and initial pH of 8.2. Diluted WSC, CSC, WSP, and CSP were used to 126 determine the effect of LCB pretreatment method on the co-production of hydrogen and ethanol by the coproducing E. coli. These experiments were carried out in anaerobic 127 128 serological bottles (0.01 L working volume) containing 10-15 g/L of total reducing sugars, B buffer [33], 1 mL/L trace elements solution [34], 0.01 g/L MgSO₄ and 1 g/L yeast 129 extract. Cultures were started with an optical density of 0.2 measured at a wavelength of 130 600 nm and were shaken at 200 rpm until no generation of hydrogen was observed. The 131 experiments were carried out in quadruplicate. Production of hydrogen and ethanol was 132 133 measured as it is indicated in Section 2.4.

134

135 2.4 Analytical methods

Total reducing sugars (TRS) was determined by the dinitrosalicylic acid (DNS) method [35], with some modifications as follows: 250 μ L of the diluted sample with 750 μ L of 138 DNS reagent (10 g/L NaOH, 200 g/L KNaC4H4O6·4H2O, 0.5 g/L Na₂S₂O₅, 2 g/l C₆H₆O, 10 139 g/L 3,5-Dinitrosalicylic acid) were heated for 5 minutes at 100°C and then cooled down to 140 room temperature. Once tempered, 400 μ L of distilled water were added. Xylose (0.1 to 1.0 141 g/L) was used as the reference standard. The absorbance was measured at 595 nm (iMarkTM 142 Microplate Absorbance Reader).

Simple sugars and metabolites were quantified by an Agilent HPLC equipped with a 143 144 refractive index detector (Agilent Technologies 1220 Infinity LC), using a Rezex[™] ROA-Organic Acid H+ (Phenomenex) column, operated at 60°C with H₂SO₄ 0.0025 M as a 145 146 mobile phase (0.50 mL/min). Furfural was analysed by gas chromatography (Agilent Technologies 6890N Network GC Systems) using a capillary column HP-Innowax (30 m 147 148 length $\times 0.25$ mm inner diameter $\times 0.25$ µm film thickness; Agilent Technologies). Injector and flame ionization detector (FID) temperatures were 220 and 250 °C, respectively. 149 Helium was used as carrier gas at a flow rate of 25 cm³/min. Analyses were performed with 150 a split ratio of 10:1 and a temperature program of 35 °C for 2 min, then 10°C/min to 210°C 151 152 for 1 min.

Gas production was measured by acidified water (pH ≤ 2) displacement in an inverted 153 154 burette connected to serological bottles with rubber tubing and a needle. The hydrogen 155 concentration (%, v/v) in the gas phase was determined by gas chromatography with a thermal conductivity detector (Agilent Technologies 6890N Network GC Systems) using 156 an Agilent J&W HP-PLOT Molesieve column (30 m length $\times 0.32$ mm inner diameter $\times 12$ 157 µm film thickness) under the following conditions: 200°C, injector temperature; 280°C, 158 159 detector temperature; 300°C, oven temperature. Helium was used as carrier gas. Hydrogen volume was corrected to standard conditions of temperature and pressure (298.15K and 10⁵ 160

161

Pa).

163 **3** Modelling and simulation

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3.1 Process description of the biorefinery design

165 Biorefining schemes were designed to produce ethanol from lignocellulosic biomass. All schemes are similar, differing only in the feedstock (WS or CS) and pretreatment method 166 167 (DAP or AH-VDAP). Fig. 1 shows a block diagram of the proposed biorefinery conceptual 168 design co-producing ethanol and hydrogen using WS or CS as feedstocks with an installed capacity of 500-ton biomass/day. Biogas produced from biorefining residues, hydrogen, 169 170 lignin, and fermentation residues are used in a co-generation stage for steam and electricity production. The biorefineries designs were based on the models previously described 171 elsewhere [30,36], with the following particularities: 172

a) DAP or AH-VDAP were applied as pretreatment methods of LCB to obtain
hemicellulosic hydrolysates (see description on Section 2.2).

b) Hemicellulosic hydrolysates from the pretreatment stage (see description on Section 2.3)
were used as substrate by the EtOH-H₂-coproducing *E. coli* strain. In the biorefinery
designs, this stage provided part of the total production of ethanol, as well as the
hydrogen used in the cogeneration stage.

The biorefinery designs evaluated were termed WSB1, WSB2, CSB1 and CSB2 (WSB: biorefineries using wheat straw as feedstock; CSB: biorefineries with corn stover as feedstock; 1: DAP as pretreatment method; 2: AH-VDAP as pretreatment method). Each design was composed by a traditional lignocellulosic ethanol production train [feedstock conditioning (feedstock cleaning and size reduction), pretreatment (DAP or AH-VDAP), enzymatic saccharification, alcoholic fermentation, separation (azeotropic distillation and molecular sieving)], a dark fermentation (hydrogen and ethanol co-production) stage, a

186 wastewater treatment (anaerobic treatment, aerobic treatment and clarification) plant, and a cogeneration (steam and electricity) stage. The process inputs for each designs were raw 187 materials (H₂SO₄, Ca(OH)₂, enzymes, yeasts, bacteria, E. coli WDH-LF, flocculants, and 188 189 antifoams), utilities (fresh water, pressurized air, electricity, steam-generator fuel) and the feedstock (WS or CS). The outputs were energy (electricity), steam, wastes (water, CO₂, 190 ashes, cake, and other solid wastes) and ethanol as product. Biorefineries mass and energy 191 192 steady state balances were implemented in continuous mode and solved using the SuperPro Designer v8.5 (SPD) simulator [37]. Process conditions and reactions rates for pretreatment 193 194 and dark fermentation stages correspond to the experimental data obtained as described in Sections 2.2 and 2.3. Integration of energy and 20% of water recirculation to the process 195 196 were considered. Process details are provided in the Supporting Information.

197

198 3.2 Techno economic analysis

199 The profitability of each biorefinery design proposed in the section above was analysed 200 with techno economic analysis tools previously implemented and tested with similar designs to those proposed in this work [38,39]. The analysis was based on the Discounted 201 Cash Flow Analysis (DCFA) method for Net Present Value (NPV) = 0 [40], calculating 202 203 total capital investment, total production cost (TPC), and their contributions for all biorefinery designs. The biorefinery energy integration was carried out using the Pinch 204 Point Analysis technique for maximum energy recovery [40]. The End Use Energy Ratio 205 206 (*EER*) was employed to evaluate the energy efficiency of each design. *EER* was defined as 207 ratio of energy produced (steam, electricity, and chemical energy from ethanol) to the total 208 energy consumed in the process (heating/cooling requirements and electricity) [41]. Equipment size and cost were calculated based on plant capacity using the SPD economic 209

data-base and its construction material and capacity-based correlations. All costs and
financial parameters corresponded to conditions (c. 2018) of the Mexican economy.
Commissioning and plant life periods were fixed at 3 and 15 years, respectively, with 330
operating days/year. The interest rate was set at 6% and equity at 30%. Full production was
assumed to begin by the end biorefinery's commissioning.

215

216 **3.3** Sustainability analysis

A sustainability analysis method -previously developed for assessing prospective 217 218 biorefining technologies [30] – was employed to quantify the impact of the biorefinery 219 designs in the environmental and economic domains. Where, those impacts are calculated with quantitative indicators for each domain. Each indicator is integrated by one or more 220 metrics related to design and/or process variables of the biorefinery design in question. 221 Table 2 shows the indicators and metrics to be evaluated for each domain (based on the 222 sustainability framework previously used for similar evaluations [36,38]). Six indicators are 223 224 part of the environmental domain whilst two indicators were defined for the economic counterpart. All metrics (environmental and economic) are translated to the same functional 225 unit using ad-hoc dimensional functions and conversion coefficients that are defined based 226 227 on regulatory frameworks where the biorefinery facilities would be located. In this study, the functional unit chosen was USD/MJ_{out} to monetize the impacts per of unit of energy 228 delivered by the biorefinery. The translation of metric values to the same functional unit 229 230 was obtained applying the following equation

231 $m_i = M_i \cdot C_i$,

Where m_i is the monetized metric *i*; M_i the metric value, and C_i the monetizing coefficient (*i.e.* conversion). In addition, signs were assigned to each metric according to its positive or

negative impact to the corresponding domain. A positive value is associated to a benefit 234 received by the stakeholders, whilst a negative value might be interpreted as a cost that 235 stakeholders must cover. Table 3 contains the metric values, as well as monetizing 236 coefficients and their corresponding monetized values (USD/MJout). One of them, the 237 *Emitted GHG* indicator, or "carbon intensity" with its associated metric was calculated as 238 the carbon dioxide produced during the fermentation processes and electricity cogeneration 239 240 stages. The monetization considers an impact cost of \$123 USD per metric ton of CO₂ [42]. This cost includes the damage caused to water resources, land and biodiversity, agriculture 241 and forestry, ecosystems, and human health. The *Emitted non-GHG* indicator, whose metric 242 is composed by SO₂ emissions in the electricity generation stage, was monetized using the 243 trading value of SO₂ in the US Acid Rain Program [43]. Water consumption and 244 Wastewater quality indicators were monetized according to current Mexican environmental 245 regulations [44,45]. These indicators are formed by more than one metric (Table 2). 246 Therefore, their monetized value is the sum of their monetized metrics. The Amount of 247 248 produced solid wastes indicator was monetized using the cost of solid waste management services in Mexico, which is \$76.89 USD per ton of waste transferred and disposed [46]. 249 As was described in Section 3.2, the *EER* indicator is the ratio of energy produced to the 250 251 total energy consumed in the process. In the economic domain, two indicators were considered: TPC and Electrical productivity. The TPC indicator was monetized by 252 translating all products to their energy equivalents. Finally, the *Electrical productivity* 253 254 indicator was monetizing using the cost per MJ of electricity produced as a fraction of the 255 total energy generated by the biorefinery [37].

Sustainability indicators per domain are calculated by adding their corresponding
indicators. The "global sustainability value" is the sum of all the environmental and

economic indicators once they are monetized. For a comparative analysis of the impact of
each indicator in the biorefinery designs, all metric values were normalized with respect to
WSB1 design considered the base case.

261

262 **4 Results and discussion**

263 4.1 LCB pretreatment methods

264 The characterization of hemicellulosic hydrolysates (hemicellulose to pentoses conversion, 265 composition of simple sugars, degradation compounds) from pretreatment is shown in 266 Table 1. As expected, xylose was the highest concentration sugar monomer in the hydrolysates obtained with both LCB pretreatment methods. DAP decomposed 267 268 hemicellulose while maintained cellulose and lignin almost intact [27,47]. WSC and CSC produced 29 and 34.3 g/L of xylose, respectively. Regarding AH-VDAP, the xylan 269 selectively depolymerized during autohydrolysis, resulting 270 backbone was into xylooligosaccharides (XOS) as main reaction products [48]. These XOS were 271 272 depolymerized during the subsequent very-diluted acid pretreatment stage, resulting in large concentrations of xylose at the end of the pretreatment. WSP and CSP generated 39.8 273 274 and 41.1 g/L of xylose, respectively. Glucose concentrations in WSP and CSP were 3-fold 275 less than in WSC and CSC hydrolysates (Table 1) since the glucan of LCB biomass was 276 not depolymerized during autohydrolysis as reported previously [11], and the sulphuric acid concentration of very-diluted acid pretreatment stage was chosen for depolymerizing XOS. 277 278 The aims of pretreatment are to disrupt the crystalline cellulose structure and to fractionate

the main components of the feedstock [49]. However, during pretreatment of LCB, byproducts are often produced that can inhibit downstream biochemical processes. These inhibitors are formed when hemicellulose, cellulose and/or lignin are solubilized and degraded [50,51]. Acetate was the main pretreatment by-product found in all hydrolysates, followed by formate and furfural. Acetate results from the hydrolysis of acetyl groups of hemicelluloses [52], and it was detected in concentrations higher than 4 g/L (Table 1). Even though acetate, formate and furfural have relatively low toxicity [50], to avoid their possible inhibiting effects in dark fermentation experiments, the hydrolysates were diluted with water. After dilution, the concentration of total reducing sugars was 15.1, 9.7, 10.2 and 11.1 g/L in WSC, WSP, CSC and CSP, respectively.

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290 4.2 Dark fermentation by the EtOH-H2-coproducing *E. coli* strain

The effect of DAP and AH-VDAP hydrolysates on the EtOH-H₂-coproducing E. coli are 291 292 shown in Fig. 2. Using WSC as substrate up to 1.3-fold more hydrogen was obtained than with WSP (Fig. 2A). This is because of the difference of TRS concentration among 293 hydrolysates after dilution, with WSC having 1.6-fold more TRS than WSP. Similar event 294 295 was observed using CSC or CSP as substrates. With a TRS concentration in CSP 1.1-fold 296 higher than in CSC, CSP produced $2,930.3 \pm 189.4$ mL H₂/L whilst CSC reached $2,576.4 \pm$ 220.4 mL H₂/L. Regarding hydrogen production rate, 22.1 ± 1.1 , 18.3 ± 1.0 , 20.2 ± 1.7 and 297 298 18.5 ± 1.3 mL H₂/L·h were obtained using WSC, WSP, CSC and CSP as substrate, 299 respectively. Note that production rates were higher with DAP hydrolysates than with the AH-VDAP counterparts. Hydrogen production kinetics and the percentage of hydrogen in 300 the gas attained by the EtOH-H₂-coproducing E. coli are showed in Fig. 3. None of the 301 302 batches presented lag phase since hydrogen was found from the first gas sampling (17 h). 303 The maximum concentration of hydrogen (%, v/v) in the gas phase detected was 56% (at 17) h, WSC), 45% (at 40 h, WSP), 46% (at 40 h, CSC) and 50.2% (at 40 h, CSP). Hydrogen 304 production declined after 120 h of fermentation, regardless of the kind of feedstock and 305

306 type of pretreatment used. Fig. 2B shows the hydrogen yield and TRS consumption by the EtOH-H₂-coproducing *E. coli* strain. The TRS consumption was 10% higher using WSP as 307 308 substrate than with WSC. However, this was not observed with CSC or CSP. The yield of 309 hydrogen achieved by EtOH-H₂-coproducing strain was 311.5 ± 30.7 , 323.1 ± 6.6 , $312.3 \pm 1.5 \pm 30.7$ 26.7 and 337.1 \pm 21.8 mL H₂/g TRS using WSC, WSP, CSC and CSP as substrate, 310 respectively. Regarding ethanol production (Fig. 2C), up to 3.54 ± 0.27 g/L were produced 311 312 at the end of fermentation, achieving yields in the range of 0.32 ± 0.01 to 0.34 ± 0.06 g EtOH/g TRS (for all hydrolysates). Therefore, amount of ethanol produced per TRS unit 313 314 seems to be not affected by feedstock or pretreatment method.

The co-production of hydrogen and ethanol by microorganisms had been studied using 315 316 genetically engineered E. coli strains. Different molecular strategies had been tested to enhance the fermentation efficiency of E. coli strains, such as deletion of genes including 317 those to produce hydrogenases, negative regulator of the formate regulon, lactate 318 319 dehydrogenase, fumarate reductase and phosphoglucose isomerase, among other 320 [20,25,26,53], as well as heterologous gene expression [54]. Many of these studies used glucose as carbon source instead of LCB hydrolysates. Interestingly, reported hydrogen and 321 322 ethanol yields are lower than those obtained in this work (Table 4). In previous studies, 323 whet straw hydrolysate was used as substrate for co-production hydrogen and ethanol by metabolic engineered E. coli strains, WDHL [22] and WDHGFA [23]. Reported yields of 324 hydrogen and ethanol obtained by WDHL strain were 159 mL H₂/g sugar and 0.32 g 325 326 EtOH/g sugar, while WDHGFA strain reached 160 mL H₂/g sugar and 0.26 g EtOH/g 327 sugar. These amounts are either similar or lower up to 47% than those obtained here as seen in Table 4. 328

329 Since the aim of this work was to improve the lignocellulosic ethanol biorefinery 330 performance by co-producing hydrogen and ethanol by genetically modified *E. coli*, the 331 experimental data provided above was included in the conceptual design of (environmental 332 and economic) sustainable biorefineries, as described in the following subsections.

333

334 4.3 Mass balances

335 As mentioned previously, DAP and AH-VDAP of WS and CS were included as pretreatment methods to compare their effect on the dark fermentation performance and 336 337 therefore on the biorefinery economics. The process schemes evaluated were WSB1, WSB2, CSB1 and CSB2 (see Section 3.1 for a detail description). The mass balances for 338 the stages involved in ethanol production for all biorefineries are shown in Figs. 4 and 5. 339 For mass conversion $(X_{A \rightarrow B})$ data see Tables A1, A2 and A3 in the Supporting Information. 340 Table 5 shows output flowrates from each of the biorefining stages. CSB1 and CSB2 341 produced 4,825 and 4,912 kg/h of pentoses in the pretreatment stage, 24% more than 342 343 WSB1 and WSB2. This is because hemicellulose fractions in CS are 1.2-fold higher than in WS, as well as the $X_{Hemic, \rightarrow Pentoses}$ during the pretreatment stage in CSB1 and CSB2 is 7% 344 and 5% higher than in WSB1 and WSB2, respectively. 345

In the dark fermentation stage, the hemicellulosic hydrolysates from the pretreatment stage were used by the EtOH-H2-coproducing *E. coli* strain to obtain hydrogen and ethanol. WSB1, WSB2, CSB1 and CSB2 produced 26.3, 25.1, 44.1 and 45.8 kg/h of hydrogen, respectively, which were fed to the cogeneration stage for electricity production. The difference in hydrogen production among schemes is due to a smaller $X_{Sugars \rightarrow H_2}$ (15%) and the lower hemicellulose fraction for WS (Table 5). Regarding ethanol, WSB1, WSB2,

352 CSB1 and CSB2 produced 6,093, 6,126, 5,742 and 5,796 kg/h of ethanol, respectively. Around 20-30% of this comes from dark fermentation, and the rest from alcoholic 353 fermentation (Table 5). Since WS presented the highest cellulose content, WS-based 354 355 biorefineries produces 6% more ethanol than CS-based counterparts.

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- 357 4.4

Techno economic analysis results

358 After establishing the contribution of dark fermentation over ethanol production in the proposed conceptual designs, their profitability was determined by a techno economic 359 360 analysis considering Mexican economic conditions (c. 2018). The total equipment cost is 10.1%, 46.8% and 22.2% higher in WSB1, CSB1 and CSB2 compare to WSB2, 361 362 respectively (Fig. 6A). The equipment cost per stage, as shown in Fig 6B, is similar in all cases, except for the pretreatment and dark fermentation stages. On one hand, CS-based 363 biorefineries have the most expensive dark fermentation stage (\$57-58 USD millions) due 364 365 to the higher amount of pentoses obtained from the pretreatment stage than with WS. 366 Therefore, a larger amount of water is needed to achieve the sugars concentration required in the dark fermentation stage. As a consequence, higher volume reactors must be 367 employed with larger costs. On the other hand, the pretreatment stage equipment cost of 368 369 AH-VDAP biorefineries (WSB2 and CSB2) is about 60 % lower than their DAP counterparts since a continuous reactor was considered for this case. 370

Fig. 7 shows the TPC calculated per litre of ethanol for each biorefining design, as well as 371 372 their ethanol production. The lowest TPC (\$1.37 UDS/L EtOH, Fig. 7A) was obtained by 373 WSB2, which is 17.9, 43.1 and 15.9% lower than those obtained for WSB1, CSB1 and CSB2, respectively. Even when WS is 2.5-fold more expensive than CS (Table 1), 374 375 feedstock cost seems not to contribute to TPC in that proportion. WS seems to be a better 376 feedstock for ethanol production compared to CS due to its higher cellulose content. The most important contributors to TPC, as shown in Fig. 7B, are operation cost followed by 377 services (cooling and heating) and total capital investment, with values around 29.8-34.7%, 378 14.5-22.4% and 15.4-18.3%, respectively. Operating cost include maintenance, operating 379 supplies, labour, and direct supervision, laboratory charges, patents, and royalties. 380 Regarding the services contribution to TPC, the highest values were corresponding to those 381 382 designs using DAP pretreatment since a higher amount of cooling water is required by the process during pretreatment stage. Electricity consumption is not a relevant contributor to 383 384 TPC. Electricity demand (Electricityin) of all biorefineries is more than 5,800 kWh of electricity (Fig. 8). However, they produce (*Electricity_{out}*) just around 20-30% of this 385 386 demand, thus *EER* is lower than 0.50 for all designs. WSB2 is the most economical option, because it produces the largest amount of ethanol with the lowest equipment cost. 387

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389 **4.5** Sustainability analysis results

390

391 4.5.1 Environmental Sustainability Analysis Results

The results of the sustainability analysis for the environmental domain are summarized in 392 393 Table 3. Once monetized, all indicators were of negative value, with the EER indicator as the main contributor in this domain, with a contribution of more than 67% of the Total 394 Environmental Indicator for all designs. The electricity dependence has been observed in 395 396 the analysis of other biorefinery designs producing biofuels as the main product [30]. Other 397 important indicator is EGHG with a contribution of around 15-21%. WCo and WWQ indicators provide a contribution about $\leq 7\%$ for all cases because the biorefinery was 398 designed for water recirculation and for complying with the Mexican regulatory framework 399

400 for discharges to water bodies [44]. *SW* indicator is the lowest contributor with $\leq 3.7\%$ for 401 all cases.

402 To compare the environmental indicators performance among biorefineries, metric values 403 were normalized with respect to WSB1 (base case) as shown in Fig. 9. T and pH metrics were not included because they are similar in all cases. For M_{CO2} –which is related to GHG 404 405 emission generated during dark fermentation, alcoholic fermentation and cogeneration stages-, CS-based biorefineries produced around 22-25% more g CO_{2eq} per MJ than the 406 base case since a higher amount of lignin, H₂ and biogas are fed to the cogeneration stage 407 which is the main contributor to this metric and therefore to GHG emissions indicator. In 408 the case of M_{SO2} , the only non-greenhouse gas considered in this work is SO₂, produced 409 410 during the cogeneration stage due to sulphur contained in LCB. Corn stover (CSB1 and CSB2) biorefineries emitted 20% and 28% less g SO_{2eq} by MJ produced than the base case, 411 412 respectively. This is principally due to differences in feedstocks composition. Regarding 413 water consumption (M_{fw}), CS-based biorefineries employ around 26-39% more water than 414 their WS-based counterparts. This is because the water required adjusting TRS in the pretreatment output stream feeding the dark fermentation stage. Discharged water $(M_{dw},$ 415 416 Ldischarged water/MJout) by WSB1 was 36, 30 and 73% lower than WSB2, CSB1 and CSB2, respectively. For the WWQ indicator, the metrics M_{COD} and M_{dp} -which are related to 417 418 organic material and other pollutants content in wastewater treated- are lower in CSB1 and CSB2 than in WS-based biorefineries, because CSB1 and CSB2 streams are more diluted 419 than those for the other two designs. The metric (M_{sw}) of SW indicator is directly related to 420 421 solids generated by pH adjustment, as well as ash production in the cogeneration stage and 422 dust from the conditioning stage. The pH in the dark fermentation stage by EtOH-H₂-

coproducing *E. coli* is 8.2. Therefore, the hydrolysates coming from the DAP-based
biorefineries (WSB1 and CSB1) demand larger Ca(OH)₂ amounts than their counterparts,
thus producing 89 and 77% more solid wastes than WSB2 and CSB2, respectively.
Regarding energy self-sufficiency, WSB2 is the biorefinery with the highest *EER* value
(0.49) because is the biorefinery with the largest ethanol production, surpassing in 12% the
base scheme (Fig. 9). However, none of the biorefinery designs was energetically self-sufficient.

430

431 **4.5.2** Economic Sustainability Analysis Results

The results of the sustainability analysis for the economic domain are presented in Table 3. 432 433 After monetization, TPC is the most relevant indicator, with a 99% contribution for all cases. Therefore, WSB2 is the best alternative in the economic domain due to its lowest 434 TPC. The indicator normalization using WSB1 as base case is shown in Fig. 10. WSB2 435 exhibited the lowest TPC (Fig. 7A), due to the lowest total equipment investment and 436 highest ethanol production (Figs. 6A, 7A) as explained in Section 4.4. CSB1 and CSB2 437 exhibited the highest electrical productivity, surpassing in 60% and 46% the base case, 438 respectively. Since the contribution of this indicator to the economic sustainability indicator 439 440 is $\leq 1\%$, its impact is not relevant in the *Total Economic Indicator*.

441

442 4.5.3 Global Sustainability Analysis Results

The indicator values for each domain together with the global sustainability indicator are shown in Fig. 11. These values represent what stakeholders should pay per each MJ produced for either fines, and environmental damages caused by the biorefinery regarding the environmental domain or production costs considering the economic domain. From an

environmental point of view, the lowest impact is associated with WSB2, (-0.047 447 USD/MJ_{out}) since its *EER* indicator (positive) was the highest, as well as *EGHG* and *SW* 448 449 (negative) indicators were the lowest values of all designs. The absolute value of this 450 indicator is 26, 69 and 48% lower than those calculated for WSB1, CSB1 and CSB2, respectively. From an economic perspective, WSB2, again, achieved the lowest value of the 451 452 four proposed schemes, with -0.064 USD per MJ produced, mainly due to its lowest TPC. 453 Further, considering the Global Sustainability Indicator, the smallest value of all biorefinery scenarios is -0.111 USD per MJ produced, associated to WSB2. 43% of its 454 455 value corresponds to the Total Environmental Indicator, and the rest to the Total Economic Indicator. The second-best option is WSB1, with a global impact value 23% higher than 456 that for WSB2. 457

458

459 **5** Conclusions

The dark fermentation stage -by EtOH-H2-coproducing E. coli- contributes with 20 to 460 461 30% of the total ethanol production in the lignocellulose-based biorefinery designs is proposed in this work. From all designs, WSB2 (wheat straw as feedstock and AH-VDAP 462 as LCB pretreatment method) could generate the smallest environmental impact with the 463 464 lowest TPC, which is up to 43% lower than its counterparts. The sustainability analysis shows the importance of environmental issues compared against economic aspects, fact that 465 is not evident using conventional techno economic analysis tools. Based on the regulatory 466 framework employed, the environmental monetized impact of the most sustainable design 467 468 resulted almost as important as the economic aspects of it. Therefore, the results show that 469 co-production schemes are an alternative for ethanol biorefineries that must be explored 470 further.

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680 **Figure captions**

681 Graphical abstract

- Fig. 1 Biorefinery block diagram. The process inputs are indicated in blue arrows, and the outputsare marked in green arrows
- 685

682

Fig. 2 Effect of the pretreatment method of lignocellulosic biomass in co-production of hydrogen and ethanol by EtOH-H₂-coproducing *E. coli*. Batch cultures of 0.01L were performed at 31°C and initial pH 8.2 using WSP, WSC, CSP and CSC as substrates. Production and production rate of hydrogen (A), hydrogen yield and TRS consumption (B), production and yield of ethanol (C). Data are presented as mean \pm standard deviation

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Fig. 3 Kinetics of hydrogen production. Batch cultures (0.01 L) at 31°C and initial pH 8.2 using
WSP (A), WSC (B), CSP (C) and CSC (D) as substrates. Data are presented as mean ± standard
deviation

- **Fig. 4 Mass balance for biorefining stages in DAP biorefineries (WSB1 and CSB1)**
- Fig. 5 Mass balance for biorefining stages in AH-VDAP biorefineries (WSB2 and CSB2)
 699
- Fig. 6 Total equipment investment (A) and equipment investment contributions by stage (B)
 for all biorefineries schemes
- **Fig. 7 Technoeconomic analysis results**. *TPC* and ethanol production (A), *TPC* contributions (B)
- Fig. 8 Electricity in-out, electrical productivity and *ERR* for all biorefinery designs
- 707 Fig. 9 Indicator analysis for the environmental domain
- 709 Fig. 10 Indicator analysis for the economic domain
- 710
- 711 Fig. 11 Sustainability global values for each biorefinery design

| _ | | | | | | | Composit | ion (g/L) | | |
|-------------|-------------|-------------------------|--------------|---------------------------------------|---------|--------|-----------|-----------|---------|----------|
| Hydrolysate | Feedstock | Feedstock cost (USD/kg) | Pretreatment | $X_{Hemic. \rightarrow Pentoses}$ (%) | Glucose | Xylose | Arabinose | Formate | Acetate | Furfural |
| WSC | Wheet strew | ¢0.09 | DAP | 88 | 5.5 | 29 | 6.8 | 1.8 | 4.2 | ND |
| WSP | wheat straw | \$0.08 | AH-VDAP | 90 | 1.8 | 39.8 | 7.9 | 2.6 | 7.8 | 1.2 |
| CSC | Corn stover | ¢0.02 | DAP | 95 | 4.7 | 34.3 | 9.4 | 1.2 | 4.1 | ND |
| CSP | | Ф 0.05 | AH-VDAP | 95 | 1.5 | 41.1 | 11.3 | 3.3 | 4.2 | 0.8 |

712 **Table 1** Characterization of the hemicellulosic hydrolysates

713 DAP: Diluted acid pretreatment; AH-VDAP: Autohydrolysis followed by very-diluted acid pretreatment; $X_{Hemic. \rightarrow Pentoses}$: Hemicellulose to pentoses mass-

714 conversion; ND: No determinate

Table 2 Sustainability framework

| Domain | Indicator | Metric, units | Dimensional function | Reference |
|---------------|--------------------------------------|---|--|-------------------|
| | Emitted GHG (EGHG) | M_{CO2} , gCO_{2eq}/MJ_{out} | $M_{CO2} \cdot C_{CO2}$ | [42] |
| | Emitted non-GHG (NGHG) | M_{SO_2} , gSO_{2eq}/MJ_{out} | $M_{SO_2} \cdot C_{SO_2}$ | [43] |
| | Water consumption (WCo) | Mfw, Lfresh water/MJout Mdw, Ldischarged water/MJout | $M_{fw} \cdot C_{fw} \ M_{dw} \cdot C_{dw}$ | [44 45] |
| Environmental | Wastewater quality (WWQ) | M _{COD} , mg _{COD} /L _{water} M _d p, kg _d isolved pollutants/MJ _{out} T, °C nH | $M_{COD} \cdot C_{COD}$ $M_{dp} \cdot C_{dp}$ | [++,+J] - - |
| | Amount of produced solid wastes (SW) | $M_{sw}, kg_{disposable wastes}/MJ_{out}$ | $M_{sw} \cdot C_{ws}$ | [46] |
| | End Use Energy ratio (EER) | $M_{EER}, MJ_{out}/MJ_{in}$ | $(M_{EER}-1) \cdot C_{TPC}$ | - |
| | Total production cost (TPC) | $M_{TPC}, USD/L_{EtOH}$ | $M_{TPC} \cdot C_{TEP}$ | - |
| Economic | Electrical productivity (E) | M _E , Electricity _{out} /Electricity _{in} | $(M_E-1) \cdot C_E$ | [37] |

 C_{TEP} : Total energy produced; C_E : Cost per MJ of electricity produced as a fraction of total energy produced by

718 the biorefinery

Table 3 Metric values for WSB1, WSB2, CSB1 and CSB2 biorefineries and monetizing coefficients for translating metric units to monetized indicators (USD/MJ_{out})

| Indicator | Metric - | | Metric v | alue (M_i) | | Ν | Monetizing coefficient (C_i) | | | | Monetized metric value ($m_i = M_i \cdot C_i$; USD/MJ _{out}) | | | | Metric contributions (%) | | | |
|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|--------------|----------|-----------|----------------------------------|---------------------|--------------|-----------|--|-----------|-----------|-------|--------------------------|-------|-------|--|
| Indicator | | WSB1 | WSB2 | CSB1 | CSB2 | WSB1 | WSB2 | CSB1 | CSB2 | WSB1 | WSB2 | CSB1 | CSB2 | WSB1 | WSB2 | CSB1 | CSB2 | |
| EGHG | M_{CO2} | 80.70 | 80.16 | 101.11 | 98.76 | | -1.23E-04 | | | -9.93E-03 | -9.86E-03 | -1.24E-02 | -1.21E-02 | 16.72 | 20.86 | 15.55 | 17.37 | |
| NGHG | M_{SO2} | 9.14 | 8.40 | 7.29 | 6.55 | | -6.00 |)E-08 | | -5.48E-07 | -5.04E-07 | -4.38E-07 | -3.93E-07 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | |
| WCo | M_{fw} | 1.40 | 1.57 | 1.77 | 1.95 | | -1.01E-03 | | | -1.41E-03 | -1.58E-03 | -1.78E-03 | -1.97E-03 | 2.38 | 3.34 | 2.23 | 2.81 | |
| WCO | M_{dw} | 0.84 | 1.14 | 1.09 | 1.45 | | -2.38 | -2.38E-04 | | -2.00E-04 | -2.71E-04 | -2.60E-04 | -3.46E-04 | 0.34 | 0.57 | 0.33 | 0.49 | |
| | M_{COD} | 129.99 | 115.45 | 99.46 | 91.63 | -2.06E-05 | -2.78E-05 | -2.79E-05 | -3.68E-05 | -2.68E-03 | -3.21E-03 | -2.77E-03 | -3.37E-03 | 4.52 | 6.80 | 3.47 | 4.82 | |
| WWO | M_{dp} | 5.16E-10 | 4.53E-10 | 4.31E-10 | 3.92E-10 | | -1.40 | -1.40E-04 0 0 | | -7.22E-14 | -6.34E-14 | -6.04E-14 | -5.49E-14 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | |
| wwQ | Т | 32.58 | 31.56 | 33.01 | 31.95 | | | | | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | |
| | pН | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | | | | | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | |
| SW | M_{sw} | 3.00E-02 | 3.31E-03 | 2.78E-02 | 6.54E-03 | | -7.40 |)E-02 | | -2.22E-03 | -2.45E-04 | -2.06E-03 | -4.84E-04 | 3.75 | 0.52 | 2.58 | 0.69 | |
| ERR | M_{EER} | 0.44 | 0.49 | 0.33 | 0.29 | -7.61E-02 | -6.30E-02 | -9.00E-02 | -7.29E-02 | -4.29E-02 | -3.21E-02 | -6.07E-02 | -5.16E-02 | 72.29 | 67.90 | 75.85 | 73.81 | |
| | | | | | | | Total E | Environmente | al Indicator | -0.059 | -0.047 | -0.080 | -0.070 | | | | | |
| TPC | M_{TPC} | 1.61 | 1.37 | 1.96 | 1.59 | -4.72E-02 | -4.61E-02 | -4.60E-02 | -4.60E-02 | -7.61E-02 | -6.299E-02 | -9.01E-02 | -7.29E-02 | 99.26 | 99.16 | 98.97 | 98.81 | |
| Ε | M_E | 0.21 | 0.17 | 0.33 | 0.30 | -2.75E-03 | -3.07E-03 | -2.81E-03 | -2.93E-03 | -5.69E-04 | -5.32E-04 | -9.33E-04 | -8.81E-04 | 0.74 | 0.84 | 1.03 | 1.19 | |
| | | | | | | | Ta | otal Econom | ic Indicator | -0.077 | -0.064 | -0.091 | -0.074 | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | Global | Sustainabili | ty Indicator | -0.136 | -0.111 | -0.171 | -0.144 | | | | | |

| Strain | Genotype description | Substrate | te Hydrogen Yield Ethanol yield (mL H_2/g substrate) (g EtOH/g substrate) | | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|-------------|--|---|------|--|--|
| SH9*_ZG | <i>E. coli</i> BW25113 $\Delta hycA \Delta hyaAB \Delta hybBC \Delta ldhA \Delta frdAB\Delta pfkA/pEcZG (pDK7 carrying zwf, and gnd)$ | | 265.6 [‡] (1.8 mol H ₂ /mol Glc) | 0.36 [‡] (1.4 mol EtOH/mol Glc) | [26] | | |
| SH5 $\Delta pgi_Z_LG_G$ | <i>E. coli</i> BW25113 Δ <i>hycA</i> Δ <i>hyaAB</i> Δ <i>hybBC</i> Δ <i>ldhA</i> Δ <i>frdAB</i> Δ <i>pgi</i> /pLmZ-GoG (pDK7 carrying <i>zwf</i> of <i>E.</i> <i>coli</i> BW25113 and <i>gnd</i> of <i>G. oxydans</i>) | Glucose | 245.8^{\ddagger} (1.74 mol H ₂ /mol Glc) | 0.41 [‡] (1.62 mol EtOH/mol Glc) | [25] | | |
| SS1- Recombinant <i>hybC</i> | <i>E. coli</i> SS1/pETDuet-1 (carrying <i>hybC</i>) | (010) | $94.6^{\ddagger} (0.67 \text{ mol } H_2/\text{mol } Glc)$ | 0.15 [‡] (0.58 mol EtOH/mol Glc) | [53] | | |
| SH8*_ZG | <i>E. coli</i> BW25113 Δ <i>hycA</i> Δ <i>hyaAB</i> Δ <i>hybBC</i> Δ <i>ldhA</i> Δ <i>frdAB</i> Δ <i>pfkA</i> Δ <i>pta-ackA</i> -adaptive evolution /pEcG (pDK7 carrying gnd) | | 186.5 [‡] (1.32 mol H ₂ /mol Glc) | 0.35 [‡] (1.38 mol EtOH/mol Glc) | [54] | | |
| WDHL | E. coli W3110 ΔhycA ΔlacI | Wheat straw | 159.3 | 0.32 | [22] | | |
| WDHGFA | E. coli W3110 ΔhycA ΔptsG ΔfrdD ΔldhA | hydrolysate | $160^{\ddagger} (0.24 \text{ mol } H_2/\text{C-mol})$ | 0.26 [‡] (0.195 mol EtOH/C-mol) | [23] | | |
| | | WSC | 311.5 | 0.33 | | | |
| Ethanol- H ₂ - | | WSP | 323.1 | 0.32 | This | | |
| coproducing E. coli | E. COII W 3110 Δ nycA Δ lahA Δ fraD | CSC | 312.3 | 0.34 | work | | |
| | | CSP | 337.1 | 0.34 | | | |

Table 4 Comparison of hydrogen and ethanol yields obtained by genetically engineered *Escherichia coli* strains

[†]Converted units from the original data (reported units)

| 728 | Table 5 Pentoses. | hydrogen and e | ethanol production | during dark | fermentation | and alcoholic |
|-----|-------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-------------|--------------|---------------|
| | | in , an o'goin an a | | | | |

729 fermentation stages in all biorefineries schemes

| Biorefiner | у | WSB1 | WSB2 | CSB1 | CSB2 |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Pretreatment stage | Pentoses (kg/h) | 3,673 | 3,746 | 4,825 | 4,912 |
| | $X_{Sugars \rightarrow H_2}$ (%) | 14.6 | 15.1 | 19.9 | 21.5 |
| Davis formandation atoms | H ₂ (kg/h) | 26.3 | 25.1 | 44.1 | 45.8 |
| Dark termentation stage | $X_{Sugars \rightarrow EtOH}$ (%) | 75.0 | 75.0 | 66.0 | 66.0 |
| | EtOH (kg/h) | 1,542 | 1,421 | 1,677 | 1,609 |
| Alcoholic fermentation stage | EtOH (kg/h) | 4,752 | 4,923 | 4,254 | 4,381 |
| Ethanol production | EtOH (kg/h) | 6,093 | 6,126 | 5,742 | 5,796 |

 $X_{Sugars \rightarrow H_2}$: Sugars (glucose and pentoses) to hydrogen mass-conversion during dark fermentation stage;

 $X_{Sugars \rightarrow EtOH}$: Sugars (glucose and pentoses) to ethanol mass-conversion during dark fermentation stage





735 Graphical abstract











| Feedstock | <i>F₁</i> | Feedstoct conditionii (Particle size reduction) F ₂ Dust | k ng | F4 | Pret | DAP 21°C | ent | Fs | F ₆ | F_{ii} | ccharific 24h 24h 24h 24h 27% 24 24 25% 26% 2966 26% 2966 20% 20% 20% 20% | F ₉ ation | <i>F</i> ₁₀ <i>F</i> ₁₂ <i>F</i> ₁₃ <i>F</i> ₁₄ | F_{15} Alcoho fermenta • $T:31 \circ C$ • $t: 24h$ • $X_{Glucose \rightarrow Et}$ to Cogeneration stage • Cake | lic ttion _{DH} : 95% | F ₁₇ | to Separ stage | ation |
|-------------|----------------------|---|---------------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|----------------|---|--|-------------------------------|---------------------------|---|--|--|--|---|-----------------|-------------------|---|
| Biorefinery | Feedstoc | x Stream | F ₁ | F ₂ | F ₃ | F ₄ | F_5 | F_6 | F ₇ | F _B | F ₉ | F ₁₀ | F ₁₁ | F ₁₂ F ₁₃ | F ₁₄ | F ₁₅ | F ₁₆ | F ₁₇ |
| | | Flow (ton/day) | 500.0 | 24.6 | 475.4 | 2315.2 | 2790.5 | 843.1 | 1949.9 | 5.4 | 1152.0 | 2003.7 | 2760.0 | 42.9 4149. | 0 471.8 | 4.4 | 109.0 | 1899.2 |
| WSB1 | Wheat straw | Cellulose Hemic. Lignig H ₂ O Glucose Xylose EtOH H ₂ CO ₂ H ₂ SO ₄ Enzyme Corn liquor DAP NaOAc Other | 48.88 17.83 6.51 26.78 | 9.93 3.62 86.45 | 50.90 18.57 6.85 23.68 | 97.24 | 8.04 0.38 1.17 80.23 0.70 3.16 2.29 4.04 | 26.62 1.27 3.86 53.11 0.23 1.05 0.51 | 91.97 0.90 4.07 3.06 | <u>position</u> 100.00 | (wt%) | 0.27 0.53 1.62 78.80 11.30 0.44 0.27 6.77 | 100.00 | 98.9 0.0 0.1 0.8 1.47 98.53 | 4 96.62 4 0.03 9 0.12 3 0.52 2.72 0.01 | 87.57 12.43 | 100.00 | $ \begin{array}{r} 1.18\\0.56\\1.71\\83.14\\0.58\\0.04\\6.01\\\end{array} $ |
| | | Flow (ton/dav) | 500.0 | 3.3 | 496.8 | 2315.2 | 2811.9 | 842.2 | 1972.1 | 4.7 | 1200.0 | 2050.2 | 3960.0 | 51.1 5693. | 9 229.5 | 4.4 | 97.5 | 1957.1 |
| CSB1 | Corn stover | Cellulose Hemic. Lignig H ₂ O Glucosc Xylose EtOH H ₂ CO ₂ H ₂ SO ₄ Enzyme Corn liquor DAP NaOAc | 43.00 22.11 18.00 | 66.04 33.96 | 42.85 22.03 18.12 | 97.24 2.76 | 7.02 0.19 3.20 79.49 0.61 4.12 2.27 | 23.44 0.65 10.69 53.08 0.20 1.37 | 90.79 0.78 5.28 3.02 | position 100.00 | (<i>wt%</i>) | 0.96 0.27 4.39 79.45 9.71 0.56 | 100.00 | 99.0 0.0 0.2 0.6 2.07 97.93 | 5 51.21 4 0.06 4 0.42 5 1.16 9.39 | 87.57 12.43 | 100.00 | 1.01 0.28 4.60 83.23 0.49 0.06 5.22 |
| | | other | 16.89 | | 17.00 | | 3.10 | 10.06 | 0.13 | | | 4.66 | | | 37.76 | | | 5.11 |

745 Fig. 4



747 Fig. 5











755 Fig. 8







761 Fig. 10



764 Fig. 11