

1 Article

# 2 Effect of Pasteurisation on Methane Yield from Food 3 Waste and other Substrates in Anaerobic Digestion

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8 Received: date; Accepted: date; Published: date

9 **Abstract:** The effect of pasteurisation and co-pasteurisation on biochemical methane potential  
10 values in anaerobic digestion (AD) was studied. Pasteurisation prior to digestion in a biogas plant  
11 is a common hygienisation method for organic materials which contain or have been in contact with  
12 animal by-products. Tests were carried out on food waste, slaughterhouse waste, animal blood,  
13 cattle slurry, potato waste, card packaging and the organic fraction of municipal solid waste  
14 (OFMSW); pasteurisation at 70°C for 1 hour was applied. Pasteurisation increased the methane  
15 yields of blood (+ 15%) and potato waste (+ 12%) only, which both had a low content of structural  
16 carbohydrates (hemi-cellulose, cellulose) but a particularly high content of either non-structural  
17 carbohydrates such as starch (potato waste) or proteins (blood). With food waste, card packaging  
18 and cattle slurry, pasteurisation had no observable impact on the methane yield. Slaughterhouse  
19 waste and OFMSW yielded less methane after pasteurisation in the experiments (but statistical  
20 significance of the difference between pasteurised and unpasteurised slaughterhouse waste or  
21 OFMSW was not confirmed in this work). It is concluded that pasteurisation can positively impact  
22 the methane yield of some specific substrates, such as potato waste where the heat-treatment may  
23 induce gelatinisation with release of the starch molecules. For most substrates, however,  
24 pasteurisation at 70°C is unlikely to increase the methane yield. It is unlikely to improve  
25 biodegradability of lignified materials and it may reduce the methane yield from substrates which  
26 contain high contents of volatile components. Furthermore, in this experimental study the obtained  
27 methane yield was unaffected by whether the substrates were pasteurised individually and then co-  
28 digested or co-pasteurised as a mixture before batch digestion.

29 **Keywords:** food waste; anaerobic digestion; pasteurisation; methane yield; animal by-products  
30 regulation  
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## 32 1. Introduction

33 Anaerobic digestion (AD), which yields both biogas as energy carrier and digestate as valuable  
34 soil amendment, is a suitable and frequently implemented valorisation pathway for food waste and  
35 organic by-products occurring along the food supply chain. However, organic residues which  
36 embody meat or meat products or have been contaminated by such materials, or which originate  
37 from livestock breeding, can contain pathogenic microorganisms that are of sanitary concern when  
38 applying AD digestate to agricultural land [1,2]. Through contamination of plants grown on  
39 agricultural land, infectious microorganisms in AD digestate can cause outbreaks of human or animal  
40 diseases [3,4]. To prevent such spreading of disease, hygienisation is required. This can be achieved  
41 through thermal hygienisation, chemical treatment such as ozonation, electro-technology such as  
42 pulsed electrical field or high voltage discharge, or physico-chemical methods such as ultrasound  
43 technology, microwave irradiation or hydrostatic pressure [1]. Thermal hygienisation is most  
44 commonly applied [5]; it is a relatively straightforward choice for AD plants, as the digestion process

45 itself produces enough energy to enable such treatment on site. In some countries, hygienisation is  
46 mandatory when processing animal by-products, and AD plant operators accepting such materials  
47 are obliged to respect the animal by-products regulations (ABPR). In the European Union (EU),  
48 pasteurisation at 70°C for 1 hour, applied to substrate where a particle size of maximum 12 mm is  
49 ensured, is the defined standard for meat-containing wastes from food processing, food waste from  
50 households and restaurants and slaughterhouse waste of animals which had been fit to deliver  
51 products for human consumption [6,7].

52 Where organic material undergoes pasteurisation, the impact is not limited to the hygienisation  
53 effect. Pasteurisation, as a thermal pre-treatment, affects the physical and chemical structure of the  
54 feedstock itself, which can potentially impact biodegradability of the material during the processing  
55 in the AD reactor and consequently the methane yield obtained from that biomass [8]. The pre-  
56 treatment may alter morphology of the substrate particles [9], enhance solubilisation of the organic  
57 material and facilitate accessibility for microorganisms [1,10], thus accelerating hydrolysis in the AD  
58 plant. Conversion of complex substances into simpler ones, such as proteins into amino acids or long-  
59 chain-fatty acids into volatile fatty acids, can already occur during the pasteurisation step [1], or the  
60 pasteurisation might induce more rapid conversion of substrate after initiation of the AD process.  
61 The effect on AD performance is difficult to predict, but an impact on process kinetics can be  
62 expected. Accelerated hydrolysis might translate into accelerated biogas production, which has been  
63 observed for pasteurised sewage sludge [11]; but more rapid hydrolysis also increases the risk of an  
64 accumulation of potentially inhibitory substances, such as volatile fatty acids (VFA) degraded from  
65 long chain fatty acids or ammonia originating from proteins [12]. While such inhibitory effects might  
66 be recoverable phenomena, they would cause a delayed production of biogas and potentially  
67 incomplete degradation of substrate [8,13].

68 The review of Liu et al. [1] found only a small number of studies addressing the effect of  
69 pasteurisation on biogas production. Some reported an enhanced AD performance after  
70 pasteurisation of slaughterhouse waste, sewage sludge, cattle slurry or mixtures of substrates, with  
71 an increase of methane yield that usually ranged between marginal values and 50% [1,14–18]. Other  
72 studies found no impact of pasteurisation on methane yield from slaughterhouse waste [8,10,19],  
73 animal slurry [1,12] or sewage sludge [1]. For slaughterhouse waste and sewage sludge, however,  
74 some studies reported negative effects with a drop in methane yield when using pasteurised  
75 substrate [1,12,20]. Liu et al. [1] concluded that thermal pre-treatment of wastes that are rich in protein  
76 and grease might generate critically elevated concentrations of acids or ammonia, with the risk of  
77 inhibiting the methanogenic process during AD. Rodriguez-Abalde et al. [21] studied slaughterhouse  
78 by-products which differed in protein and carbohydrate concentrations; they observed improvement  
79 in organic matter solubilisation for all substrate types, but only the materials with low carbohydrate  
80 contents showed higher methane yield after thermal pre-treatment, while no significant methane  
81 increase occurred after thermal pre-treatment when carbohydrate content of the biomass was high.  
82 They concluded that the observed reduction in bioavailability for wastes with a high carbohydrate  
83 content might be due to the formation of low-biodegradability compounds through Maillard  
84 reactions during thermal pre-treatment, i.e. chemical reactions between the carbohydrates (sugars)  
85 and amino acids from proteins. Maillard reactions depend on ambient conditions such as  
86 temperature, pH and water activity [22] and have been reported to occur at 100°C or lower [22–24],  
87 including at around 60°C [25,26], i.e. at temperature levels which include 70°C (pasteurisation  
88 temperature). However, the picture is still incomplete [1].

89 Food waste is among the most ubiquitous energy-rich organic materials suitable for AD [27–29].  
90 Food waste is an attractive choice for co-digestion due to the relatively high biogas yield of this  
91 substrate [30–33]. At agricultural AD plants, where economic viability is difficult to achieve with  
92 manure or slurry feedstocks alone, taking in food waste is a favourable option [34]. In the EU, food  
93 waste from households, restaurants and industry falls under ABPR hygienisation requirements, with  
94 pasteurisation at 70°C as a standard. AD of food waste for biogas production has been widely studied,  
95 but the effect of pasteurisation on biogas production has not previously been researched. Zarkadas  
96 et al. [35] examined the performance of pasteurised food waste when co-digested with cattle slurry,

97 and observed very good performance up to a ratio of 25% food waste by wet weight; however, they  
98 did not digest unpasteurised food waste, and also not food waste alone. Pagliaccia et al. [36] reported  
99 a reduction of the methane yield obtained in mesophilic AD after thermal pre-treatment of food  
100 waste, which occurred along with an increased initial hydrogen production in response to the  
101 carbohydrate solubilisation; but the pre-treatment was conducted at 134°C and a pressure of 3.2 bar,  
102 and thus might not occur for standard pasteurisation at 70°C.

103 The available studies about the impact of pasteurisation on AD are based on a few selected  
104 organic materials and the findings are partially contradictory and difficult to interpret [1,10]. One  
105 possible explanation for the variations among the findings is that methodologies applied, and  
106 experimental methods used, were not the same [1]. Furthermore, in some studies the duration of the  
107 experiments was too short to allow reliable conclusions about the ultimate methane yield from  
108 pasteurised material [8]. Other studies applied co-digestion of pasteurised substrates but did not  
109 study the performance of individual substrates.

110 The existing knowledge in this area is thus uncertain and incomplete, making it difficult for the  
111 AD industry to assess the impact of pasteurisation in the development of biogas production  
112 technology. While pasteurisation is required in many cases under the ABPR, it is often justified as  
113 potentially increasing the methane yield, and thus contributing to a more favourable energy balance  
114 of the AD process. The body of knowledge to support or criticise this argument, however, is  
115 insufficient, and thus this work contributes to closing this knowledge gap. This research therefore  
116 involved parallel testing of the experimentally-obtained biochemical methane potential (BMP) of a  
117 range of common waste types under standardised conditions to allow more informed assessment of  
118 whether pasteurisation / co-pasteurisation is likely to affect the methane yield and kinetic aspects of  
119 anaerobic degradation. Processing the different materials in parallel under standardised conditions  
120 contributes to closing the existing knowledge gap regarding the specific performance of different  
121 types of materials that are commonly subjected to pasteurisation before AD. This supports full-scale  
122 plant operators to understand the implications of pasteurisation regarding methane production of  
123 the AD plant when processing different types of wastes, and it also contributes to identifying further  
124 research needs in this field.

## 125 2. Materials and Methods

126 BMP testing was conducted on source-separated domestic food waste, slaughterhouse waste  
127 (consisting of pig gut with flotation fat), animal blood, cattle slurry, potato waste, card packaging and  
128 on the organic fraction of municipal solid waste (OFMSW) recovered in a mechanical-biological  
129 treatment (MBT) plant. Potato waste, which is not an animal by-product but a vegetable waste, was  
130 included in the study because in the UK it is a high-volume organic residue stream in the food sector,  
131 and due to its low nitrogen content has been suggested as a suitable co-substrate to accompany in the  
132 biogas plant the digestion of food waste or slaughterhouse waste (susceptible to AD inhibition due  
133 to high nitrogen content) [37]. Card packaging was included because it can be collected together with  
134 food waste and, again, as co-substrate can favourably lower the nitrogen content in AD when  
135 digesting food waste or slaughterhouse waste [37].

### 136 2.1. Materials

137 The rationale for the choice of substrates is explained above (more background information is  
138 available in the technical report of the project [37]), while the following documents the origin and  
139 characteristics of the materials.

140 *Food waste:* Source-separated domestic food waste (210 kg) was obtained from the environmental  
141 services provider Cwm Harry Estates, Newtown, Powys, UK. The food waste was collected on site  
142 and transported in sealed drums to the laboratory of University of Southampton.

143 *Slaughterhouse waste:* Two batches of pig gut (each with a weight of around 8 kg), and one batch  
144 of recovered fat (5 kg) were obtained from the slaughterhouse Grampian Country Pork-Case,  
145 Taunton, Somerset, UK. At this slaughterhouse, the average annual arising of pig gut waste is around  
146 800 tonnes and around two tonnes of fat are captured in the facility's fat traps per year. At the

147 company site, there were no further process steps (e.g. dissolved air flotation) to remove fat from the  
148 generated slaughterhouse wastewater stream, and thus in this study it was assumed that the  
149 retrieved trap material is representative of separable fat occurring at slaughterhouses. Sampled pig  
150 gut and recovered fat were mixed to represent the slaughterhouse waste. In the current study, the  
151 proportion of mixed gut and fat used was 9:1 respectively on a VS (volatile solids) basis.

152 *Animal blood:* Sheep blood (20 kg) was obtained from an abattoir in Farnborough, Hampshire,  
153 UK (operating company R.W. Newman and Partners).

154 *Cattle slurry:* A 20-kg sample of fresh material was obtained from a dairy farm (Parkers Farm,  
155 Hampshire, UK). Using a tractor-mounted scraper, the slurry was secured from the milking area at  
156 the farm immediately after the milking was done.

157 *Potato waste:* A 2-kg sample was provided by Forest Products Ltd, Dorset, UK. The potato waste  
158 consisted of raw potato chip (before frying) rejected for the manufacturing of crisps and was  
159 essentially a two-dimensional material (slice thickness of around 0.5 mm).

160 *Card packaging:* 100 kg of card packaging mixture was retrieved from the Materials Recovery  
161 Facility (MRF) in Alton, Hampshire, UK (operated by Veolia Environmental Services (UK) Ltd). This  
162 mixed card packaging, which is a reject stream from the MRF, was sorted into three fractions, namely  
163 corrugated cardboard as one fraction, card packaging as another fraction and other card as the third  
164 fraction; then the material was blended in proportions of 29.6%, 62.5% and 7.9% respectively on a  
165 fresh weight basis, based on previous waste compositional studies regarding the average card  
166 packaging waste in the UK [37].

167 *Organic fraction of municipal solid waste (OFMSW):* 100 kg of mechanically-recovered OFMSW  
168 were collected from Bursom Recycling Centre, Leicester, UK. This was the organic fraction remaining  
169 after pre-processing of municipal solid waste to recover plastic, paper and card, glass and metal using  
170 a combination of processes including a ball mill, magnetic separator, ballistic separator, and eddy  
171 current separator. The mean particle size of the OFMSW was 6.0 mm, with most of the particles (>  
172 99%) being below 13.2 mm [38].

173 Wastes were transported to the laboratory of University of Southampton and either processed  
174 immediately (same day) or stored overnight in a cold room ( $3^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). To homogenise the substrate,  
175 each of the samples was thoroughly mixed, with any agglomerates formed during transportation  
176 being gently broken up. A macerating grinder was used for the wet materials (S52/010 Waste  
177 Disposer, Imperial Machine Company Ltd, Hertfordshire, UK). Where necessary, material  
178 dimensions were reduced by coarse cutting by hand or using mills. Physico-chemical characterisation  
179 of substrates was accomplished using the methods described below. Analyses were done in triplicate  
180 or more for food waste and OFMSW in most cases (some parameters considered in duplicate only  
181 due to operational problems; pH done in duplicate only); for the other substrates, parameters were  
182 analysed in triplicate or in replicate (the full data set is available on the open access repository of  
183 University of Southampton: <https://doi.org/10.5258/SOTON/xxxxx>). Table 1 shows the substrate  
184 characteristics (average values with standard deviations).

185 The range of properties determined for the substrates is more extensive than typically available  
186 in similar work, providing a very detailed picture of the materials and valuable data on their  
187 constituents.

188 The inoculum was municipal wastewater biosolids digestate from a mesophilic ( $35^{\circ}\text{C}$ – $37^{\circ}\text{C}$ )  
189 anaerobic digester at Millbrook wastewater treatment plant, Southampton, UK. The collected  
190 digestate was strained through a 1 mm mesh before use, and then had the following characteristics:  
191 TS:  $4.48 \pm 0.07$  % WW, VS:  $62.8 \pm 1.4$  % TS, TKN:  $77.5 \pm 1.5$  g N  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  TS, TP:  $32.4 \pm 3.5$  g P  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  TS, TK:  
192  $2.90 \pm 0.29$  g K  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  TS, Cd:  $1.10 \pm 0.21$  mg  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  TS, Cr:  $67.3 \pm 5.3$  mg  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  TS, Cu:  $462 \pm 9$  mg  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  TS, Ni:  
193  $52.9 \pm 7.4$  mg  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  TS, Pb:  $83.8 \pm 8.4$  mg  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  TS, Zn:  $718 \pm 27$  mg  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  TS.

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**Table 1.** Characteristics of the substrates used in this study (WW: wet weight; TS: total solids; VS: volatile solids; TOC: total organic carbon; TAN: total ammoniacal nitrogen; TKN: total Kjeldahl nitrogen; Biodegradable C: biodegradable carbon; TP: total phosphorous; TK: total potassium; CV: calorific value).

	Food waste	Slaughter house waste <sup>1</sup>	Animal blood <sup>2</sup>	Cattle slurry	Potato waste	Card packing	OFMSW
Basic characteristics relevant for anaerobic digestion, including nutrients							
pH	4.71 ± 0.01 (1:5) <sup>3</sup>	5.96 ± 0.04 (1:5) <sup>3</sup>	7.23 ± 0.06	7.83 ± 0.07 (1:5) <sup>3</sup>	8.12 ± 0.01 (1:5) <sup>3</sup>	7.21 ± 0.03 (1:30) <sup>3</sup>	6.39 ± 0.01 (1:5) <sup>3</sup>
TS (% WW)	23.7 ± 0.1	20.8 ± 0.3	19.7 ± 0.3	9.31 ± 0.14	24.7 ± 0.0	93.9 ± 0.1	52.8 ± 0.6
VS (% WW)	21.7 ± 0.1	19.4 ± 0.3	18.9 ± 0.3	6.52 ± 0.04	23.1 ± 0.0	78.5 ± 0.4	33.6 ± 0.6
VS (% TS)	91.4 ± 0.4	93.2 ± 0.1	95.6 ± 0.1	70.0 ± 0.6	93.2 ± 0.0	83.6 ± 0.5	63.5 ± 1.9
TOC (% TS)	47.6 ± 0.5	45.5 ± 1.7	41.9 ± 0.7	38.9 ± 1.0	42.7 ± 1.1	41.6 ± 0.7	35.0 ± 0.4
TAN (% TS)	-	-	-	1.15 ± 0.01	-	-	-
TKN (% TS)	3.42 ± 0.04	7.95 ± 0.12	14.7 ± 0.0	3.50 ± 0.05	1.53 ± 0.01	0.144 ± 0.00	1.39 ± 0.08
TP (g kg <sup>-1</sup> TS)	5.41 ± 0.32	8.10 ± 0.13	0.835 ± 0.03	8.58 ± 0.63	3.59 ± 0.48	0.134 ± 0.00	2.17 ± 0.25
TK (g kg <sup>-1</sup> TS)	14.3 ± 0.8	10.9 ± 0.1	3.71 ± 0.11	16.7 ± 0.2	23.8 ± 0.8	0.221 ± 0.01	4.26 ± 0.37
TOC / TKN	13.9 ± 0.2	5.73 ± 0.23	2.85 ± 0.05	11.1 ± 0.3	27.9 ± 0.7	288 ± 5	25.2 ± 1.5
Biodegradable C / TKN	13.6 ± 0.3	5.58 ± 0.25	2.85 ± 0.05	8.12 ± 2.00	27.5 ± 0.8	207 ± 54	19.6 ± 3.9
CV (kJ g <sup>-1</sup> TS)	20.66 ± 0.18	26.21 ± 0.01	22.91 ± 0.25	16.75 ± 0.10	16.50 ± 0.10	17.18 ± 0.36	13.90 ± 0.23
Biochemical composition of substrates, expressed on a VS basis (in g kg <sup>-1</sup> VS)							
Non-structural carbohydrates <sup>4</sup>	508.9 ± 4.9	< 10	25.1 ± 2.2	144.5 ± 12.0	832.0 ± 3.7	14.6	313.2 ± 47.1
Lipids <sup>5</sup>	151.2 ± 0.9	348.9 ± 7.6	< 10	93.6 ± 0.8	< 10	< 10	68.6 ± 5.4
Crude proteins	235.0 ± 2.6	537.6 ± 7.8	964.9 ± 2.2	213.5 ± 3.7	102.7 ± 0.3	10.8 ± 0.0	130.0 ± 7.4
Hemi-cellulose	38.1 ± 3.7	46.3 ± 2.9	-	225.6 ± 8.2	22.0 ± 0.4	127.8 <sup>6</sup>	52.2 ± 12.3
Cellulose	50.4 ± 1.6	46.0 ± 4.0	-	96.7 ± 3.0	22.1 ± 2.8	623.9 <sup>6</sup>	252.0 ± 36.2
Lignin	16.5 ± 0.2	18.5 ± 2.1	-	226.1 ± 7.3	11.2 ± 2.3	212.9 <sup>6</sup>	184.0 ± 25.9
Elemental analysis (in % of TS)							
N	3.42 ± 0.04	7.95 ± 0.12	14.7 ± 0.0	3.50 ± 0.05	1.53 ± 0.01	0.14 ± 0.00	1.39 ± 0.08
C	47.9 ± 0.5	45.6 ± 1.7	42.1 ± 0.7	39.2 ± 1.0	43.7 ± 1.1	41.6 ± 0.7	35.1 ± 0.5
H	7.03 ± 0.26	8.04 ± 0.38	7.33 ± 0.37	5.18 ± 0.15	7.18 ± 0.20	4.76 ± 0.23	5.06 ± 0.32
S	0.15 ± 0.01	0.62 ± 0.03	1.00 ± 0.02	0.31 ± 0.02	0.06 ± 0.02	0.21 ± 0.00	0.27 ± 0.04
O	34.3 ± 2.5	23.3 ± 1.7	27.1 ± 0.9	23.1 ± 0.9	38.8 ± 1.3	36.9 ± 0.9	25.1 ± 1.2
Potentially toxic elements (in mg kg <sup>-1</sup> TS)							
Cd	< 1.0	< 1.0	< 1.0	< 1.0	< 1.0	< 0.05	1.50 ± 0.37
Cr	30.8 ± 0.6	14.6 ± 0.3	< 2.0	113 ± 2	6.9 ± 0.5	9.1 ± 0.9	263 ± 11
Cu	7.20 ± 0.81	37.9 ± 0.5	6.7 ± 0.3	58.4 ± 1.1	9.8 ± 0.7	20.3 ± 2.3	107 ± 10
Hg	< 0.010	< 0.010	< 0.010	< 0.010	< 0.010	< 0.10	0.179 ± 0.018
Ni	7.0 ± 2.9	6.9 ± 0.3	< 5.0	44.8 ± 0.6	< 5.0	4.5 ± 0.5	97.0 ± 2.9
Pb	< 10	< 10	< 10	< 10	< 10	2.9 ± 0.4	162 ± 11
Zn	33 ± 11	250 ± 0	16.3 ± 0.2	231 ± 6	20.3 ± 0.5	16.2 ± 4.3	259 ± 4

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<sup>1</sup> Pig gut and flotation fat (mixture in 9:1 ratio on VS basis). <sup>2</sup> Sheep blood. <sup>3</sup> Information in brackets indicates ratio substrate to deionised water for measuring pH. <sup>4</sup> Starches and sugars. <sup>5</sup> As n-hexane extractable material (HEM). <sup>6</sup> Literature data [39,40] (failure in analytics).

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## 203 2.2. Pasteurisation Procedure

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The samples were treated in conformity with the minimum AD pasteurisation requirements in the EU animal by-products regulations (EU ABP Regulation 1774/2002, EU ABP Regulation 1069/2009) [6,7], ensuring pasteurisation at 70°C for 1 hour. Around 500 g of each sample was held in a glass container covered with parafilm and equipped with a thermometer and a spatula for manual stirring. The sample was put in a water bath with the parafilm cover well above the water surface.

209 The sample temperature was gradually raised to  $72^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  then maintained at this value for 1 hour.  
210 Manual stirring was performed without breaking the parafilm cover. The pasteurisation process was  
211 repeated for sub-samples of the batch of cattle slurry as the quantity required for BMP testing was  
212 high due to its low solids content. The total solids (TS) of the OFMSW and card packaging waste were  
213 reduced to 30% using deionised water before pasteurisation to facilitate the heat treatment. The  
214 volatile solids (VS) content of each pasteurised sample was measured again before the BMP test to  
215 take into account any small amounts of moisture evaporating and condensing on the parafilm cover  
216 during the pasteurisation process.

### 217 2.3. Experimental Set-up

218 In total fifty-seven continuously stirred laboratory digesters (each with 1.4 litres working  
219 volume; 2 litres total digester volume) were operated in batch mode to carry out the BMP tests. A  
220 detailed description of the digesters, including schematic diagram and photographic documentation,  
221 is available elsewhere [41]. Stirring was done at 40 rpm, using an asymmetric bar-type stirrer driven  
222 by a motor on each digester. The digesters were kept at constant temperature in a mesophilic range  
223 ( $36^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) in water baths. The BMP tests ran for 132 days (except for the BMP tests with cattle  
224 slurry, where the digestion period was shortened to 125 days; this small difference in the digestion  
225 time was due to laboratory management).

226 All tests were carried out at an inoculum-to-substrate (i/s) ratio of 4 on a VS basis, based on  
227 Zhang et al. [41]. Tests on pasteurised and unpasteurised materials were carried out in parallel, and  
228 each studied material was run in triplicate. In addition to the single substrates, food waste and cattle  
229 slurry were also co-digested, i.e. the performance of the mixture of these two substrates was studied.  
230 The mixture was tested both with the two components pasteurised separately and then mixed before  
231 the digestion and with the mixed components co-pasteurised (pasteurised as mixture) before the  
232 digestion. This was to allow identification of any synergistic or antagonistic effect due to the  
233 processing sequence, as well as comparison with the results for the individual substrates when  
234 processed separately.

235 Two digesters were also set up with pasteurised and unpasteurised food waste as the substrate  
236 to allow monitoring of the volatile fatty acid (VFA) profiles and the total ammonia nitrogen (TAN)  
237 concentrations over time.

238 The inoculum was digested separately in four replicates as a control, allowing determination of  
239 its residual methane production. In addition, a positive control was run in triplicate using a standard  
240 reference material to ensure that the overall test procedure was capable of giving valid results. The  
241 standard was a high purity cellulose powder fibrous in form and of medium particle size (Sigma-  
242 Aldrich Company Ltd, UK, product no. C6288, CAS 9004-34-6, EC no. 232-674-9). The results for this  
243 control, which are documented in Appendix A, confirmed that the test method was reliable.

### 244 2.4. Determination of Biogas Production

245 Biogas from the digesters was collected in calibrated glass collection cylinders over a salt  
246 solution (75% saturated sodium chloride) that was acidified to pH 2 to diminish dissolution of  
247 methane and other gases [42]. As a backup to manual readings of the biogas quantity, the height of  
248 the liquid column in each of the cylinders was recorded at intervals of 5 minutes using a headspace  
249 pressure sensor. Biogas and methane volumes are reported as standard volumes, i.e. as dry gas after  
250 correction for calculated water vapour content [42] and conversion to standard temperature and  
251 pressure (STP) (101.325 kPa,  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). To enable the analysis of gas composition, samples were taken  
252 from the gas collection cylinders each time the cylinders were refilled, which was done at frequent  
253 intervals of maximum 7 days. Contents of methane and carbon dioxide in the biogas were determined  
254 using a Star 3400 CX Gas Chromatograph (Varian, Oxford, UK), equipped with a thermal  
255 conductivity detector (TCD); the gas chromatograph was fitted with a Hayesep C column and the  
256 carrier gas was argon at a flow of  $50 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$ ; for calibration, the standard gas contained 65%  $\text{CH}_4$   
257 and 35%  $\text{CO}_2$  (v/v) (BOC, Guildford, UK).

258 Methane production by the test samples was corrected for the residual production from the  
259 inoculum by subtracting the average methane production of the four inoculum replicates from the  
260 measured production of the test digesters. Error bars in figures represent the standard deviation of  
261 replicates, and values are reported as average of the replicates with standard deviation.

262 To interpret whether the difference in methane yield between pasteurised and unpasteurised  
263 samples of the same substrate is statistically significant, Student's t-test (unpaired, two-tailed) was  
264 applied, and the *p*-values are reported (where a *p*-value below 0.05 indicates a statistically significant  
265 difference at the confidence level of 95%).

266 Theoretical methane yield of substrates was calculated by making use of their biochemical  
267 composition, applying the Buswell equation [43] (more information is available in an earlier  
268 publication [27]).

## 269 2.5. Laboratory Analyses

270 The content in total solids (TS) and the content in volatile solids (VS) were determined by  
271 applying Standard Method 2540 G [44]. For pH measurement, a combination glass electrode was  
272 used, after calibration of the electrode in buffers at pH 4, 7 and 9; non-liquid materials were mixed  
273 with deionised water and stirred for 1 hour using magnetic stirrer at room temperature before  
274 measuring the pH (the mass ratio of substrate to deionised water is indicated in Table 1). Total  
275 Kjeldahl nitrogen (TKN) and total ammonia nitrogen (TAN) were measured using Kjeltach block  
276 digestion and steam distillation units, operated as recommended by the manufacturer (Foss Ltd,  
277 Warrington, UK). The content of crude proteins was calculated by multiplying the difference between  
278 TKN and TAN by 6.25 [45]. Quantification of volatile fatty acids (VFA), namely acetic, propionic,  
279 butyric, valeric, hexanoic and heptanoic acids, was performed using a Shimadzu GC-2010 gas  
280 chromatograph (Shimadzu, Milton Keynes, UK) with a flame ionization detector (FID) and capillary  
281 column type SGE BP-21; helium was used as the carrier gas at a flow rate of 190.8 mL min<sup>-1</sup> and a  
282 split ratio of 100 to give a flow rate in the column of 1.86 mL min<sup>-1</sup> with a purge of 3.0 mL min<sup>-1</sup>; the  
283 GC oven temperature was raised from 60°C to 210°C in 15 minutes with a final hold time of 3 minutes;  
284 injector and FID temperatures were 200°C and 250°C, respectively; for calibration, a standard solution  
285 was used which contained acetic, propionic, iso-butyric, n-butyric, iso-valeric, valeric, hexanoic and  
286 heptanoic acids, at three dilutions to give individual acid concentrations of 50, 250 and 500 mg L<sup>-1</sup>  
287 respectively.

288 Further characterisation was conducted on samples prepared by air drying to constant weight  
289 then milling in a micro-hammer mill (Glen Creston Ltd, London, UK) to a particle size ≤ 0.5 mm.  
290 Calorific values (CV) of materials were measured by a CAL2k-ECO bomb calorimeter (DDS  
291 Calorimeters, Gauteng, South Africa). The total organic carbon (TOC) was quantified with a  
292 Dohrmann DC-190 High temperature TOC Analyzer (Rosemount Analytical Inc., Irvine, USA). Lipid  
293 analysis used a Soxhlet extraction method [46]; lipids are reported as n-hexane extractable material  
294 (HEM). Determination of hemi-cellulose, cellulose and lignin was through applying neutral  
295 detergent fibre (NDF), acid detergent fibre (ADF) and acid detergent lignin (ADL) methods, using a  
296 FiberCap™ 2023 fibre analysis system (Foss, Warrington, UK) [47,48]. Content of non-structural  
297 carbohydrates (i.e. starches and sugars) was determined by difference (1000 – weight in grams [lipids  
298 + proteins + hemi-cellulose + cellulose + lignin] in 1000 g VS). The content in biodegradable carbon  
299 was determined through calculation, namely by deducting the value for lignin carbon from the TOC  
300 value; for lignin, the formula used was C<sub>9</sub>H<sub>10.16</sub>O<sub>2.82</sub> [49]. Elemental composition (C, H, N, S, O) of the  
301 substrate was analysed using a FlashEA 1112 Elemental Analyser (Thermo Finnigan, Rodano, Italy),  
302 according to the manufacturer's standard procedures. Inorganic elements were extracted by  
303 microwave digestion in nitric acid, using as equipment Model MARS XR, XP-1500 Plus (CEM  
304 Corporation, Buckingham, UK), and the filtered extract was diluted to 50 mL with deionised water  
305 (Milli-Q Gradient, Millipore, Watford, UK). Cd, Cr, Cu, K, Ni, Pb, and Zn concentrations were  
306 measured using a flame atomic absorption spectrometer, type Spectr AA-200 (Varian, Palo Alto,  
307 USA). The concentration of Hg was identified by cold-vapour atomic fluorescence spectrometry; the  
308 equipment was a PSA 10.025 Millennium Merlin unit (PS Analytical Ltd, Kent, UK). To determine

309 the content of phosphorus, the ammonium molybdate spectrometric method (ISO 6878: 2004) was  
310 applied.

### 311 3. Results

#### 312 3.1. Methane Yields of Pasteurised and Unpasteurised Substrates

313 Figure 1 shows methane production from pasteurised and unpasteurised materials, namely food  
314 waste (Figure 1a), cattle slurry (Figure 1b), card packaging (Figure 1c), potato waste (Figure 1d),  
315 slaughterhouse waste (Figure 1e), animal blood (Figure 1f) and OFMSW (Figure 1g). Methane  
316 production is reported in cubic metres methane at STP per kilogram VS of added substrate (STP m<sup>3</sup>  
317 kg<sup>-1</sup> VS), and the experimentally found biochemical methane potential (BMP) is the final methane  
318 yield at the end of the testing process. This section presents the experimental results, while Section  
319 3.2 compares the experimental findings with theoretical values.

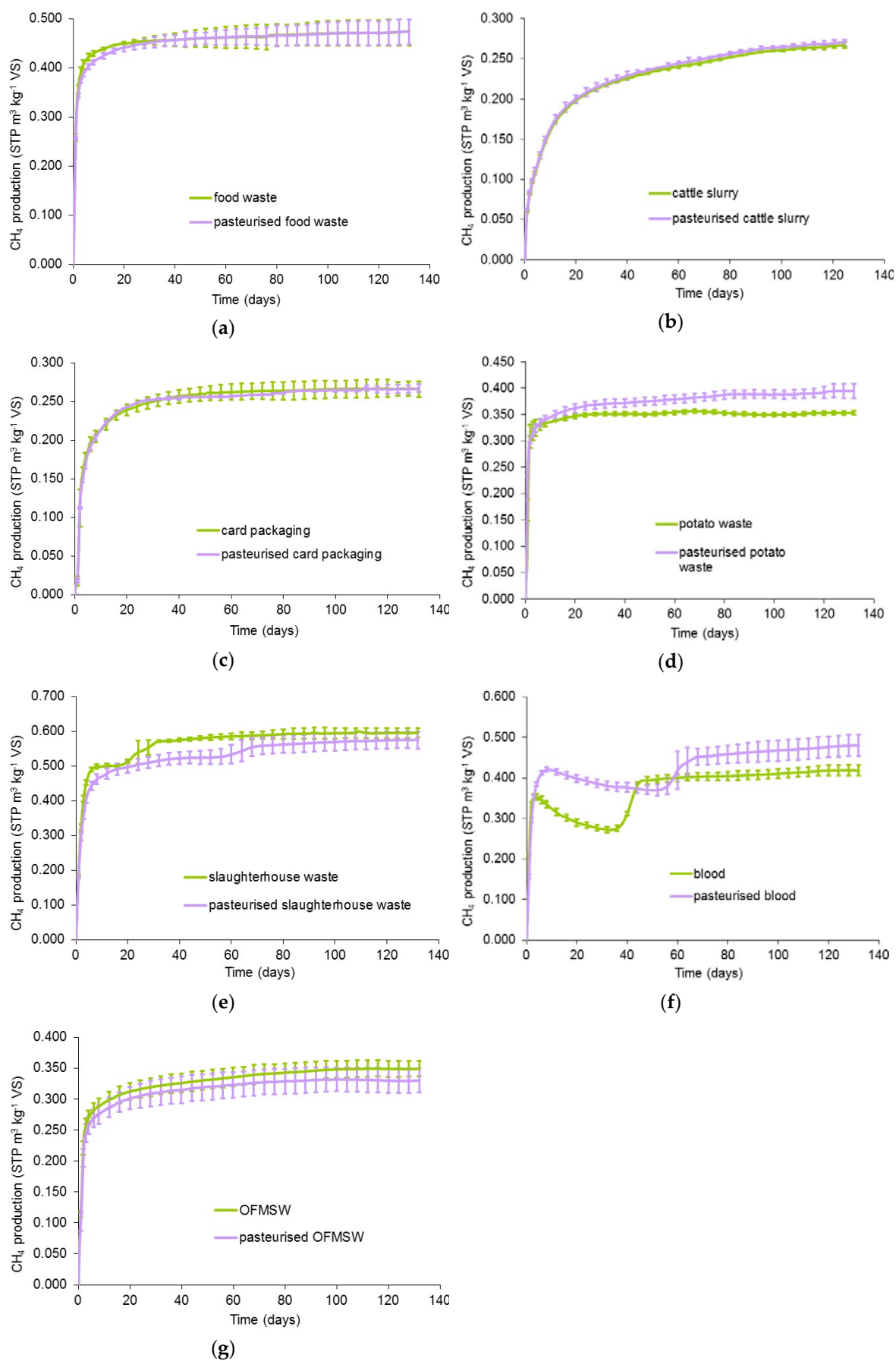
320 Looking at the performance of source-separated domestic food waste, Figure 1a shows that  
321 methane production from unpasteurised and pasteurised substrate was very similar throughout the  
322 digestion experiment. Both materials showed rapid digestion after initiation of the experiment. The  
323 methane production rate from unpasteurised food waste was slightly higher during day 2, but the  
324 pasteurised material subsequently caught up, which resulted in BMP values that were nearly equal  
325 at the end of the testing, namely  $0.475 \pm 0.031$  STP m<sup>3</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> VS for unpasteurised and  $0.473 \pm 0.026$  STP  
326 m<sup>3</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> VS for pasteurised food waste. This difference in the methane yield from unpasteurised and  
327 pasteurised food waste is statistically not significant ( $p = 0.936$  in unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-  
328 test). Therefore, the hypothesis that pre-pasteurisation increases the methane yield from food waste  
329 is to be rejected.

330 Methane production from cattle slurry (Figure 1b) was very similar for the unpasteurised and  
331 the pasteurised material throughout the digestion test, and the obtained BMP values at the end of the  
332 testing were also very similar. The BMP value for unpasteurised cattle slurry was  $0.267 \pm 0.004$  STP  
333 m<sup>3</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> VS and for pasteurised cattle slurry it was  $0.269 \pm 0.004$  STP m<sup>3</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> VS, and thus the difference  
334 was statistically not significant ( $p = 0.929$ ).

335 Unpasteurised and pasteurised card packaging both showed a one-day lag in methane  
336 production at the early stage of the test, as can be seen in Figure 1c, and closely similar rates thereafter.  
337 BMP values were  $0.266 \pm 0.010$  STP m<sup>3</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> VS for unpasteurised and  $0.267 \pm 0.005$  STP m<sup>3</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> VS for  
338 pasteurised substrate respectively; this small difference in the measured methane yields of  
339 unpasteurised and pasteurised material is statistically not significant ( $p = 0.884$ ).

340 Pasteurised potato waste had a slightly higher rate of methane production than unpasteurised  
341 during the first days of the test (Figure 1d), but by day 5 the cumulative productions were the same;  
342 after this, production flattened in the unpasteurised substrate, while it continued to increase slightly  
343 in the pasteurised waste. The BMP value for unpasteurised potato waste was  $0.353 \pm 0.004$  STP m<sup>3</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup>  
344 VS and for pasteurised potato waste it was  $0.395 \pm 0.014$  STP m<sup>3</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> VS; this difference in BMP  
345 values is statistically significant at both the 95% confidence level and the 99% confidence level ( $p =$   
346  $0.007$ ). This provides strong support to the hypothesis that pre-pasteurisation of potato waste results  
347 into higher methane generation from this substrate during the subsequent anaerobic digestion. It  
348 should be noted that the potato waste in this study consisted of chip rejected from crisp  
349 manufacturing, which contains very little peel; thus the methane yield was higher than that reported  
350 elsewhere for potato peel ( $< 0.300$  m<sup>3</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> VS) [50].  
351





**Figure 1.** Methane production of unpasteurised and pasteurised substrates: (a) Food waste; (b) Cattle slurry; (c) Card packaging; (d) Potato waste; (e) slaughterhouse waste; (f) Animal blood; (g) OFMSW.

352  
353

354 The methane production rate from unpasteurised slaughterhouse waste was higher than from  
355 pasteurised slaughterhouse waste early in the test period (Figure 1e); however, from day 7 onwards,  
356 the unpasteurised test material slowed down its methane generation, while the pasteurised  
357 slaughterhouse waste continued to demonstrate increasing methane production. By day 16, both test  
358 materials had yielded about the same volume of methane. Subsequently, a short-term increase of the  
359 methane production rate occurred for the unpasteurised substrate, which may be attributable to the  
360 breakdown of poorly-biodegradable intestinal contents. A short-term increase in methane production  
361 rate was also noticed for the pasteurised material at a later stage (day 60); the same explanation may  
362 apply. The BMP values were  $0.595 \pm 0.014$  STP  $\text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS (unpasteurised pig gut with flotation fat)  
363 and  $0.575 \pm 0.025$  STP  $\text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS (pasteurised pig gut with flotation fat) respectively. The lower  
364 methane yield of the pasteurised slaughterhouse waste compared to the unpasteurised substrate is  
365 noticeable in the experimental data, but statistical significance of the difference at the 95% confidence  
366 level is not confirmed ( $p = 0.293$ ), and thus the difference must be interpreted as non-significant based  
367 on the current data. Clearly, the present work rejects the hypothesis of a higher methane yield from  
368 pasteurised slaughterhouse waste compared to the unpasteurised material.

369 Turning to the AD performance of sheep blood, Figure 1f shows that the unpasteurised substrate  
370 initially had a slightly higher methane production rate compared to the pasteurised substrate; an  
371 explanation for this may be the reduced specific surface area that was available for enzymic attack in  
372 the pasteurised blood as a result of heat coagulation. From day 4 onward methane production from  
373 test digesters with unpasteurised blood was lower than from the control (inoculum only), leading to  
374 the decline in net specific cumulative methane production seen in Figure 1f. A similar decline was  
375 seen from day 9 for pasteurised blood, but in both cases, these declines were subsequently reversed.  
376 Methane production from the unpasteurised blood rose quickly from day 33. For pasteurised blood,  
377 the degree of inhibition initially appeared to be less than in the digesters containing the unpasteurised  
378 substrate, but methane generation from the pasteurised blood only began to recover from day 51. The  
379 final BMP values were  $0.418 \pm 0.013$  STP  $\text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS for unpasteurised blood and  $0.479 \pm 0.026$  STP  $\text{m}^3$   
380  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  VS for pasteurised blood respectively. This difference in BMP values is statistically significant ( $p$   
381  $= 0.022$ ), which provides evidence that pasteurisation as a pre-treatment has a significant impact on  
382 the methane yield of blood.

383 There is no clear explanation for the above described behaviour of blood during the course of  
384 the digestion, i.e. the patterns of inhibition observed, but a high free ammonia concentration in the  
385 blood digestion might have contributed to this apparent inhibition; calculations based on the nitrogen  
386 content of the material suggested that the TAN concentration in the digestate could reach  $2.5 \text{ g N L}^{-1}$ .  
387 Strong inhibition of AD due to the high nitrogen content of the substrate has previously been  
388 reported in literature for poultry blood waste [51]. Occurrence of elevated levels of propionic acid in  
389 the course of the degradation of blood proteins [52,53] might also cause inhibition, but no samples  
390 could be taken for measurement of VFA, TAN or pH to confirm this, since the digesters were sealed  
391 in this experiment.

392 For mechanically-recovered OFMSW, the initial methane production rates from unpasteurised  
393 and pasteurised material were closely similar, as can be seen in Figure 1g. The unpasteurised  
394 substrate demonstrated slightly higher methane generation until day 3, but thereafter cumulative  
395 production was roughly parallel. BMP values were  $0.349 \pm 0.013$  STP  $\text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS for unpasteurised  
396 OFMSW and  $0.330 \pm 0.019$  STP  $\text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS for pasteurised OFMSW respectively. This difference,  
397 although noticeable among the experimental runs, is statistically not significant at the 95% confidence  
398 level ( $p = 0.226$ ), and thus the findings do not confirm a significant impact of the pasteurisation step  
399 on the AD of OFMSW.

400 These results suggest that, for the materials that were tested in this study, pasteurisation had a  
401 positive impact on the methane yields from two substrates only, namely from potato waste and from  
402 sheep blood. The pasteurisation pre-treatment had no significant impact on the rate of anaerobic  
403 biodegradation or the extent to which the other tested biomasses were degraded, i.e. the obtained  
404 BMP values were not significantly different with and without pasteurisation for food waste, cattle  
405 slurry, card packaging, slaughterhouse waste and OFMSW. However, for food waste and

406 slaughterhouse waste pasteurisation led to slightly slower digestion at the start of the AD process,  
 407 which indicates some impact on the kinetics during the early stages of the process, while the final  
 408 methane values nevertheless were not significantly impacted.

### 409 3.2. Comparison of Experimental and Theoretical Methane Yields

410 The comparison of the experimentally found methane yield (BMP values) and the theoretical  
 411 BMP value of a substrate (determined through calculation, using the biochemical composition, see  
 412 Section 2.4) shows the actual degree of exploitation of the theoretically available potential. Table 2  
 413 shows the experimental results and theoretical methane production for the selected unpasteurised  
 414 and pasteurised co-substrates. It can be seen from the table that the experimental methane yields for  
 415 all of the substrates apart from cattle slurry were equal to 80% or more of the theoretical methane  
 416 yield. These results are discussed in detail in Section 4.1.

417 **Table 2.** Comparison of experimental methane yields with the theoretical values calculated based on  
 418 the biochemical composition.

Substrate	Theoretical BMP value (STP m <sup>3</sup> kg <sup>-1</sup> VS)	Unpasteurised		Pasteurised	
		Experimental BMP value (STP m <sup>3</sup> kg <sup>-1</sup> VS)	Ratio of experimental to theoretical value (%)	Experimental BMP value (STP m <sup>3</sup> kg <sup>-1</sup> VS)	Ratio of experimental to theoretical value (%)
Food waste	0.507	0.475 ± 0.031	93.7	0.473 ± 0.026	93.3
Cattle slurry	0.393	0.267 ± 0.031	67.9	0.269 ± 0.019	68.4
Card packaging	0.327	0.266 ± 0.010	81.3	0.267 ± 0.005	81.7
Potato waste	0.407	0.353 ± 0.004	86.7	0.395 ± 0.014	97.1
Slaughterhouse waste	0.659	0.595 ± 0.014	90.3	0.575 ± 0.025	87.3
Animal blood	0.498	0.418 ± 0.013	83.9	0.479 ± 0.026	96.2
OFMSW	0.384	0.349 ± 0.013	90.9	0.330 ± 0.019	86.0

419

420 Methane values were also expressed on a wet weight basis (i.e. weight of fresh material) to take  
 421 into account the moisture content and inert fraction of the substrates (Table 1), and the results are  
 422 shown in Table 3. Of the materials tested, card packaging had the highest methane yield due to its  
 423 very low moisture (6%) and low inert fraction (only 16% of TS). Food waste and OFMSW had  
 424 comparable methane potentials. The very low methane yield of cattle slurry (less than 10% of that of  
 425 card packaging on a wet weight basis), makes it unattractive as a sole substrate for energy production;  
 426 and also confirms the suitability of high-solids, high-methane feedstocks such as food waste as co-  
 427 substrates, since these can give a significant boost to methane production [34].

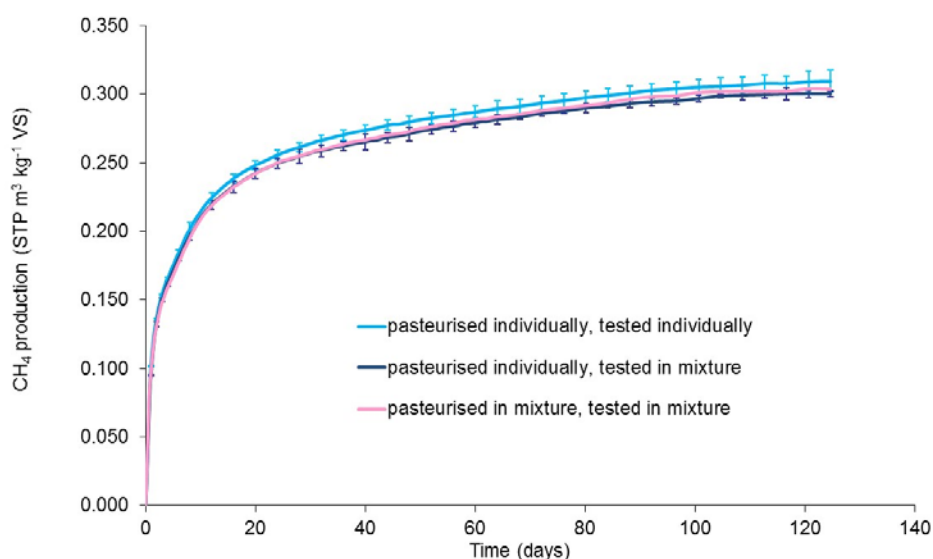
428 **Table 3.** Methane yields of unpasteurised and pasteurised wastes on a fresh matter basis, i.e. per  
 429 unit of wet weight (WW).

Substrate	BMP unpasteurised material (STP m <sup>3</sup> tonne <sup>-1</sup> WW)	BMP pasteurised material (STP m <sup>3</sup> tonne <sup>-1</sup> WW)
Food waste	102	102
Cattle slurry	17.4	17.5
Card packaging	210	211
Potato waste	81.5	91.2
Slaughterhouse waste	115	112
Animal blood	79.0	90.5
OFMSW	114	108

430

### 431 3.3. Effect of Co-pasteurisation of Food Waste and Cattle Slurry

432 Food waste and cattle slurry as co-substrates in AD, mixed at a ratio of 20:80% (VS basis), were  
 433 tested after both separate pasteurisation (i.e. food waste and cattle slurry pasteurised separately and  
 434 then mixed for digestion) and co-pasteurisation (i.e. food waste and cattle slurry mixed before  
 435 pasteurisation, then pasteurised as mixture and then digested). From Figure 2 it can be seen that the  
 436 performance (BMP and rate of methane production) of food waste and cattle slurry pasteurised  
 437 separately and then mixed was closely similar to the performance of the co-pasteurised mixture. The  
 438 results were also compared with predicted values based on the methane production from food waste  
 439 and cattle slurry as individual substrates, which is also shown in Figure 2. The pro rata sum of the  
 440 BMP values for the two components when pasteurised and tested individually was  $0.310 \pm 0.006$  STP  
 441  $\text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS. When they were pasteurised individually but tested as a mixture the BMP was  $0.300 \pm$   
 442  $0.008$  STP  $\text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS. When food waste and slurry were co-pasteurised and then tested as a mixture,  
 443 the BMP was  $0.304 \pm 0.002$  STP  $\text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS. None of the differences was statistically significant ( $p >$   
 444  $0.05$  in all cases). There was thus no clear synergistic or antagonistic effect from either co-  
 445 pasteurisation or co-digestion, i.e. methane generation was not impacted by whether substrates were  
 446 first mixed and then pasteurised or were pasteurised individually and then mixed before digestion.  
 447



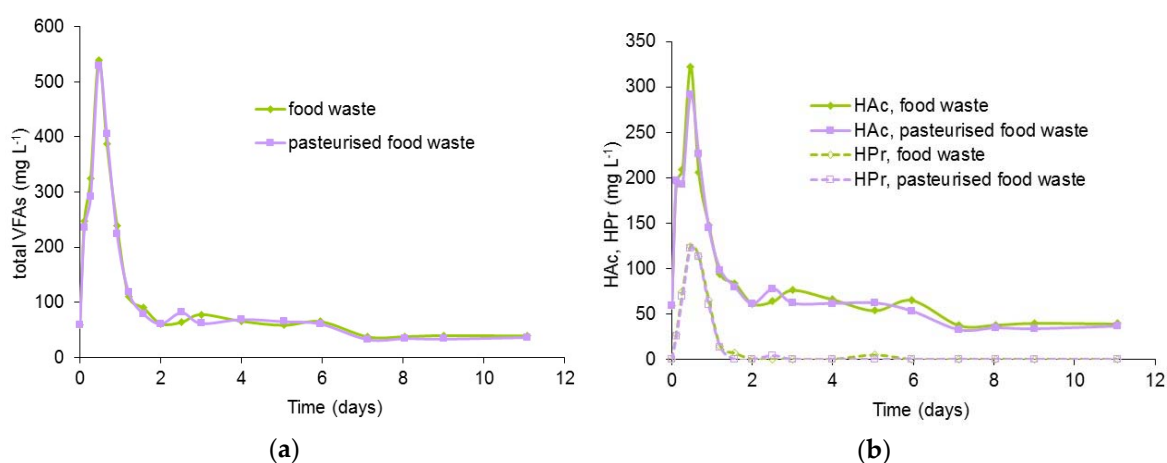
448 **Figure 2.** Methane production assay to study the impact of co-pasteurising two substrates (food waste  
 449 and cattle slurry) before their digestion (showing the methane yield of the co-pasteurised mixture, the  
 450 methane yield of the mixture blended from the individually pasteurised substrates and the calculated  
 451 values for the combined methane production from pasteurised food waste and pasteurised cattle  
 452 slurry obtained by summing daily values for each component; note: no standard deviations shown  
 453 for 'pasteurised in mixture, tested in mixture' to improve readability of figure).

454

### 455 3.4. Profiles of VFA and Ammonia in Digestion of Pasteurised and Unpasteurised Food Waste

456 As can be noticed when looking at Figure 3a, total VFA concentrations in both unpasteurised  
 457 and pasteurised domestic food waste increased to a level of close to  $550 \text{ mg VFA L}^{-1}$  (this corresponds  
 458 to  $720 \text{ mg COD L}^{-1}$ ) during the first 12 hours of digestion, but then fell rapidly to  $< 100 \text{ mg VFA L}^{-1}$   
 459 within less than two days. This points out that the inoculum contained a well-balanced microbial  
 460 population capable of regulating any effects of differential reaction rates that may occur at early  
 461 stages of a BMP test, and there was no accumulation of potentially inhibitory intermediate products  
 462 in the digesters. As revealed by the VFA profile in Figure 3b, during the short-lived peak in total  
 463 VFA, acetic acid on a mass basis made up approximately 55% of the total VFA concentration (this  
 464 corresponds to 46% on a COD basis), with propionic acid contributing approximately 30% to total

465 VFA on a mass basis (this corresponds to 26% on a COD basis). The third-largest component of total  
 466 VFA was iso-valeric acid, followed by n-butyric and iso-butyric acid. No significant difference was  
 467 found between the VFA profiles of the pasteurised and unpasteurised food waste.  
 468



469 **Figure 3.** Volatile fatty acids (VFA) profiles in unpasteurised and pasteurised food waste during AD:  
 470 (a) Total VFA; (b) Acetic acid (HAc) and propionic acid (HPr).

471 TAN concentration in the digesters was also monitored, and a gradual increase from around 1.5  
 472 g N L<sup>-1</sup> (contributed by the inoculum) to 2.0 g N L<sup>-1</sup> during the first 30 days of operation was observed.  
 473 The TKN entering the reactors with the feedstock (pasteurised and unpasteurised food waste) was  
 474 only around 0.24 mg N L<sup>-1</sup>. The profile of TAN concentration in the inoculum control was not  
 475 monitored due to limitations on the number of test digesters available; thus, it was not possible to  
 476 carry out a complete mass balance. It can be assumed, however, that some of the TAN seen in the  
 477 course of the digestion was contributed by the inoculum.

## 478 4. Discussion

### 479 4.1. Discussion of the Results from the Digestion Experiments with Pasteurised and Unpasteurised 480 Substrates

481 Of the materials tested in this study, pre-pasteurisation at 70°C before AD only showed a  
 482 positive impact on the methane yield for potato waste and sheep blood.

483 With potato waste, the experimental BMP reached 97% of the theoretical value with the  
 484 pasteurised material, but only 87% with the unpasteurised substrate. It is interesting to note that  
 485 methane production for the unpasteurised potato waste ceased after few weeks, but continued for  
 486 the pasteurised waste, albeit at a low rate. This suggests that pasteurisation affected the physical  
 487 structure of the substrate, enabling microorganisms to access areas which were otherwise difficult to  
 488 reach. Improving microbial access to lignified biomass is frequently given as the aim of pre-treatment  
 489 of AD feedstocks, and is commonly attempted because potentially degradable substances are  
 490 shielded in lignocellulosic material [54]. Such an explanation cannot apply in this case, however, as  
 491 the potato waste used in this study consisted of chip rejected from crisp manufacturing: no significant  
 492 quantities of peel were present, and thus the lignin content of the material was relatively low (Table  
 493 1). A possible explanation for the better performance of pasteurised potato waste is the heat-induced  
 494 gelatinisation process during pasteurisation, which may have altered the structure of starch granules  
 495 and made the content more accessible. Gelatinisation occurs when starch granules are heated in  
 496 water, because the granules absorb large amounts of water and finally burst, thus releasing the starch  
 497 molecules [55]. Several authors have documented that heat-treated potato is more readily  
 498 biodegradable by rumen microbiota [56–58]. Gelatinisation of starches during heat application can  
 499 be affected by the presence of other constituents [55,59], and thus might not necessarily occur with  
 500 other starch-containing substrates, especially if these are more balanced at the physicochemical level.

501 The potato waste had an exceptionally high share of non-structural carbohydrates (starch),  
502 amounting to 83% of the total VS, while it was very low in structural carbohydrates (hemi-cellulose,  
503 cellulose) and lignin, and low in proteins. The type of starch and composition of the substrate also  
504 influence the temperature at which gelatinisation occurs. For potato, a relatively low gelatinisation  
505 onset temperature of 58.2°C and a gelatinisation peak at 62.6°C were reported in literature, i.e. well  
506 below the pasteurisation temperature of 70°C applied in this work; whereas for materials such as  
507 different wheat types, green banana or rice temperatures above 70°C were required for gelatinisation  
508 [60].

509 For the substrates with higher lignin content (cattle slurry, OFMSW, card packaging),  
510 pasteurisation did not increase the methane yield during testing. Card packaging yielded around  
511 81% of its theoretical methane potential both with and without pasteurisation (Table 2).  
512 Unpasteurised cattle slurry yielded 68% of the theoretical potential, and OFMSW 91%; however,  
513 pasteurisation did not improve the experimental methane yield for these substrates. This was also  
514 found for cattle slurry by Liu et al. [12] and for OFMSW by Grim et al. [10], and the results of this  
515 work thus support these observations; although it should be mentioned that for cattle slurry the  
516 literature is not fully consistent since an increase in methane yield after pasteurisation has also been  
517 reported in some cases [1,16]. A possible explanation for these differing findings might be that  
518 manure can be subject to long storage on the farm, which will impact the characteristics of its  
519 constituents [12]. From the observations made in this study, it can be concluded that pasteurisation  
520 at 70°C for 1 hour did not improve biodegradability of materials which were rich in lignin.

521 For OFMSW, the unpasteurised material yielded 91% of the theoretical methane potential, but  
522 the pasteurised material 5 percentage points less, namely 86% (Table 2). Grim et al. [10] also observed  
523 a lower methane yield for pasteurised OFMSW compared to unpasteurised, although the difference  
524 was very small and statistically not significant; the results are difficult to compare directly as Grim et  
525 al. used a continuous AD process, but this also showed no positive effects of pasteurisation on biogas  
526 production from OFMSW. In the present research, which used batch AD tests, it was observed that  
527 methane production from unpasteurised substrate was higher during the first three days of digestion,  
528 while methane production from unpasteurised and pasteurised OFMSW proceeded in parallel  
529 afterwards (section 3.1). This suggests that for OFMSW, pasteurisation did not increase enzymatic  
530 accessibility to organic compounds for microorganisms. It further suggests that during the first three  
531 days, a smaller amount of readily degradable material was available in the pasteurised biomass  
532 compared to the unpasteurised. An explanation for this might be a partial loss of volatile substances  
533 such as alcohols at the pasteurisation temperature of 70°C. OFMSW is the result of a series of  
534 collection, storage, separation and mechanical pre-treatment steps, and some microbial activity such  
535 as hydrolysis and acidification with production of volatile substances will usually occur before the  
536 material reaches the AD plant. Wilkins [61] identified 90 volatile organic compounds which  
537 evaporated from stored household waste at ambient temperature, and gaseous emission of volatile  
538 compounds increases at higher temperatures. Emission of volatile compounds is also common for  
539 food waste which has undergone a period of storage, and such emission increases at raised  
540 temperatures [62].

541 The phenomenon outlined for OFMSW might also explain why, compared to the unpasteurised  
542 material, methane production from pasteurised food waste and slaughterhouse waste was lower  
543 during the first days of digestion (see Figure 1); the final methane yield was also observed to be lower  
544 (Table 2) but the difference in methane yield from unpasteurised and pasteurised substrate was not  
545 confirmed to be statistically significant (see Section 3.1). While statistical testing classified the  
546 difference in the final methane yield from pasteurised and unpasteurised material as being  
547 nonsignificant at 95% confidence based on the available data, the lower methane generation which is  
548 noticeable for the pasteurised material in the data of the experimental runs for OFMSW, food waste  
549 and slaughterhouse waste suggest this phenomenon of a reduced methane yield after pasteurisation  
550 should be studied in more detail. It can tentatively be concluded that for substrates which contain  
551 easily degradable components and undergo periods of storage or other steps where microbial  
552 degradation can generate volatile organic compounds, pasteurisation prior to AD may cause a

553 reduction of methane yield due to loss of volatile compounds at the elevated pasteurisation  
554 temperature. More research is required to verify this explanation and to quantify this phenomenon.

555 The experimental BMP value of unpasteurised food waste reached 94% of its theoretical BMP  
556 value (see Table 2), i.e. nearly the full theoretical potential was exploited. This suggests pre-treatment  
557 of food waste to increase its specific methane yield is probably a waste of effort. Pasteurisation is still  
558 required for hygienisation purposes, but it is not an effective strategy to increase methane yield.  
559 When poor performance in AD of food waste is encountered; monitoring of trace elements and choice  
560 of adequate loading of the reactor are usually effective strategies to overcome this [63], while pre-  
561 treatment of the substrate is not a promising approach.

562 Pasteurisation had a significant effect on the reaction kinetics of blood during the digestion but  
563 attributing this effect to one particular aspect of the heat treatment is difficult because the reason for  
564 the observed inhibition is not clear. The slightly slower methane generation from pasteurised blood  
565 in the first 72 hours may have been due to the lower specific surface area initially available for  
566 enzymic attack as a result of heat coagulation. From day 4 to 35, however, digestion of the  
567 unpasteurised sheep blood, when compared to the pasteurised blood, seems to have experienced  
568 more severe inhibition by intermediate (e.g. VFA) and/or final (e.g. ammonia) digestion products.  
569 This effect might be mastered if an even higher i/s ratio was adopted (i.e. a more elevated ratio of  
570 inoculum to substrate to further reduce the likelihood of process inhibition) or if an inoculum better  
571 acclimated to the digestion of blood was chosen. The inhibition seen in this test makes it difficult to  
572 interpret the results for blood in detail. Two findings are evident, however: namely the high risk of  
573 process inhibition and the significantly increased final methane yield after pasteurisation. While  
574 unpasteurised blood yielded 84% of the theoretical methane potential, pasteurised blood reached  
575 96% of the theoretical value (Table 2). Of all materials tested, blood had the highest content in protein  
576 and the lowest content in carbohydrates (Table 1). The high nitrogen content is likely to have caused  
577 ammonia inhibition during AD, but it is interesting to note that the pasteurised material was initially  
578 less affected by inhibition then required longer to recover, and at the same time the final methane  
579 yield was significantly increased. An increase in methane yield for pasteurised slaughterhouse waste  
580 rich in blood was previously reported in the literature [18], but blood itself has not received much  
581 attention so far. From this research it can be concluded that pasteurisation ultimately increased the  
582 methane yield from blood, but it also slowed the recovery process after inhibition. It requires further  
583 study to fully understand the nature of the different impacts observed for the processing of blood  
584 and to explore whether the observed phenomena also occur in continuous AD operation.

585 It is evident that pasteurisation had a very differing impact on animal blood and slaughterhouse  
586 waste, which in this study was composed of pig gut and flotation fat. The slaughterhouse waste was  
587 rich in lipids and proteins, while the blood was very rich in proteins but very poor in carbohydrates  
588 (Table 1). An increased methane yield was found only for blood, while pasteurisation altered AD  
589 kinetics for both blood and slaughterhouse waste, but with very different patterns (Figure 1).  
590 Digestion of pasteurised slaughterhouse proceeded more slowly than digestion of unpasteurised  
591 slaughterhouse waste. Similar observations were reported for slaughterhouse waste by Hejnfeld and  
592 Angelidaki [19], Luste et al. [20] and Ware and Power [8], but observations which contradict this are  
593 also documented [12]. Different experimental procedures might explain such contradictions [1]. The  
594 findings of this work suggest, however, that the composition of different slaughterhouse wastes has  
595 a major role in explaining such contradictory observations. Some slaughterhouse wastes might be  
596 composed mainly of fatty fractions, while other wastes might contain high proportions of blood and  
597 hair. The results of this study show that the AD-relevant impact of pasteurisation on blood is very  
598 different from the impact on other types of animal by-products. The results also agree with  
599 observations made by Rodriguez-Abalde et al. [21], who found a lowered bioavailability after  
600 pasteurisation of slaughterhouse waste rich in carbohydrates (including hemi-cellulose and cellulose  
601 as structural carbohydrates), but an increased methane yield for a slaughterhouse waste with low  
602 carbohydrate concentration.

#### 603 4.2. Discussion of the Testing Procedure



604 In BMP testing a high i/s ratio is applied (in this study, the ratio on a VS basis was 4:1) to arrange  
605 for a robust microbial consortium and 'buffer' the differential rates of microbially-mediated reactions  
606 when starting a batch AD test [64]. Methane generation typically begins with little or no lag; then  
607 after some time, the methane production rate gradually tails off. If the i/s ratio is too low this response  
608 changes, however, as the rapid onset of fermentation by acid-forming bacteria outpaces the capacity  
609 of the methanogenic population to deal with the resulting intermediate products. This can lead to the  
610 development of acidic conditions, typically reflected by a dip in the methane generation curve. Time  
611 is then required for the slower-growing methanogens to 'catch up', and thus for the whole AD process  
612 to recover. Where the initial i/s ratio is strongly unfavourable, or the feedstock is particularly rich in  
613 rapidly degradable components, the pH can fall to such a low point that methane production cannot  
614 occur. With food waste, characterised by an elevated content of readily fermentable components,  
615 some initial imbalance of the AD process is most likely even at a favourable i/s ratio, but does not  
616 necessarily inhibit methanogenesis. In the current work the accumulation of VFA (Figure 3a) did not  
617 prevent the onset of methane production (Figure 1a) and the initial VFA peak was rapidly  
618 transformed into biogas within less than two days. Monitoring of VFA profiles is not an integral part  
619 of the BMP testing but was accomplished in this work to elucidate any irregularities that might occur  
620 in gas production; in this case no explanation was required, as the BMP curves showed very typical  
621 responses.

622 While the BMP testing provides valuable insights into methane production patterns and  
623 ultimate methane yields, the lack of testing for standard parameters such as pH or for intermediate  
624 substances such as VFA and ammonia, which typically change during digestion and can impact  
625 process stability, can be a major shortcoming in interpreting the kinetics of the digestion process. In  
626 addition, commercial AD plants are usually operated in continuous mode, and the buffered BMP  
627 batch test is insufficient to predict the effect of complex interactions in such conditions [65]. While  
628 BMP tests alone might not be enough to clarify all aspects of AD performance in practice, however,  
629 the high level of standardisation when testing a large number of substrates, quality assurance  
630 through the use of controls and replicates, and the potential for ensuring reproducibility of findings  
631 make the testing procedure useful. The contradictions found in the literature about the impact of  
632 pasteurisation on biogas production are at least partially due to differing methods applied, low  
633 transparency regarding the procedures and missing quality assurance [1,8]. This emphasizes the  
634 importance of transparent and quality-controlled procedures, and confirms the need for caution  
635 when interpreting observations.

## 636 5. Conclusions

637 This work analysed for a range of common waste types under standardised conditions whether  
638 pre-pasteurisation at 70°C impacted their methane yield in the biogas process.

639 Among the substrates under study, only potato waste and animal blood showed higher methane  
640 yields after pasteurisation, namely an increase in methane yield of 12% for potato waste and of 15%  
641 for animal blood. After pasteurisation, both materials achieved an experimental BMP value which  
642 was more than 95% of the theoretical BMP, which indicates that in the pasteurised material the  
643 biodegradable constituents were nearly completely available for their conversion into biogas. For  
644 potato waste, the positive impact of pasteurisation may be explained by the occurrence of  
645 gelatinisation during pasteurisation, when heating causes starch molecules to be released into the  
646 liquid phase. Animal blood showed an unusual digestion pattern, and no clear explanation was  
647 found in this work for the unstable behaviour of this material during the digestion process, but as an  
648 outcome the methane yield of the pasteurised blood was significantly higher compared to the  
649 unpasteurised blood.

650 Pasteurisation of food waste, cattle slurry and card packaging had no significant impact on  
651 methane yield during anaerobic digestion. It is interesting to note that food waste yielded 93–94% of  
652 its theoretical methane potential with and without pasteurisation, thus high exploitation of the biogas  
653 potential of this material can be achieved regardless of whether thermal pre-treatment is applied or  
654 not, and consequently pre-treatment is anyway not a promising approach to achieve more value from



655 this substrate in AD (pasteurisation is still required for hygienisation purposes). For cattle slurry and  
656 card packaging, the experimental BMP was remarkably lower than the theoretical value, but  
657 pasteurisation was not effective to increase the methane yield. Co-digestion with food waste did not  
658 improve methane yield from cattle slurry. Furthermore, it made no difference to the methane yield if  
659 cattle slurry was pasteurised individually and then co-digested with food waste, or the substrates  
660 were co-pasteurised as a mixture before batch digestion.

661 None of the substrates with a high content of lignified constituents (cattle slurry, card packaging,  
662 OFMSW) benefited from pasteurisation with respect to the methane yield achieved. Methane  
663 generation from cattle slurry and card packaging was not noticeably impacted by pre-pasteurisation.  
664 With OFMSW, the pasteurised material in this study yielded less methane than the unpasteurised  
665 substrate, i.e. pasteurisation had a negative impact on the produced methane quantity in the  
666 experiments of this study, but statistical testing found the difference nonsignificant at the 95%  
667 confidence level, and thus there is insufficient evidence to conclude that a lower methane yield is to  
668 be expected for OFMSW due to pre-pasteurisation. A lower methane generation of the pasteurised  
669 material was also observed with slaughterhouse waste in this work, but also here the difference  
670 between unpasteurised and pasteurised material was not confirmed to be statistically significant. The  
671 observations suggest that for substrates that contain easily degradable components and undergo  
672 periods of storage or other steps in which microbial degradation can release volatile organic  
673 compounds, the elevated pasteurisation temperature may cause a reduction of methane yield, but  
674 more research is required to confirm this hypothesis and to quantify this effect.

675 Overall, this study shows that pasteurisation before AD results into higher methane yields  
676 during AD only for some specific substrates such as potatoes and blood, while biogas production  
677 from lignified biomass is not likely to be increased through pre-pasteurisation; there might also be a  
678 risk of a reduced biogas yield from substrates with elevated contents of volatile organic compounds  
679 because these can get lost during the thermal pre-treatment. The identification of any common  
680 characteristics of those substrates which are positively impacted by pre-pasteurisation requires more  
681 research, but this study confirms earlier observations that a low content of structural carbohydrates  
682 in combination with a high content of other constituents may play a role. Potato waste and animal  
683 blood both had a low content of structural carbohydrates (hemi-cellulose, cellulose) but a particularly  
684 high content of either non-structural carbohydrates such as starch (potato waste) or proteins (blood).

685 Whilst the Animal By-products Regulations impose a requirement to pasteurise waste streams  
686 which contain animal by-products (ABP) or have been in contact with such materials, the findings of  
687 this study indicate that for most substrates pre-pasteurisation before feeding to a biogas plant is  
688 unlikely to enhance the efficiency of the anaerobic digestion process itself. This study therefore shows  
689 that pre-pasteurisation is not generally an effective strategy for the purpose of increasing the methane  
690 generation of a biogas plant and for improving the energy balance of the AD facility.

691 **Supplementary Materials:** Data supporting this study are openly available from the University of Southampton  
692 repository at <https://doi.org/10.5258/SOTON/xxxxx>.

693 **Author Contributions:** Conceptualisations, C.J.B. and Y.Z.; methodology, Y.Z., C.J.B. and S.H.; formal analysis,  
694 Y.Z., S.H. and S.K.-B.; investigation, Y.Z.; resources, C.J.B. and S.H.; data curation, Y.Z.; writing—original draft  
695 preparation, Y.Z., S.H. and S.K.-B.; writing—review and editing, Y.Z., S.K.-B., S.H. and C.J.B.; visualization, Y.Z.  
696 and S.K.-B.; supervision, C.J.B. and S.H.; project administration, Y.Z. and C.J.B.; funding acquisition, C.J.B. and  
697 S.H. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

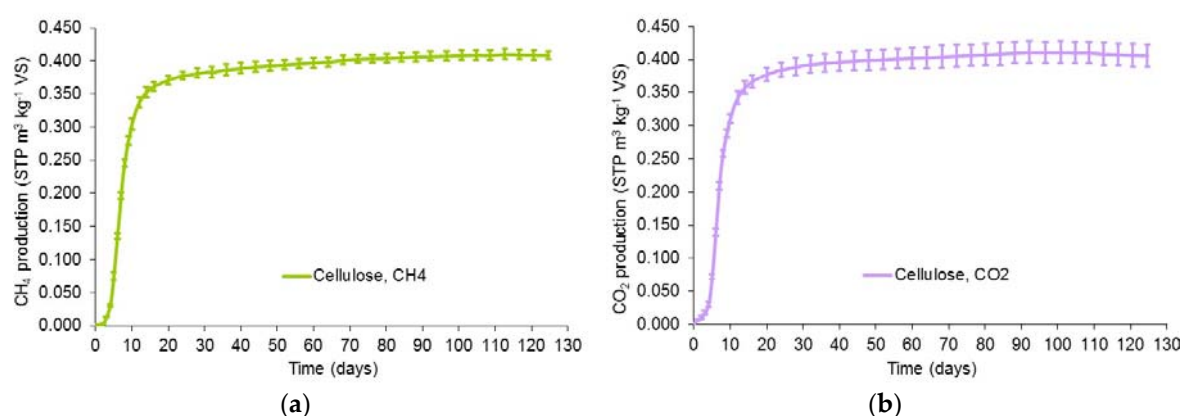
698 **Funding:** This research received funding from the Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs,  
699 London, UK (Defra) under contract WR0212, which is gratefully acknowledged.

700 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest. The funder had no role in the design of the  
701 study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript, or in the decision to  
702 publish the results.

703 **Appendix A: BMP TEST on Cellulose Standard (Quality Control)**

704 Anaerobic digestion of high purity cellulose powder (see Section 2.3) served as quality control  
 705 for the reliability of the test method applied, as described in the technical report for this project [37],  
 706 and presented in the following. As can be seen in Figure A1, at the beginning of the test there was a  
 707 lag of approximately 3 days before methane production from cellulose commenced. This lag period  
 708 probably reflected the time needed to initiate hydrolysis of the complex macromolecular control  
 709 material. Methane generation was then rapid, amounting to a cumulative total of  $0.361 \pm 0.007$  STP  
 710  $\text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS after the first 16 days, equivalent to 87.0% of the theoretical BMP of  $0.415 \text{ STP m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS.  
 711 Methane generation continued after day 16, but at a considerably lower rate. On day 64, the methane  
 712 yield was  $0.399 \pm 0.007$  STP  $\text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS; this corresponds to 96.1% of the theoretical BMP. The resulting  
 713 final experimental BMP value for the digested cellulose was  $0.409 \pm 0.006$  STP  $\text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS, or 98.6% of  
 714 the theoretical BMP. This very close agreement between the experimental and theoretical values of  
 715 the reference material supports the validity of the BMP test method used.

716 To obtain data on possible losses through dissolution, carbon dioxide production was also  
 717 recorded in this assay. In Figure A1 it can be seen that the trend in carbon dioxide production was  
 718 similar to that for methane, with a final yield of  $0.406 \pm 0.017$  STP  $\text{m}^3 \text{CO}_2 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS. This experimental  
 719 value is equal to 98.0% of the theoretical specific  $\text{CO}_2$  production of  $0.415 \text{ STP m}^3 \text{CO}_2 \text{kg}^{-1}$  VS,  
 720 indicating that in this case the use of the acidified saline barrier solution was effective in minimising  
 721 losses of both gases.  
 722



723 **Figure A1.** BMP assay of cellulose as positive control: (a) Methane production; (b) Carbon dioxide  
 724 production.

725

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