

Effect of enzyme addition on fermentative hydrogen production from wheat straw

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1 Effect of enzyme addition on fermentative hydrogen production from wheat

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Abstract

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Wheat straw is an abundant agricultural residue which can be used as raw material to produce hydrogen (H₂), a promising alternative energy carrier, at a low cost. Bioconversion of lignocellulosic biomass to produce H₂ usually involves three main operations: pretreatment, hydrolysis and fermentation. In this study, the efficiency of exogenous enzyme addition on fermentative H₂ production from wheat straw was evaluated using mixed-cultures in two experimental systems: a one-stage system (direct enzyme addition) and a two-stage system (enzymatic hydrolysis prior to dark fermentation). H₂ production from untreated wheat straw ranged from 5.18 to 10.52 mL-H₂.g-VS⁻¹. Whatever the experimental enzyme addition procedure, a two-fold increase in H₂ production yields ranging from 11.06 to 19.63 mL-H₂.g-VS⁻¹ was observed after enzymatic treatment of the wheat straw. The high variability in H₂ yields in the two step process was explained by the consumption of free sugars by indigenous wheat straw microorganisms during enzymatic hydrolysis. The direct addition of exogenous enzymes in the one-stage dark fermentation stage proved to be the best way of significantly improving H₂ production from lignocellulosic biomass. Finally, the optimal dose of enzyme mixture added to the wheat straw was evaluated between 1 to 5 mg-protein.g-raw wheat straw⁻¹.

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- Keywords: biohydrogen, wheat straw, enzymatic hydrolysis, lignocellulosic material, mixed-
- 39 cultures, dark fermentation

1. Introduction

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Hydrogen (H₂) is a key molecule of present and future energetic systems. Currently, H₂ is a commercially important molecule since large quantities of H₂ are needed in the petroleum and chemical industries (e.g. processing of fossil fuels, production of ammonia). Because H₂ is energy dense and clean burning, it is also considered to be a promising energy carrier to replace fossil fuels. However, H₂ is not readily available in sufficient amounts and its production cost is still high for transportation purposes. The technical challenges to achieve a stable H₂ economy include improving process efficiencies, lowering the production cost and harnessing renewable sources for H₂ production. Biological H₂ production by anaerobic bacteria in dark fermentation systems has gained increased attention in recent years because of high production rates, process simplicity and the utilization of low-value waste as feed material. Due to its wide abundance and distribution throughout the world, lignocellulosic biomass is considered to be one of the most attractive and low-cost feedstocks in H₂ production. Wheat straw has a great potential, among other lignocellulosic residues, all over Europe because of wide availability and low cost. Although it has traditionally been used for pulp and paper making, wheat straw is now one of the most important feedstocks for biological ethanol production, and by extension it can also be considered as an adapted feedstock for H₂ production. Usually the bioconversion of lignocellulosic waste to H₂ requires pretreatment and hydrolysis of the biomass prior to dark fermentation. H₂ yields varied greatly depending not only on the type of pretreatment/hydrolysis process, but also on the quality of the substrates (e.g. wheat straw, poplar leaves, corn stover) and the starting inoculum, either bacterial consortia (e.g. anaerobic digested sludge) or pure cultures of mesophilic (e.g. Clostridium butyricum) and thermophilic bacteria (e.g. Caldicellulosiruptor saccharolyticus). Several pretreatment methods have been used to improve hydrolysis yields and H₂ production yields. These pretreatments are required to alter the complex structure of lignocellulosic material that is composed of cellulose (40–50%), hemicelluloses (25–35%) and lignin (15–20%). Hydrolysis has been shown to be the rate-limiting step in biomass conversion to bioenergy. The pretreatments make the main constituents, cellulose and hemicellulose, more accessible to enzymes that convert carbohydrate polymers into monosaccharides. They are classified into four groups: physical (e.g. mechanical disruption), chemical (e.g. alkali, dilute acid), thermal (e.g. steam explosion) and biological (e.g. lignin degradation by white rot fungi) treatments. The major drawback of the most-used dilute sulfuric acid (H2SO4) pretreatment is the formation of undesirable by-products such as aliphatic acids, furan derivatives or phenol compounds which inhibit the action of enzymes and/or further reduce anaerobic treatment of the hydrolyzates [20, 21]. In the case of complex anaerobic consortia, H₂ production by dark fermentation was shown to be more influenced than methane production [22, 23]. The concentration and diversity of these toxic compounds vary according to the type of raw material and to pretreatment conditions. In addition, enzymatic hydrolysis presents several advantages over chemical hydrolysis, such as lower equipment costs, higher monosaccharide conversion yields and lower release of inhibitory compounds. Cellulases and hemicellulases play an important role in the hydrolysis of cellulose and hemicellulose, respectively. The efficiency of such enzymatic hydrolysis has been shown to depend on various factors, such as substrate, environmental conditions (e.g. temperature, pH) and biomass physico-chemical pretreatments. Furthermore, commercial enzyme cocktails are often not effective when used alone. The impact of the addition of exogenous enzyme on fermentative H₂ production has not received much investigation, despite being widely studied regarding bioethanol production or anaerobic digestion. Nevertheless, enzymatic pretreatment has been recently found to be more effective than acid

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pretreatment in improving H₂ production from poplar leaves. According to our knowledge, the different methods of enzyme addition to dark fermentation systems have been poorly studied.

The aim of this study is to determine the impact of an undefined enzyme mixture (CEP) on fermentative H₂ production from wheat straw. Firstly, the efficiency of the CEP enzyme mixture in improving the conversion of wheat straw cellulosic and hemicellulosic compounds to glucose and xylose was investigated. Next, the impact of two enzyme addition procedures was evaluated in a one-stage system (direct enzyme addition) and a two-stage system (enzymatic hydrolysis prior to dark fermentation). The effect of the enzyme dose on H₂ production was finally assessed.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Raw materials

Wheat straw (*Triticum aestivum*) was harvested in France (Ardissan) during summer 2010, milled to reach a particle size of between 5 and 10 mm, and then stored at room temperature in a dry place. The basic chemical composition of the wheat straw is given in Table 1. Sterile (120°C, 20 min) or non-sterile wheat straw was used for enzymatic hydrolysis.

2.2. Enzymatic mixture

Among the proprietary enzyme mixtures developed by Protéus and IFPEN, CEP was selected for its ability to degrade lignocellulosic biomass. This enzymatic cocktail is secreted by an

engineered *Trichoderma* strain and shows optimal pH and temperature of 4.8 and 50°C, respectively. The cocktail contains enzymatic system transforming efficiently cellulosic polymers to glucose as well as hemicellulosic activities.

2.3. Enzymatic hydrolysis

Enzymatic hydrolysis was performed in 100-mL erlenmeyer flasks containing 5 mg of proteins and 1 g of wheat straw in a total liquid volume of 20 mL of distilled water at pH 5.5. The flasks were shaken at 100 rpm and incubated at 37°C (the optimal temperature for H_2 production using the selected mesophilic microbial inoculum) or 50°C (the optimal temperature for CEP enzyme mixture activity – data not shown), for 24-50 hours. Hydrolysis efficiency was assessed by measuring the total sugar content in the liquid phase. For this, samples of 1 mL were periodically collected, centrifuged, filtered through 0.2 μ m filters and kept at -20°C before chemical analysis. Control tests were carried out under the same conditions with no enzyme addition.

2.4. Hydrogen production in batch tests

H₂ production experiments were carried out in 500 mL glass bottles under discontinuous batch conditions. Mesophilic anaerobically-digested sludge pretreated by heat-shock treatment (90°C, 10 min) was used as *inoculum*. The bacterial consortium was composed mainly of clostridial species. Two milliliters of the pretreated inoculum (final concentration of 250 mg-COD.L⁻¹) were added to a culture medium containing 40 mM of 2-(N-morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid (MES) buffer, with a final working volume of 200 mL. Sterile or non-sterile wheat straw hydrolyzates (20 mL) as well as 1 g of non-sterile

unhydrolyzed wheat straw were used as substrate. The initial pH was adjusted to 5.5 (pH previously determined as optimum for H₂ production). All batch tests were performed in triplicate. After inoculation, each bottle was flushed for 5 minutes with nitrogen gas to establish anaerobic conditions. The bottles were then capped with a rubber stopper and incubated at 37°C for 10 days. Two milliliters of the mixed cultures were periodically collected and then centrifuged (20,000 g, 10 min). The supernatants were stored at -20°C for further chemical analysis.

2.5. Chemical analysis

The total solid (TS) content was measured by weighing samples in triplicate before and after drying at 105 °C for 12 h in an oven. The volatile solid (VS) content was determined after burning samples at 550 °C for 2h. The cellulose and hemicellulose fractions corresponded to a chromatographic quantification of the sugars contained in the hydrolyzate after acid hydrolysis of the raw material. Samples (300 mg) were hydrolyzed with 12 M H₂SO₄ acid for 2 h at room temperature, then diluted to reach a final acid concentration of 1.5 M, and kept at 100°C for 3 h. All samples were then centrifuged (20,000 g, 10 min) and filtered (0.20 μm) prior to their analysis by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) and refractometric detection (Waters R410). The components were separated in an Aminex HPX-87H, 300 x 7.8 mm column (Biorad) with an isocratic elution solution of 0.005 M H₂SO₄. The column temperature was maintained at 35°C, and the flow rate at 0.4 mL.min⁻¹. From this, cellulose concentration was expressed in glucose equivalent and hemicellulose concentration corresponded to the sum of xylose, arabinose, glucuronic acid and galacturonic acid contents. Acid-insoluble lignin was measured by weighing the hydrolysis residues after overnight drying at 105°C.

164 Biogas volume was periodically measured using an acidified water displacement method. 165 Biogas composition (CH₄, CO₂, H₂ and N₂) was analyzed using a gas chromatograph (Clarus 166 280, Perkin Elmer) equipped with a column HayeSep Q and a molecular sieve. Operating 167 conditions were as follows: the carrier gas was argon at a pressure of 102 kPa and a flow rate of 4.5 mL.min⁻¹; temperatures of the injector and the detector were both fixed at 150 °C. 168 169 Volatile fatty acid (VFA) composition in the liquid phase, i.e. acetic (C2), propionic (C3), 170 butyric and iso-butyric (C4 and iC4), valeric and iso-valeric (C5 and iC5) and caproic (C6) 171 acids was determined in a gas chromatograph (GC-3900, Varian) equipped with a flame 172 ionization detector. The concentration of sugars (glucose, xylose, arabinose, glucuronic acid 173 and galacturonic acid) and non-VFAs metabolic byproducts, such as organic acids (lactate) or 174 ethanol were measured by HPLC analysis. 175 In order to determine the parameters of H₂ production, the cumulative H₂ production data of 176 each test was fitted to a modified Gompertz equation (Equation 1) as previously described by 177 Quéméneur et al..

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

Where P is the maximal cumulated H₂ production (mL), R_m is the maximum H₂ production rate (mL-H₂.day⁻¹), λ is lag-phase time (day), t is the incubation time (day) and e is exp(1). The values of P, R_m and λ were estimated using a non-linear regression algorithm developed in Matlab (version 6.5, MathWorks®). The H₂ production yield was calculated by dividing the maximal H₂ production (P) by the weight of the substrate sample in gram of VS.

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3. Results and discussion

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3.1. Characterization of the CEP enzymatic activity on the saccharification process of wheat straw

3.1.1. Enzymatic saccharification of non-sterile wheat straw

At 50 °C, the addition of CEP enzyme mixture to wheat straw improved the glucose yield by a factor of 2.3 (27 \pm 6 mg-glucose.g-VS⁻¹ versus 11.9 \pm 0.4 mg-glucose.g-VS⁻¹ in the controls) (Figure 1A). No effect of CEP addition was observed on the xylose yield (Figure 1A). Maximal glucose concentration was reached at 8 hours and then decreased until 30 hours concomitantly with an increase in acetate and lactate concentrations (Figure 1B). Interestingly, no significant differences in acetate and lactate contents were observed with or without addition of the enzyme mixture. On average, the acetate concentration increased from 12.7 \pm 0.2 mg.g-VS⁻¹ at 8 hours to 17 \pm 1 mg.g-VS⁻¹ after 24 hours. Meanwhile, the lactate concentration increased from 5.4 \pm 0.4 mg.g-VS⁻¹ to 26 \pm 9 mg.g-VS⁻¹. These results suggested that the sugars released were immediately used as a carbon source by indigenous microorganisms of the wheat straw.

3.1.2. Enzymatic saccharification of sterile wheat straw

- To avoid contamination by indigenous microorganisms, an enzymatic hydrolysis test was then performed after sterilization of the wheat straw.
- 208 At 50 $^{\circ}$ C, the addition of the enzyme mixture to the sterile wheat straw improved the glucose
- yield by a factor of 6 after 30 hours of hydrolysis (41 \pm 7 mg-glucose.g-VS⁻¹ versus 7 \pm 1 mg-
- 210 glucose.g-VS⁻¹ in the controls) (Figure 2A). As previously observed in non-sterile wheat
- 211 straw, no significant effect of the enzyme mixture was observed on the xylose yield.
- However, no decrease in glucose and xylose concentrations, as well as no variation in acetate

213	and lactate concentrations were detected during the hydrolysis of the wheat straw after
214	sterilization (Figure 2B).
215	At 37°C, the addition of CEP enzyme mixture significantly increased the glucose yield by a
216	factor of 3.4 after 24 hours of hydrolysis (31.4 \pm 5.9 mg-glucose.g-VS ⁻¹ instead of 9.2 \pm 4.0
217	mg-glucose.g-VS ⁻¹ in controls) (Figure 3). As expected, the decrease in temperature from
218	50°C to 37°C reduced the enzymatic hydrolysis yield. Contrary to the observations made at
219	50°C, the glucose yield reached a steady state level within a time period of 24 to 50 hours
220	(Figure 3). Consistently with the results obtained at 50°C, no improvement of the xylose yield
221	was observed in presence of the CEP enzyme mixture (34 \pm 5 mg-xylose.g-VS ⁻¹ instead of 31
222	± 2 mg-xylose.g-VS ⁻¹ in controls).
223	To summarize, whatever the conditions, the CEP enzyme mixture used in this study exhibited
224	a mainly cellulosic activity with significant glucose release from wheat straw. However, a
225	sterilization step was required to avoid immediate glucose and xylose degradation by
226	indigenous bacteria. Despite a significant increase in glucose conservation after the enzymatic
227	attack, this wheat straw sterilization step is energy consuming and therefore not economically
228	feasible for industrial purposes. Nevertheless, taking into account the efficient glucose yield
229	obtained at 37°C, our results suggested that a direct addition of the CEP enzyme mixture to
230	non-sterile wheat straw in a one-stage dark fermentation system could be recommended for
231	concomitant release and degradation of the monomeric units. Such an approach was also
232	described as being more attractive and having a higher simplicity for implementation than two
233	step processes.

3.2. Effect of the method for enzyme addition on hydrogen production from wheat straw

3.2.1. Hydrogen production from wheat straw by mixed-cultures

The biogas produced from wheat straw by anaerobic mixed-cultures contained only H₂ and CO₂, with no detectable CH₄, indicating that the heat shock pretreatment had effectively removed the methanogens initially present in the anaerobic inoculum. Figure 4 shows the cumulative H₂ production over 10 days of incubation. The data presented in Figure 4 fitted well to the Gompertz equation (1), with determination coefficients R² over 0.98 on average (Table 2).

When no enzyme was added to the wheat straw, the H₂ yields ranged from 5.18 to 10.52 mL-

H₂.g-VS⁻¹ (Table 2). These H₂ yields were greater or equal to those reported in the literature

from batch tests using untreated wheat straw as substrate, i.e. from 1 to 6.4 mL-H₂.g-VS⁻¹.

This result indicates that the heat-treated mesophilic microbial inoculum was able to produce

249 H₂ from raw lignocellulosic material.

3.2.2. One-stage versus two-stage dark fermentation systems

The effect of the addition of the CEP enzyme mixture (at 5 mg-protein.g-wheat straw⁻¹) on fermentative H₂ production from sterile and non-sterile wheat straw was tested under mesophilic conditions in two systems: (i) in one-stage dark fermentation batch tests where CEP enzyme mixture was directly added and (ii) in two stage tests where an enzymatic hydrolysis of 24 hours was performed prior to the dark fermentation batch tests.

3.2.2.1. Hydrogen production from wheat straw in one-stage systems

Direct CEP enzyme addition to non-sterile wheat straw (one-stage system) significantly increased the H₂ production yields by a factor of 2 (19.63 mL-H₂.g-VS⁻¹ vs 10.52 mL-H₂.g-

 VS^{-1} in the controls with no enzyme addition) (Table 2). Thus, the tested enzyme mixture effectively enhanced the H_2 yield from wheat straw, probably through the release of additional carbohydrate units, such as glucose, in the medium. This result is consistant with the observations of Cui et al. who reported a significant increase in H_2 yield from poplar leaves with enzymatic pretreatment using 2% Vicozyme L (Novozyme).

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3.2.2.2. Hydrogen production from wheat straw in two-stage systems

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A two-fold increase in the H₂ production yields (11.06 mL-H₂.g-VS⁻¹ vs 5.18 mL-H₂.g-VS⁻¹ in controls) was also observed in the two-stage systems where an enzymatic hydrolysis of 24 hours was performed on non-sterile wheat straw (Table 2). However, these H₂ yields were significantly lower than those obtained under the same conditions using sterile wheat straw. Interestingly, these H₂ yields were statistically similar to the controls performed in one-stage dark fermentation (Table 2). Assuming that the H₂ potential of xylose is about the same of glucose (i.e. 160 mL-H₂.g-glucose⁻¹) (data not shown), a first approximation of the two-stage H₂ potential can be assessed from the amount of glucose and xylose released during enzymatic hydrolysis (1st stage). It was estimated at 5.5 mL-H₂ g-VS⁻¹ in sterile wheat straw controls from 6.8 mg-glucose.g-VS⁻¹ and 27.0 mg-xylose.g-VS⁻¹ (Figure 2A). In contrast, it was estimated at 1.92 mL-H₂ g-VS⁻¹ in non-sterile wheat straw controls (from 1.0 mgglucose.g-VS⁻¹ and 13.0 mg-xylose.g-VS⁻¹ (Figure 1A). The difference between these two estimated values (3.58 mL-H₂.g-VS⁻¹) is in agreement with the measured H₂ yield difference obtained between sterile and non-sterile wheat straw (3.63 mL-H₂.g-VS⁻¹). The decrease in H2 yields from sterile to non-sterile wheat straw in the two-stage systems was therefore explained by a direct and almost total consumption of the sugars released during the enzymatic hydrolysis step by indigenous microorganisms. In fact, the consumption of sugars

simultaneously increased the acetate and lactate levels which cannot be further reused in fermentative pathways for H₂ production, as shown previously (Figure 1B).

To summarize, both methods of enzyme addition increased the H₂ production yield by a factor of 2 (Table 2). However, no significant difference in the H₂ production yields was obtained between direct enzyme addition to non-sterile wheat straw (19.63 ± 1.21 mL-H₂.g-VS⁻¹) and enzymatic pretreatment of sterile wheat straw (18.13 ± 1.57 mL-H₂.g-VS⁻¹) (Figure 4). These results showed that wheat straw sterilization and the separated hydrolysis step (two-stage system) before dark fermentation is not advantageous in comparison to direct addition of the CEP enzyme mixture. In contrast, Lo et al. reported that a similar two-stage system consisting of a hydrolytic step of xylan followed by a dark fermentation stage with *C. butyricum* CGS5 exhibited higher H₂ production efficiency than a one-stage system with simultaneous saccharification and dark fermentation. The authors attributed the differences in performance to the operation temperature (37 °C) used in the one-stage system which was not optimal for xylan hydrolysis. Despite the same temperature constraints, our results reveal that the one-stage system is more favourable than the two-stage system due to higher H₂ production efficiency, higher simplicity, and lower operational cost.

3.2.3. Main metabolic pathways in both one- and two- stage dark fermentation systems

As expected, the H_2 production yields were strongly related to acetate (Pearson's product-moment correlation r = 0.93, p<0.01) and butyrate accumulation (Pearson's r = 0.89, p<0.05). Moreover, the highest H_2 yield matched with the highest yields of acetate and butyrate (Table 2). The abundance of butyrate as well as acetate is a typical characteristic of acid fermentation of carbohydrate-rich substrates [4]. Similarly, Fan et al. reported that acetate and butyrate are dominant VFAs when wheat straw is used as a substrate for mesophilic H_2 production. The

production of butyrate and acetate as main fermentation end-products also suggested that clostridial species were the dominant bacteria in the mixed cultures. In addition, the butyrate/acetate ratio has been suggested as a useful indicator for monitoring H_2 production in dark fermentation processes (Han and Shin, 2004). However, in our study, no correlation was observed between the H_2 yields and the butyrate/acetate ratios (Pearson's r=0.47, p>0.05) (Table 2). Furthermore, the same acetate and butyrate yields were found in the case of direct enzyme addition to non-sterile wheat straw as well as after enzymatic pretreatment of sterile wheat straw: an acetate yield of 32.2 mg-acetate.g-VS⁻¹ was measured for sterile wheat straw treated by CEP in a two-stage system, and a similar value of 31.5 mg-acetate.g-VS⁻¹ was obtained after direct enzyme addition (Table 2). This result confirms that the separated hydrolysis step and/or sterilization had no beneficial effect on H_2 production yields when compared to the one-stage dark fermentation system.

3.3. Effect of enzyme dose on hydrogen production performances from wheat straw

The impact of enzyme dose on cumulative H_2 production performances was also evaluated in additional one-stage fermentation batch tests with a gradient of CEP enzyme mixture concentration: 0, 1, 5 and 10 mg-protein.g-wheat straw⁻¹.

3.3.1. Effect of enzyme dose on hydrogen production

Whatever the tested concentrations, CEP enzyme addition led to a significant increase in cumulated H₂ production (Figure 5). The Gompertz model provided a good fit with the

The higher the enzyme dose, the greater was the H_2 production rate. Indeed, the highest H_2 production rates (17.91 \pm 0.91 mL- H_2 .day⁻¹) were obtained for 10 mg-protein.g-wheat straw⁻¹. However, with a value of 6.51 ± 2.04 mL- H_2 .day⁻¹, a dose of 1 mg of enzyme did not significantly increase the H_2 production rate compared to the controls (8.30 \pm 0.40 mL- H_2 .day⁻¹). The H_2 production potential increased gradually from 9.21 to 18.91 mL- H_2 with an increase in enzyme concentration (Table 2). Although positive effects of enzyme mixture loading were observed on H_2 yield (Figure 6), no significant linear correlation was obtained between H_2 yield and the enzyme mixture concentration (Pearson's r = 0.89, p>0.05). The increments in H_2 production rate were lower when enzyme concentration exceeded 5 mg-protein.g-wheat straw⁻¹ (Figure 6). Indeed, H_2 production differences ranged from 4.94 to 0.33 mL- H_2 .mg-additional protein⁻¹ while enzyme mixture concentrations increased respectively from 1 to 10 mg-protein.g-wheat straw⁻¹.

cumulated H₂ production data as shown in Figure 5, with determination coefficients R² over

3.3.2. Effect of enzyme dose on metabolites

Whatever the enzyme dose, the predominant VFA present in the one-stage systems was butyrate, followed by acetate (Table 2). As observed in the H_2 yields, the acetate yields increased from 12.8 to 37.9 mg·g·VS⁻¹ as enzyme mixture concentration increased. Butyrate levels followed a similar pattern to that of acetate: the higher the dose, the greater was the butyrate concentration. The highest butyrate yield observed with 10 mg-protein.g-wheat straw⁻¹ was related to the highest H_2 yield. Butyrate level was 3.3 times greater than in the control for this amount of added enzyme. However, no linear correlation was observed between the H_2 and the butyrate/acetate ratio (Bu/Ac) (Pearson's r = 0.41, p>0.05) (Table 2).

Furthermore, no significant difference in Bu/Ac ratios, ranging between 1.27 and 1.56, were detected according to the enzyme load (Table 2), suggesting that no metabolic switches occurred depending only on changes in enzyme mixture concentration.

Correlation analysis highlighted a strong positive correlation between VFA production and enzyme concentrations (Pearson's r = 0.96-0.98, p<0.05). Despite the significant increase in VFA concentration with increasing enzyme concentrations from 1 to 5 mg-protein.g-wheat straw⁻¹, no significant VFA production increment was observed for concentrations ranging from 5 to 10 mg-protein.g-wheat straw⁻¹. These results reveal that the optimal dose of enzymes in terms of cost effectiveness for H₂ production ranged from 1 to 5 mg-protein.g-wheat straw⁻¹.

4. Conclusions

The present study shows that enzyme addition substantially enhanced fermentative H₂ production from wheat straw. A two-fold increase in H₂ production yields was obtained with enzymatic treated wheat straw compared to no treatment. The impact of the enzyme mixture on the H₂ production performances was comparable using enzyme addition to one-stage fermentation or enzyme pretreatment of 24 hours prior to fermentation. When using the separate hydrolysis step, the sterilization of wheat straw is an important requirement in order to maintain the benefit of the action of the enzymes. Indeed, a decrease in H₂ production yields was observed in non-sterile wheat straw and was associated with the reconsumption of sugar released during enzymatic hydrolysis. Using one-stage dark fermentation, H₂ yield can also be improved with increasing amounts of CEP enzyme mixture. Taking this into account, direct enzyme addition to a one-stage dark fermentation system was found finally to be the most suitable experimental design to improve H2 production performances from wheat straw.

References

389 **Figures captions** 390 391 Figure 1. Amounts of sugars released (A) from enzymatic hydrolysis of non-sterile wheat straw (WS^{raw}) at 50°C using CEP enzyme mixture, and microbial metabolite accumulation 392 393 (B). Values correspond to means of three replicated independent values \pm confidence intervals 394 (error bars). 395 396 Figure 2. Amounts of sugars released (A) from enzymatic hydrolysis of sterile wheat straw (WS^{ster}) at 50°C using CEP enzyme mixture, and microbial metabolite accumulation (B). 397 398 Values correspond to means of three replicated independent values \pm confidence intervals 399 (error bars). 400 401 Figure 3. Amounts of sugars released from enzymatic hydrolysis of sterile wheat straw 402 (WS^{ster}) at 37°C using CEP enzyme mixture. Values correspond to means of three replicated 403 independent values \pm confidence intervals (error bars). 404 405 Figure 4. Cumulative hydrogen production at 37°C from sterile (WS^{ster}) and non-sterile wheat straw (WS^{raw}) in a one-stage system, 1-SS (with direct CEP enzyme addition), and in a two-406 407 stage system, 2-SS (with 24h enzymatic hydrolysis prior to dark fermentation). Values 408 correspond to means of three replicated independent values ± confidence intervals (error 409 bars). 410 Figure 5. Cumulative hydrogen production from non-sterile wheat straw (WS^{raw}) in a one-411 412 stage system with direct addition of different CEP enzyme mixture concentrations (0, 1, 5 and

10 mg-protein.g-wheat straw⁻¹) at 37°C. Values correspond to means of three replicated independent values ± confidence intervals (error bars).

Figure 6. Relationship between the hydrogen production yields and the CEP enzyme mixture concentrations. Values correspond to means of three replicated independent values ± confidence intervals (error bars).

 Table 1. Composition of the untreated wheat straw used as substrate.

Component (unit)	Value
Total solids – TS (%)	94.1 ± 0.6
Volatile solids - VS (%)	87.5 ± 0.9
Cellulose (g.g-VS ⁻¹)	0.29 ± 0.03
Hemicellulose (g.g-VS ⁻¹)	0.24 ± 0.03
Lignin (g.g-VS ⁻¹)	0.28 ± 0.01
Glucose (g.g-VS ⁻¹)	0.29 ± 0.03
Xylose (g.g-VS ⁻¹)	0.22 ± 0.025
Arabinose (g.g-VS ⁻¹)	0.016 ± 0.002

Table 2. Fermentative hydrogen production performances from wheat straw in mesophilic conditions

Substrate	Methods of enzyme addition	Enzyme mixture	Modified Gompertz equation parameter values						Butyrate	Butyrate/
		concentration (mg-protein.g-raw wheat straw ⁻¹)	$R_{\rm m}$ (mL-H ₂ .day ⁻¹)	P (mL-H ₂)	λ (days)	R ² (range)	H ₂ yield (mL.g-VS ⁻¹)	Acetate yield (mg.g-VS ⁻¹)	yield (mg.g-VS ⁻¹)	acetate ratio
Unsterile wheat straw Sterile wheat straw	Direct addition (one-stage system)	0 (Control)	$8.30 (\pm 0.40)$	$9.21 (\pm 0.41)$	$1.47 (\pm 0.22)$	0.999 - 1	$10.52 (\pm 0.46)$	$12.8 (\pm 6.7)$	16.3 (± 4.4)	1.27
		1	$6.51 (\pm 2.04)$	$13.59 (\pm 0.51)$	$1.07~(\pm~0.08)$	0.983 - 0.989	$15.52 (\pm 0.58)$	$19.1~(\pm~2.5)$	29.9 (± 2.4)	1.56
		5	$17.47 (\pm 1.73)$	$17.18 (\pm 1.06)$	$1.41 (\pm 0.22)$	0.997 - 0.999	19.63 (± 1.21)	$31.5 (\pm 5.7)$	$43.4 (\pm 4.4)$	1.38
		10	$17.91 (\pm 0.91)$	$18.91 (\pm 0.77)$	$1.23~(\pm~0.02)$	0.985 - 0.999	$21.61 (\pm 0.88)$	$37.9 (\pm 10.3)$	53.9 (± 12.4)	1.42
	Enzymatic hydrolysis of 24h (two-stage system)	0 (Control)	5.08 (± 1.16)	$4.53 (\pm 0.12)$	$0.22 (\pm 0.03)$	0.972 - 0.997	5.18 (± 1.13)	$1.2 (\pm 2.1)$	$1.5 (\pm 2.5)$	1.19
		5	12.74 (± 3.94)	9.68 (± 1.22)	$1.20~(\pm~0.03)$	0.949 - 0.999	$11.06 (\pm 1.40)$	$24.7 (\pm 4.0)$	$39.7 (\pm 4.6)$	1.61
		0 (Control)	$3.86 (\pm 0.34)$	$7.71 (\pm 0.77)$	$2.66 (\pm 0.60)$	0.968 - 1	$8.81 (\pm 0.88)$	14.1 (± 12.4)	16.8 (± 4.1)	1.19
		5	$14.45 \ (\pm \ 1.58)$	$15.86 (\pm 1.37)$	$1.19 (\pm 0.04)$	0.982 - 0.994	$18.13 (\pm 1.57)$	$32.2 (\pm 0.7)$	$46.3 (\pm 3.1)$	1.43















