

Green Chemistry

Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this *Accepted Manuscript* with the edited and formatted *Advance Article* as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.

1 **Towards a “dry” bio-refinery without solvents or added water using**
2 **microwaves and ultrasound for total valorization of fruits and vegetables**
3 **by-products.**

4 M. Jacotet-Navarro^{1,2,3}, N. Rombaut^{1,2}, S. Deslis^{1,2}, A-S. Fabiano-Tixier^{1,2}, F-X. Pierre³,
5 A. Bily^{2,3} and F. Chemat^{1,2*}

6 ¹ Université d'Avignon et des Pays de Vaucluse, INRA, UMR408, GREEN Team Extraction,
7 F-84000 Avignon, France

8 ² ORTESA, LabCom Naturex-Université d'Avignon, F-84000 Avignon Cedex, France

9 ³ Naturex, 250 rue Pierre Bayle, BP 81218, F-84911 Avignon Cedex 9, France

10

11 **ABSTRACT:** This study aims at total valorization of fruits and vegetables by-
12 products moving towards developing an original concept of “dry” bio-refinery (DBR). Indeed,
13 all valuable products were recovered from food by-products without addition of solvents or
14 water and using green processes. Ginger was chosen as reference matrix since its juice
15 processing generates a large amount of press cake currently considered as waste. Therefore, in
16 this study, after juice processing, ginger press cake (GP) was firstly treated by microwave
17 hydrodiffusion and gravity (MHG) process to recover essential oil (EO) and constituent water
18 present in ginger by-products. Gingerols and 6-shogaol remaining into the ginger presscake
19 residue after MHG (GPMHG) were then extracted by ultrasound assisted extraction (UAE) at
20 different ultrasonic intensities (UI) using constituent water as solvent. The assessment of
21 microwave (MW) power enabled to determine that a power of 1.6 W/g was optimal to recover
22 constituent water and EO, preserving extract quality in a reduced time. The mass extraction
23 yield was enhanced by UAE (16.7 W/cm²; 0.303 W/cm³) with an increase of 126 % compared
24 to conventional maceration (CM). Total valorization of ginger by-products was achieved
25 since juice, essential oil, extract rich in phenolics, and solid residue rich in fibers and phenolic
26 acids were obtained from ginger rhizomes (GR) using “dry” bio-refinery without solvent and
27 added water. Finally, the performances of “dry” bio-refinery and conventional bio-refinery
28 (CBR) were compared in term of process time, energy consumption, quantity of waste and
29 quantity of solvent.

30

31 1. Introduction

32 In 2012, the world vegetable and fruit production was 1,106,133,866 and
33 636,544,883 tons respectively (FAOSTAT-FAO statistical database 2015). Most of this
34 production is destined to food processing industry which generates, after processing, a huge
35 amount of by-products often considered as wastes, since they still constitute a resource for
36 high-value compounds.¹ These high-value compounds provide a large field of application
37 since they can be used for instance as antioxidants, natural chelating agents, or even as bio-
38 solvents or bio-fuels after special treatment.^{1,2} Therefore, the production of added products
39 from industrial by-products is considered as a challenge for the current natural product
40 industry and more generally for the extraction field.

41 Only a few studies have been investigating valorization of by-products. For example,
42 using grape seeds issued from the wine-making industry to recover oil³ and phenolic
43 compounds,⁴ orange peels from the orange juice industry for pectin and flavoring products.^{5,6}
44 More recently, the concept of bio-refinery of a plant is increasingly investigated for maximal
45 valorization of natural products from a raw material.^{1,7,8} Bio-refinery of natural products
46 intends to value all bioactive compounds from a raw material, which implies to extract those
47 bioactives using different extraction processes. However, an industrial application of bio-
48 refinery would imply extensive use of solvents, high energy costs and extensive extraction
49 duration. In this scope, the use of green extraction is an alternative for well-reasoned
50 processing.⁹

51 In the general frame of green chemistry, green extraction processes focus on process
52 intensification. The objective of these green extraction processes is to achieve faster
53 extraction rate and more effective energy use, increased mass and heat transfer, reduced
54 equipment size, and reduction of processing steps. For this, innovative technologies can be
55 used such as microwaves,^{10,11} ultrasound,^{12,13} supercritical fluids,^{14,15} electro-technologies^{16,17}

56 or instantaneous controlled decompression DIC.^{18,19} Those green extraction processes have
57 proved their efficiency for extraction of natural products^{20,21} but more rarely in the case of a
58 bio-refinery.²² A major interest would be to achieve a bio-refinery without the use of
59 extraction solvents.

60 The reference matrix chosen for this study is ginger (2.1 million tons in 2012,
61 FAOSTAT-FAO statistical database 2015), due to its composition in valuable natural
62 compounds. It contains products of interest such as essential oil (1 – 4 %), phenolics
63 (gingerols and 6-shogaol, 1 – 2 %), and total carbohydrates (60 – 75 %).^{23,24} Ginger, and more
64 specifically rhizomes are variously used as food product or traditional medicine.²⁵ In food
65 industry, rhizomes are mainly used as spice or condiment (fresh or dried), candy or as juice
66 after cold mechanical pressing. Due to the fact that mechanical pressing does not alter the
67 chemical composition of the pressed product, this process provides huge amounts of press
68 cakes still containing high amounts of bioactive compounds, but currently considered as
69 waste.

70 Our study aims at total valorization of ginger rhizome press cake generated after juice
71 production moving towards developing an original concept of “dry” bio-refinery (DBR). The
72 novelty of this work relies on extraction of compounds achieved without addition of solvent
73 or water. The only water used in the process was the constituent water extracted from ginger
74 itself. To recover these different fractions, bio-refinery was applied using green extraction
75 processes (microwave hydrodiffusion and gravity followed by ultrasound assisted extraction)
76 and quality of the corresponding extracts was determined. Ultimately, the performances of
77 bio-refinery using green extraction and conventional extraction were compared.

78

79 2. Materials and methods

80 2.1. Plant material and chemicals

81 Ginger rhizomes (GR) and ginger press cake (GP) were provided by Naturex. GP was
82 obtained after industrial pressing of GR. Initial moisture was 10.7 % and 25.4 % for GR and
83 GP respectively. GR was stored at 4 °C and GP was frozen (-18 °C) before use.

84 For extraction solvent, only demineralized water and absolute ethanol (Deulep,
85 France) were used. For analysis, water, methanol, acetonitrile, acetone, phosphoric acid 85 %,
86 pentane 98 % and diethyl ether >99 % analytical grade were purchased from Sigma Aldrich.

87 2.2. Procedures for extraction processes

88 A bio-refinery concept was developed for total valorization of ginger by-products. The
89 aim of this DBR was recovering at the end of each consecutive step several high valued
90 compounds, without addition of any external solvent or water. The “dry” bio-refinery (DBR)
91 pattern is illustrated in figure 1. As described in the flow sheet, after pressing, GP was firstly
92 submitted to microwave hydrodiffusion and gravity (MHG), followed by ultrasound assisted
93 extraction (UAE). To characterize ginger by-products and to assess the performance of DBR,
94 conventional processes (hydrodistillation and maceration) were performed as reference
95 (figure 1). Microwave (MW) and ultrasound (US) equipments used in this study are presented
96 in figures 2 and 3. Experimental conditions used for each process are described in this section.

97 2.3.1. Hydrodistillation (HD)

98 Hydrodistillation was performed as reference process for essential oil (EO) extraction.
99 1 kg of GP was submitted to HD using a Clevenger-type apparatus.²⁶ Extraction was
100 performed with 4 L of water for 360 minutes until no more EO was obtained. Then EO was
101 recovered and stored at 4 °C before analysis.

102 2.3.2. Microwave Hydrodiffusion and Gravity (MHG) apparatus and procedure

103 For each experiment using MHG, 500 g of GP were treated. Principle and apparatus
104 are described in previous studies.^{27,28} Extraction was performed in a microwave laboratory
105 oven (900 W, EOS-GR Microwave Gravity Station, Milestone, Italy) at atmospheric pressure.
106 MW power delivered to GP was varied between 0.6 W/g and 1.8 W/g. MHG process allows
107 the recovery of a juice composed of EO and constituent water. In all extraction experiments,
108 EO was collected and analyzed. Constituent water and ginger presscake residue after MHG
109 (GPMHG) were recovered and stored at 4 °C before use. Each experiment was performed in
110 duplicate.

111 2.3.3. Ultrasound Assisted Extraction (UAE)

112 20 g of GPMHG were placed in a double jacket reactor with 500 g of constituent
113 water. The whole was submitted to US (1 kW, UIP 1000 hdT, Hielscher Ultrasonics GmbH,
114 Germany) for 90 minutes. Ultrasonic intensity (UI) in W/cm^2 and power density (PD) in
115 W/cm^3 were both considered to evaluate the ultrasonic power since literature shows that they
116 were both adapted for such type of extraction.²⁹⁻³² Moreover, the use of W/cm^3 as unit is more
117 appropriated whether further pilot and industrial up-scaling are envisaged. A range of
118 ultrasonic amplitude was tested: 25 %, 50 %, 75 % and 100 %, corresponding to an UI (and
119 the corresponding PD) of $4.4 \text{ W}/\text{cm}^2$ ($0.080 \text{ W}/\text{cm}^3$), $9.4 \text{ W}/\text{cm}^2$ ($0.170 \text{ W}/\text{cm}^3$), $13.4 \text{ W}/\text{cm}^2$
120 ($0.242 \text{ W}/\text{cm}^3$) and $16.7 \text{ W}/\text{cm}^2$ ($0.303 \text{ W}/\text{cm}^3$) respectively. UI (W/cm^2) was calculated
121 according to the equation described by Pingret *et al.*³³ US were applied to the system using a
122 sonotrode immersed in the solvent. Temperature was maintained at $50 \pm 5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ with a cryostat
123 (Alpha RA8, Lauda, Germany) and monitored with an external thermocouple. Plant material
124 was homogenized in the solvent during UAE at 250 rpm with a magnetic stirrer (IKA RCT
125 basic, VWR, France). Liquid samples were collected during the experiment (approximately
126 2 mL) and filtered on cotton before drying in oven at $100 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ to determine dry matter content.

127 After extraction, remaining solvent enriched with the extract was separated from the
128 plant material residue by centrifugation at 4000 rpm for 20 minutes (Himac CT6E, VWR by
129 Hitachi Koki Co., Ltd., USA) and filtration under vacuum using a filter paper. Extract was
130 recovered from filtrate by solvent evaporation under vacuum. The extract was stored at 4 °C
131 before analysis. Each experiment was performed in duplicate. For assessment of UAE effect
132 on extraction, a conventional maceration (CM) was performed by mechanical stirring using
133 identical extraction conditions as UAE.

134 2.3. Characterization and analysis of plant material

135 GR, GP and GPMHG were submitted to solvent extraction followed by HPLC-DAD
136 analysis to determine the available gingerols and 6-shogaol content in each. For all
137 characterizations, plant materials (GR, GP and GPMHG) were previously freeze-dried and
138 ground below 3 mm. Phenolics extraction was performed according to the procedure
139 described by Mukherjee *et al.*³⁴ where experimental conditions were optimized. Extraction of
140 gingerols and 6-shogaol from GR, GP and GPMHG obtained at different MW power was
141 performed at 40 °C for 60 minutes under mechanical stirring (IKA Eurostar 20 digital,
142 Germany) in a double jacket reactor. Temperature was maintained at 40 °C using a cryostat
143 (Alpha RA8, Lauda, Germany). Extraction solvent was ethanol/water, 75/25 (v/v). Extraction
144 was performed using a solid/liquid ratio of 1/15 (w/w). After extraction, the liquid phase was
145 separated from the matrix by filtration under vacuum using a 15-35 µm paper filter. Extract
146 was recovered from filtrate by solvent evaporation under vacuum. The extract was stored at
147 4 °C before analysis.

148

149 *2.4. High performance liquid chromatography analysis (HPLC-DAD)*

150 Quantification of gingerols (6-gingerol, 8-gingerol, 10-gingerol) and 6-shogaol was
151 done by HPLC (Agilent 1100, France) equipped with diode array detector (DAD). The
152 method described below was developed and validated internally.

153 The column used was a C18 column (5 μm , 4.6 mm x 250 mm, Advanced
154 Chromatography Technologies ACE, Scotland). The mobile phase was composed of two
155 solvents: (A) 100 % acetonitrile and (B) 100 % water with 0.05 % phosphoric acid (v/v). The
156 gradient of solvent was used as follows: 0 minute, 45 % (A), 55 % (B); 5 minutes, 45 % (A),
157 55 % (B); 10 minutes, 50 % (A), 50 % (B); 20 minutes, 55 % (A), 45 % (B); 40 minutes,
158 90 % (A), 10 % (B); 45 minutes, 45 % (A), 55 % (B); 55 minutes, 45 % (A), 55 % (B). The
159 flow rate was set at 1 mL/min. The column oven temperature was 20 °C and the run time was
160 30 minutes. 20 μL were injected. Gingerols and 6-shogaol were detected at a wavelength of
161 282 nm and quantified using external calibration with standards.

162 *2.5. Gas chromatography analysis (GC-FID)*

163 Aromatic profile of ginger EO was done by GC (Agilent 7890, France) equipped with
164 flame ionization detector (FID). The method described below was developed and validated
165 internally. The column used was a VF-5MS column (0.25 μm , 0.25 mm x 30 m, Agilent
166 Technologies, France). The column temperature was 60 °C for 1 minute, increased at
167 3 °C/min to 240 °C, and was kept at 240 °C for 5 minutes. Split ratio was 1:100 and helium
168 flow rate was 1.1 mL/min with a constant flow. FID detection was performed at 250 °C.
169 Identification was performed by corresponding individual standards retention times and the
170 aromatic profiles were determined by comparison between relative areas on the
171 chromatogram.

172

173 3. Results and discussion

174 3.1. Dry extraction of essential oil from ginger press cake by MHG

175 In the concept of DBR developed in this study (figure 1), MHG was chosen as a
176 “green” process for the recovery of EO and constituent water from GP, as no solvent had to
177 be added for extraction. MHG allows direct extraction of a juice composed of EO and
178 constituent water. Both compounds were therefore extracted at the same time and further
179 separated by gravity due to density difference. Microwave extraction of essential oils using
180 “constituent water” may occur by a mechanism based on the influence of molecules polarity.
181 Essential oils contain organic compounds that strongly absorb microwave energy such as
182 oxygenated monoterpenes. Microwaves interact with organic molecules present in the glands
183 and vascular systems. Thus, such systems undergo a dramatic expansion, with subsequent
184 rupture of the tissue, allowing the essential oil to flow towards the gland layer. Compounds
185 with high and low dipolar moments could be extracted in various proportions by microwave
186 extraction. Organic compounds that have a high dipolar moment will interact more vigorously
187 with microwaves and can be extracted more easily in contrast with aromatic compounds,
188 which have low dipolar moments.

189 3.1.1. Impact of microwave power on MHG extraction efficiency of essential oil and 190 constituent water

191 Several powers were assessed in order to evaluate the impact of MW power on
192 extraction efficiency of EO and constituent water from GP. Literature reports that MHG is
193 optimally used with a power of 1 W per gram of plant material.²⁷ Yet, this aspect can be
194 discussed because of the large variety of plant material which has probably not the same
195 behavior regarding microwaves energy. In this study, an assessment of different MW powers
196 was thus performed to extract as quickly as possible constituent water and EO from GP.

197 MW power was varied from 0.6 W/g to 1.8 W/g of GP. Global volume of water and
198 EO recovered was measured at different extraction durations (figure 4). The low volume of
199 EO extracted did not allow an accurate measurement of EO extraction kinetics. Extraction
200 was stopped just before thermal degradation of GP. The beginning of thermal degradation was
201 determined performing a temperature monitoring into the press cake. As shown in figure 5,
202 during microwave heating, (i) temperature into the biomass firstly increases linearly -more or
203 less quickly depending on microwave power- until 100 °C (boiling point of water); (ii) then
204 temperature remains constant at 100 °C; (iii) finally temperature presents an inflection point
205 and begins to increase beyond 100 °C. This last stage is considered as the beginning of
206 thermal degradation, which is accompanied by the burn of biomass submitted to microwaves.

207 The increase in MW power from 0.6 W/g to 1.8 W/g led to the same final volume of
208 constituent water and EO extracted from GP (1 ± 0.1 mL of EO and 300 ± 10 mL of
209 constituent water). As it can be noticed in figure 4, the increase of MW power from 0.6 W/g
210 to 1.8 W/g enabled a considerable reduction of extraction time as well: 83 minutes against
211 20 minutes for 0.6 W/g and 1.8 W/g respectively. Therefore, the time needed to recover the
212 condensate composed by EO and constituent water was directly dependent on MW power as
213 the former increased with the latter.

214 Analysis of the different EO and GPMHG recovered after MHG were performed to
215 assess a potential change in their composition according to MW power.

216 3.1.2. Evaluation of essential oil quality

217 Table 1 summarizes the results regarding extraction yields and composition of EO and
218 phenolics obtained for GR, GP and GPMHG. The first part of the table refers to the results
219 obtained regarding EO. Extraction yields and aromatic profiles were compared between EO
220 obtained by HD of GR and GP (table 1, first and second columns), and EO obtained by MHG

221 treatment of GP at different powers (table 1, third to ninth columns). First of all, extraction of
222 EO from GP by HD was more efficient than extraction of EO from GR (0.3 g EO/100 g GP
223 and 0.2 g EO/100 g GR). Previous industrial pressing of GR may have caused the de-
224 structuration of rhizomes and therefore may have improved EO availability. It can be noticed
225 as well that MW power had not any effect on EO extraction yields as 0.2 g EO/100 g GP were
226 recovered in all cases. MHG extraction of EO from GP appeared as less efficient than HD of
227 GP, however this result is not very accurate since the design of glassware in the MW
228 laboratory oven provided to recover totally the EO extracted (EO drops remained on reactor
229 walls).

230 Considering composition, zingiberene is generally considered as a characteristic
231 compound in ginger EO. In literature, it is mainly found between 20 % and 30 % in EO.^{35,36}
232 GC-FID analysis of EO obtained by HD was in accordance with literature as zingiberene
233 content was 25.2 %. In EO obtained by MHG, zingiberene percentage was constant for
234 powers from 0.8 W/g to 1.6 W/g (medium powers) with a content of 23 to 25 %. However,
235 for extreme powers (0.6 W/g and 1.8 W/g), zingiberene content decreased significantly (both
236 18.4 %).

237 The differences of aromatic profiles between EO obtained by the reference process
238 and MHG indicate that the extraction process impacts EO quality. This result has already been
239 shown and explained in previous works. For example, it is reported that the contact between a
240 plant material and the solvent during the process can lead to EO degradation.³⁷ From our
241 results, it can be concluded that aromatic profiles of EO were similar for MHG extraction
242 conditions except for 0.6 W/g and 1.8 W/g experiments. For these last powers, long extraction
243 time (90 minutes) and intense MW irradiation (1.8 W/g) respectively could induce a
244 degradation of some compounds in EO.³⁸

245

246 3.1.3. Impact of microwave pretreatment on phenolics extraction efficiency

247 Constituent water recovered after MHG was analyzed by HPLC to determine its
248 content in gingerols (6-gingerol, 8-gingerol and 10-gingerol) and 6-shogaol. Those
249 compounds are specific phenolics of ginger, 6-shogaol being a degradation product of 6-
250 gingerol by dehydration.³⁹ They were not detected in the constituent water so we admitted that
251 all phenolics remained into GPMHG. GPMHG obtained after MHG process at different
252 powers and initial GP were characterized as described in section 2.3 in order to show a
253 potential effect of MHG treatment on phenolics content, particularly a potential degradation
254 of these compounds. A characteristic HPLC chromatogram of extracts is illustrated in
255 figure 6. The results are presented in table 1. It can be noticed that generally, MHG treatment
256 did not cause the degradation of gingerols and 6-shogaol when comparing results obtained for
257 GP and GPMHG. They were even better extracted when MHG treatment was performed
258 (0.90 g/100 g of GP and from 1.06 to 1.37 g/100 g of GPMHG). As described by Zill-e-Huma
259 *et al.*,^{27,40} MW seem to alter cell walls of ginger, so gingerols and 6-shogaol were more
260 available in GPMHG than in GR and GP for extraction. It can be underlined that 6-shogaol
261 content in GPMHG was higher than in GP (0.08-0.11 % against 0.02 % respectively),
262 certainly due to high temperature associated to MHG process. However these amounts of 6-
263 shogaol were insignificant compared to contents in gingerols recovered (for GPMHG at
264 1.6 W/g: 0.08 % of 6-shogaol and 1.37 % of gingerols in plant material). Extraction at power
265 beyond 1 W/g did not involve the degradation of phenolic compounds in GPMHG as
266 described for onion polyphenols in previous work.²⁷

267 The previous results enabled to select a MHG power of 1.6 W/g as optimal for the
268 second step of our “dry” bio-refinery (figure 1) since this power enabled to recover total
269 removable water and EO in 20 minutes, preserving EO quality and without degradation of

270 phenolics in GPMHG. Therefore the recovery of these preserved phenolics from GPMHG
271 will constitute the third step of the “dry” bio-refinery developed in the study.

272 3.2. Ultrasound assisted extraction (UAE) of gingerols and 6-shogaol from GPMHG

273 Phenolic compounds are conventionally extracted from ginger with 75 % ethanol.³⁴
274 However, industrials are looking for green processes to extract bioactives from plants without
275 addition of organic solvent. In this work, an alternative process has been investigated to
276 extract phenolics from GPMHG by using only water as solvent and more specifically
277 constituent water previously recovered from GP by MHG (figure 1). Solubilities of 6-
278 gingerol, 8-gingerol, 10-gingerol and 6-shogaol were predicted with ACD-Lab software as
279 0.26 g/L, 0.038 g/L, 0.91 mg/L and 0.0046 g/L respectively, which shows that water could be
280 used as an alternative solvent to solubilize these compounds during UAE.

281 UAE is a process which is used to increase extraction yield of various
282 phytochemicals.^{21,41} US emitted by probe or in bath generate microbubbles which alter
283 vegetal cells by cavitation phenomenon enhancing extraction of targeted compounds.⁴² US
284 were applied to GPMHG in water at different UI (with the corresponding PD): 4.4 W/cm²
285 (0.080 W/cm³), 9.4 W/cm² (0.170 W/cm³), 13.4 W/cm² (0.242 W/cm³) and 16.7 W/cm²
286 (0.303 W/cm³). A CM was performed as reference. A monitoring of dry matter content in the
287 liquid phase was carried out to compare the kinetics of solubilization of dry matter according
288 to the UI. Results obtained are presented in figure 7.

289 Until 25 minutes of extraction, dry matter evolution followed the same trend for each
290 UI assessed. Beyond 25 minutes of UAE, no difference was noticed between CM, UAE
291 (4.4 W/cm²; 0.080 W/cm³) and UAE (9.4 W/cm²; 0.170 W/cm³) as they all reached 0.20 to
292 0.24 % of dry mass content in extract after 90 minutes. A significant increase was observed
293 for UAE (13.4 W/cm²; 0.242 W/cm³) after 90 minutes with a dry mass content of 0.35 %. The

294 higher yield was reached with UAE (16.7 W/cm^2 ; 0.303 W/cm^3) since an extract with a dry
295 mass content of 0.48 % was recovered at the end of experiment. At the end of each
296 experiment, liquid extract was separated from the solid residue by filtration on filter paper and
297 concentrated by water removal. Mass extraction yields were calculated from final dry masses
298 and reported on the figure 8. US with a high UI (13.4 W/cm^2 ; 0.242 W/cm^3 and 16.7 W/cm^2 ;
299 0.303 W/cm^3) had a positive impact on the mass extraction yield with an increase of 126 %
300 from CM to UAE (16.7 W/cm^2 ; 0.303 W/cm^3). This increase in mass extraction yield could
301 be due to a solubilization of some natural polymers which have been partially disintegrated by
302 US and solubilized into water. Indeed, ultrasonic processes have been reported to impact cell
303 wall polymers such as cellulose, hemicellulose and pectin and non-structural polymers such as
304 starch.⁴³⁻⁴⁶ The degradation results in a modification of macromolecular structures and a
305 decrease of molecular weight which leads to an improvement of the solubilization of
306 polymers. However, US effect has to be assessed on more complex structures since it is not
307 obvious that these simplified models described for US effect on single polymers would be
308 valid for plant materials, which are composed of a large network of various polymers.

309 On figure 8, quantities of phenolics extracted from plant material are also reported. It
310 can be noticed that phenolics content in extract did not increase as much as the global dry
311 mass: quantity of phenolics extracted was improved by 29 %, by comparing CM to UAE
312 (16.7 W/cm^2 ; 0.303 W/cm^3). Quantity of gingerols and 6-shogaol available in GPMHG is
313 reported in table 1. This value was determined as 1.37 % of GPMHG. As shown in figure 6,
314 0.36 % over 1.37 % gingerols and 6-shogaol were recovered from GPMHG by UAE
315 (16.7 W/cm^2 ; 0.303 W/cm^3), that is only 26 % of available phenolics in GPMHG. From those
316 results, it can be concluded that UAE can increase mass extraction yield, which could be due
317 to a degradation and solubilization of macromolecules such as fibers. However, US did not

318 appear as the process of choice to extract gingerols and 6-shogaols into water since 74 % of
319 available phenolic compounds remained in the solid residue.

320 *3.3. Large scale microwave and ultrasound assisted extractions*

321 Pilot scale experiments were performed for MHG using the MAC-75 equipment
322 (figure 2b). MAC-75 apparatus is a multimode microwave reactor which contains 4
323 magnetrons (4 x 1500 W, 2450 MHz) with a maximum power of 6 kW. Contrary to
324 laboratory scale equipment (EOS-GR Microwave Gravity Station), MAC 75 equipment
325 contains a removable and rotating PTFE drum where plant material can be loaded. The
326 rotation ensures a homogeneous microwave distribution to the material treated. The aim of
327 this part was to check whether larger scale experiments could be possible for our study. It is
328 not really an “up-scaling” since the volume of plant material which can be treated and the
329 microwave power were at most 75 L and 6 kW respectively. Approximately 4 kg of press
330 cake were therefore submitted to microwaves during 25 min and condensate (essential oil and
331 constituent water) was recovered at the end of experiment as it was done at laboratory scale.
332 Several food by-products (garlic, onion and ginger press cake) were tested in addition to
333 ginger by-products to validate the method. In all cases, a condensate rich in compounds of
334 interest was recovered, what indicates that MHG process can be considered at pilot scale. For
335 industrial scale, MHG equipment has to be designed totally since no equipment is available
336 for now. However, as a follow-up to that study, an industrial up-scaling is currently studied to
337 use microwave technology for by-products valorization. For UAE, a 30 L extraction tank
338 from REUS company can be used to up-scale laboratory experiments (figure 3b). The reactor
339 is composed of a quadruple output of ultrasound at 25 kHz and a power of 4 x 200 W. Up-
340 scaling using this equipment has already been studied in previous studies and showed that
341 extraction assisted by ultrasound is promising technique that can be considered at industrial
342 scale, especially when water is chosen as solvent.⁴⁷

343 3.4. Process assessment according to the six principles of eco-extraction

344 A process assessment of the “dry” bio-refinery (DBR) developed in this work was
345 performed and compared with a conventional bio-refinery (CBR) composed of an HD step for
346 the recovery of EO and an ethanolic extraction step for the extraction of antioxidants from
347 ginger (figure 9). The bio-refineries were evaluated according to the six principles of green
348 extraction developed by Chemat *et al.*⁹ Indeed, extraction methods are designed considering
349 these aspects which aim at recovering a natural and safe extract (principle 6) reducing as
350 much as possible the use of organic solvents (principle 2), the energy consumption
351 (principle 3) and the process time (principle 5). Well-reasoned sourcing (principle 1) and
352 production of by-products with a high added value instead of waste (principle 4) have to be
353 assessed as well. Literature reports that industrials have already developed some tools based
354 on these principles to assess the sustainability of their processes in a context of continuous
355 improvement.⁴⁸ In this study, a simplified view of the bio-refineries was assessed. The six
356 parameters considered were defined and calculated as follows:

- 357 • **Raw material** (Principle 1): percentage of valorized raw material from food processing
358 industry (in %)
- 359 • **Solvent** (Principle 2): (mass of ethanol) / (total mass of solvent used for the bio-refinery)
360 (in %)
- 361 • **Energy** (Principle 3): energy consumption for the bio-refinery of 1,150 kg of raw material
362 considering extraction and evaporation steps based on the energy transfer equation [26] (in
363 kWh)
- 364 • **Waste** (Principle 4): (mass of waste) / (total mass of solvent + raw material used in the
365 process) (in %)
- 366 • **Process** (Principle 5): extraction duration for the bio-refinery (in minutes)

367 • **Product recovery** (Principle 6): (mass of final product recovered) / (mass of available
368 product in the plant material)

369 On figure 9, it is important to notice that for each principle, a value close to the center
370 is a positive result whereas a value far from the center corresponds to a negative result. Thus,
371 for “Product recovery”, the center corresponds to a recovery of 100 %. Concerning “Energy”
372 and “Process”, the maximal values reported on the axis correspond to the values obtained with
373 the CBR.

374 Compared to HD and ethanolic extraction, MHG and UAE enabled to reduce
375 extraction time from 540 minutes to 110 minutes. Moreover, in the DBR, no waste was
376 generated as illustrated in figure 1, contrary to CBR for which water from HD was considered
377 as waste as it was thrown at the end of extraction. Energy consumption was reduced as well,
378 especially with the replacement of HD by MHG (8.5 kWh and 13.5 kWh for DBR and CBR
379 respectively). Another positive effect of DBR compared to CBR is the absence of organic
380 solvent in the process since none solvent needed to be use for MHG and only constituent
381 water recovered after MHG was employed for UAE. However, DBR was not as efficient as
382 CBR in terms of extraction yields, since a reduction of 55 % for final products recovered was
383 observed for DBR compared to CBR (reduction by 74 % for antioxidants and by 33 % for
384 EO). Yet, DBR was designed to valorize totally ginger by-products with successive and
385 dependent steps whereas in CBR, EO and phenolics were recovered separately and
386 independently by HD and ethanolic extraction respectively. These processes correspond to the
387 processes of reference to recover these compounds that’s why better yields were obtained
388 compared to DBR. Finally, the reduced cost of extraction is clearly advantageous for the
389 proposed “dry” bio-refinery method in terms of time and energy.

390

391 **4. Conclusion**

392 This study aims at total valorization of ginger by-products moving towards developing
393 an original concept of “dry” bio-refinery (DBR). EO was recovered from GP by MHG
394 without solvent and extraction of antioxidants from GPMHG was carried out by UAE using
395 constituent water of GP obtained after MHG as extraction solvent. Larger scale experiments
396 enabled to show that MHG and UAE are promising techniques which can be considered at
397 pilot scale. Although the effect of US was not significant for extraction of gingerols and 6-
398 shogaol from GPMHG compared with a conventional maceration, US considerably improve
399 the mass extraction yield, as a rise of 126 % was noticed between CM and UAE (16.7 W/cm^2 ;
400 0.303 W/cm^3). The DBR also appeared as a greener and cleaner process in contrast with a
401 CBR since extraction time, energy consumption, quantity of organic solvent and waste were
402 decreased. Despite that extraction performance was reduced (decrease of extraction yields by
403 33 % for EO and by 74 % for antioxidants) compared to a CBR, the objective of the study is
404 achieved since a total valorization of ginger by-products into high valued products was
405 performed without addition of any solvent. Indeed, from GR were obtained a juice, an
406 essential oil, an extract rich in phenolics, and a solid residue rich in fibers and phenolic acids,
407 which can be thereafter incorporated in food formulations.

408

409 **Aknowledgments**

410 The authors thank the ANR program for financial contribution to the project “ANR Labcom
411 ORTESA”. Acknowledgments are also addressed to Marjorie Danguien and Anthony
412 Aldebeet for their help on the analytical aspects of this work.

413

414

415 **References**

- 416 1 L. A. Pfaltzgraff, M. De bruyn, E. C. Cooper, V. Budarin and J. H. Clark, *Green Chem.*,
417 2013, **15**, 307.
- 418 2 M. Chandrasekaran, *Valorization of food processing by-products*, 2013, pp. 517–557.
- 419 3 C. P. Passos, S. Yilmaz, C. M. Silva and M. A. Coimbra, *Food Chem.*, 2009, **115**, 48–53.
- 420 4 N. Boussetta, E. Vorobiev, L. H. Le, A. Cordin-Falcimaigne and J.-L. Lanoisellé, *LWT -*
421 *Food Sci. Technol.*, 2012, **46**, 127–134.
- 422 5 D. Casas-Orozco, A. L. Villa, F. Bustamante and L.-M. González, *Food Bioprod. Process.*,
423 2015, **96**, 86–98.
- 424 6 A. Bocco, M.-E. Cuvelier, H. Richard and C. Berset, *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 1998, **46**,
425 2123–2129.
- 426 7 B. Kamm and M. Kamm, in *White Biotechnology*, eds. R. Ulber and D. Sell, Springer
427 Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2007, vol. 105, pp. 175–204.
- 428 8 E. Uçkun Kıran, A. P. Trzcinski and Y. Liu, *J. Chem. Technol. Biotechnol.*, 2015, **90**,
429 1364–1379.
- 430 9 F. Chemat, M. A. Vian and G. Cravotto, *Int. J. Mol. Sci.*, 2012, **13**, 8615–8627.
- 431 10 K. Thirugnanasambandham and V. Sivakumar, *J. Saudi Soc. Agric. Sci.*
- 432 11 J. Prakash Maran, V. Sivakumar, K. Thirugnanasambandham and R. Sridhar, *Carbohydr.*
433 *Polym.*, 2014, **101**, 786–791.
- 434 12 M. Chen, Y. Zhao and S. Yu, *Food Chem.*, 2015, **172**, 543–550.
- 435 13 J. P. Maran, B. Priya and C. V. Nivetha, *Ind. Crops Prod.*, 2015, **63**, 182–189.
- 436 14 M. Herrero, A. Cifuentes and E. Ibañez, *Food Chem.*, 2006, **98**, 136–148.
- 437 15 E. Sabio, M. Lozano, V. Montero de Espinosa, R. L. Mendes, A. P. Pereira, A. F. Palavra
438 and J. A. Coelho, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.*, 2003, **42**, 6641–6646.
- 439 16 N. Boussetta and E. Vorobiev, *Comptes Rendus Chim.*, 2014, **17**, 197–203.
- 440 17 F. J. Segovia, E. Luengo, J. J. Corral-Pérez, J. Raso and M. P. Almajano, *Ind. Crops Prod.*,
441 2015, **65**, 390–396.
- 442 18 B. Berka-Zougali, A. Hassani, C. Besombes and K. Allaf, *J. Chromatogr. A*, 2010, **1217**,
443 6134–6142.
- 444 19 F. Chemat, A. S. Fabiano-Tixier, M. A. Vian, T. Allaf and E. Vorobiev, *TrAC Trends Anal.*
445 *Chem.*, 2015, **71**, 157–168.
- 446 20 N. Rombaut, A.-S. Tixier, A. Bily and F. Chemat, *Biofuels Bioprod. Biorefining*, 2014, **8**,
447 530–544.
- 448 21 S. R. Shirasath, S. H. Sonawane and P. R. Gogate, *Chem. Eng. Process. Process Intensif.*,
449 2012, **53**, 10–23.
- 450 22 M. Boukroufa, C. Boutekedjiret, L. Petigny, N. Rakotomanomana and F. Chemat,
451 *Ultrason. Sonochem.*, 2015, **24**, 72–79.
- 452 23 J. Prakash, *J. Med. Plants Res.*, 2010, **4**, 2674–2679.
- 453 24 E. M. Konar, S. M. Harde, L. D. Kagliwal and R. S. Singhal, *Ind. Crops Prod.*, 2013, **42**,
454 299–307.
- 455 25 W. C. Eric Chan, Y. Y. Lim and S. K. Wong, *Free Radic. Antioxid.*, 2011, **1**, 6–16.
- 456 26 D. Mnayer, A.-S. Fabiano-Tixier, E. Petitcolas, K. Ruiz, T. Hamieh and F. Chemat, *Food*
457 *Anal. Methods*, 2014, **8**, 586–595.
- 458 27 Zill-e-Huma, M. Abert-Vian, M. Elmaataoui and F. Chemat, *J. Food Eng.*, 2011, **105**, 351–
459 360.
- 460 28 Zill-e-Huma, M. Abert Vian, J. F. Maingonnat and F. Chemat, *J. Chromatogr. A*, 2009,
461 **1216**, 7700–7707.
- 462 29 L. Paniwnyk, H. Cai, S. Albu, T. J. Mason and R. Cole, *Ultrason. Sonochem.*, 2009, **16**,
463 287–292.

- 464 30 K. S. Suslick, D. J. Casadonte and S. J. Doktycz, *Solid State Ion.*, 1989, **32/33**, 444–452.
465 31 M. Vinatoru, M. Toma, O. Radu, P. Filip, D. Lazurca and T. J. Mason, *Ultrason.*
466 *Sonochem.*, 1997, **4**, 135–139.
467 32 M. Vinatoru, *Ultrason. Sonochem.*, 2015, **25**, 94–95.
468 33 D. Pingret, A.-S. Fabiano-Tixier, C. L. Bourvellec, C. M. G. C. Renard and F. Chemat, *J.*
469 *Food Eng.*, 2012, **111**, 73–81.
470 34 S. Mukherjee, N. Mandal, A. Dey and B. Mondal, *J. Food Sci. Technol.*, 2014, **51**, 3301–
471 3308.
472 35 D. W. Cornell and R. A. Jordan, *J. Sci. Food Agric.*, 1971, **22**, 93–95.
473 36 T. A. Van Beek and G. P. Lelyveld, *Phytochem. Anal.*, 1991, **2**, 26–34.
474 37 A. Filly, X. Fernandez, M. Minuti, F. Visinoni, G. Cravotto and F. Chemat, *Food Chem.*,
475 2014, **150**, 193–198.
476 38 S. Périno-Issartier, C. Ginies, G. Cravotto and F. Chemat, *J. Chromatogr. A*, 2013, **1305**,
477 41–47.
478 39 S. Ok and W.-S. Jeong, *Prev. Nutr. Food Sci.*, 2012, **17**, 166–171.
479 40 Zill-e-Huma, M. A. Vian, A.-S. Fabiano-Tixier, M. Elmaataoui, O. Dangles and F.
480 Chemat, *Food Chem.*, 2011, **127**, 1472–1480.
481 41 K. Vilku, R. Mawson, L. Simons and D. Bates, *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.*, 2008,
482 **9**, 161–169.
483 42 F. Chemat, Zill-e-Huma and M. K. Khan, *Ultrason. Sonochem.*, 2011, **18**, 813–835.
484 43 A. R. Jambrak, Z. Herceg, D. Šubarić, J. Babić, M. Brnčić, S. R. Brnčić, T. Bosiljkov, D.
485 Čvek, B. Tripalo and J. Gelo, *Carbohydr. Polym.*, 2010, **79**, 91–100.
486 44 A. Ebringerová and Z. Hromádková, *Ultrason. Sonochem.*, 1997, **4**, 305–309.
487 45 L. Zhang, X. Ye, T. Ding, X. Sun, Y. Xu and D. Liu, *Ultrason. Sonochem.*, 2013, **20**, 222–
488 231.
489 46 S.-S. Wong, S. Kasapis and D. Huang, *Food Hydrocoll.*, 2012, **26**, 365–369.
490 47 A. Meullemiestre, E. Petitcolas, Z. Maache-Rezzoug, F. Chemat and S. A. Rezzoug,
491 *Ultrason. Sonochem.*, 2016, **28**, 230–239.
492 48 L. Leseurre, C. Merea, S. Duprat de Paule and A. Pinchart, *Green Chem.*, 2014, **16**, 1139.
493
494
495

496 **Table captions :**

497 Table 1: Volatile compounds and antioxidants extracted from ginger plant material.

498

499

| | | GR | GP | GPMHG | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|---|------------------------|------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|------|
| | | | | 0.6 W/g | 0.8 W/g | 1.0 W/g | 1.2 W/g | 1.4 W/g | 1.6 W/g | 1.8 W/g | |
| Essential oil | Yield (g/100g fresh plant material) | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | |
| | Major compounds (%) | α -pinene | 1.2 | 1.0 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.2 |
| | | camphene | 4.3 | 3.8 | 9.1 | 10.3 | 9.2 | 10.0 | 9.1 | 9.4 | 9.1 |
| | | sabinene | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| | | sulcatone | 0.0 | 0.8 | 1.2 | 2.8 | 3.3 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 2.9 |
| | | myrcene | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.0 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.1 |
| | | α -phellandrene | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.1 |
| | | limonene | 0.9 | 0.9 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 1.7 |
| | | β -phellandrene | 4.6 | 4.2 | 8.7 | 10.4 | 10.3 | 10.2 | 9.7 | 10.0 | 8.6 |
| | | terpinolene | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.2 |
| | | linalol | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.4 |
| | | borneol | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.8 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.1 |
| | | α -terpineol | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.6 |
| | | citronellol | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.8 |
| | | neral | 1.7 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 1.3 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.3 |
| | | geraniol | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.6 |
| | | geranial | 3.3 | 1.0 | 0.6 | 1.9 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.3 |
| | | geranyl acetate | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 |
| | | α -curcumene | 3.5 | 13.9 | 17.0 | 7.6 | 7.2 | 6.6 | 7.0 | 6.8 | 9.9 |
| | | germacrene D | 1.6 | 1.3 | 0.1 | 1.3 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 0.7 |
| zingiberene | 35.7 | 25.2 | 18.4 | 23.2 | 24.0 | 24.0 | 25.1 | 24.3 | 18.4 | | |
| α -farnesene | 6.5 | 6.5 | 6.3 | 5.4 | 5.5 | 5.5 | 5.7 | 5.5 | 5.7 | | |
| β -bisabolene | 5.7 | 6.8 | 0.0 | 4.8 | 4.7 | 4.6 | 4.8 | 4.7 | 5.4 | | |
| β -sesquiphellandrene | 12.1 | 13.9 | 12.3 | 9.9 | 9.9 | 9.7 | 10.2 | 9.8 | 10.4 | | |
| Antioxidants | Total content (g/100 g plant material DW) | 1.17 | 0.90 | 0.57 | 1.24 | 1.06 | 1.18 | 1.22 | 1.37 | 1.18 | |
| | Major compounds (g/100 g plant material DW) | 6-gingerol | 0.77 | 0.58 | 0.31 | 0.81 | 0.65 | 0.79 | 0.81 | 0.92 | 0.79 |
| | | 8-gingerol | 0.15 | 0.11 | 0.07 | 0.14 | 0.11 | 0.14 | 0.14 | 0.17 | 0.14 |
| | | 10-gingerol | 0.23 | 0.19 | 0.11 | 0.18 | 0.19 | 0.19 | 0.19 | 0.21 | 0.19 |
| | | 6-shogaol | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.08 | 0.11 | 0.10 | 0.08 | 0.09 | 0.08 | 0.08 |

DW: Dry weight

Table 1: Volatile compounds and antioxidants extracted from ginger plant material.

500

501

502

503

504

1 **Figures captions:**

2 Figure 1: Flow sheet of processes used in the study for total valorization of ginger by-
3 products.

4 Figure 2: Microwave Hydrodiffusion and Gravity (MHG): from laboratory (a) to pilot scale
5 (b).

6 Figure 3: Ultrasound assisted extraction (UAE): from laboratory (a) to pilot scale (b).

7 Figure 4: Effect of MW power on quantity of constituent water recovered by MHG.

8 Figure 5: Evolution of temperature in the matrix submitted to microwaves (1.6 W/g).

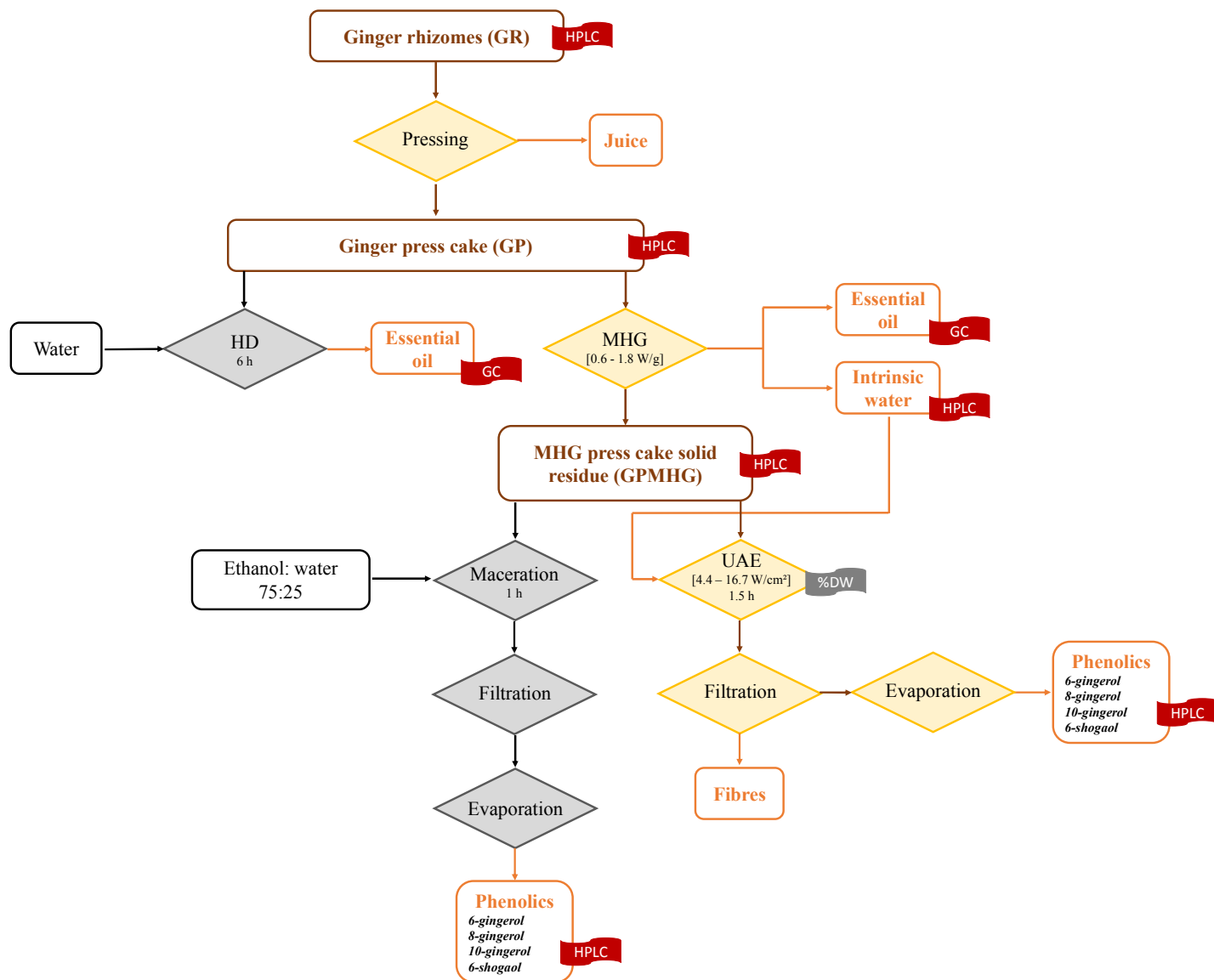
9 Figure 6: Characteristic HPLC-DAD chromatogram of a ginger extract at 282 nm.

10 Figure 7: Evolution of extract's dry weight as a function of ultrasonic intensity (and power
11 density).

12 Figure 8: Effect of US on extraction yield and gingerols and 6-shogaol content in the extracts.

13 Figure 9: Process assessment of "dry" bio-refinery and conventional bio-refinery according to
14 the six principles of eco-extraction.

15



1

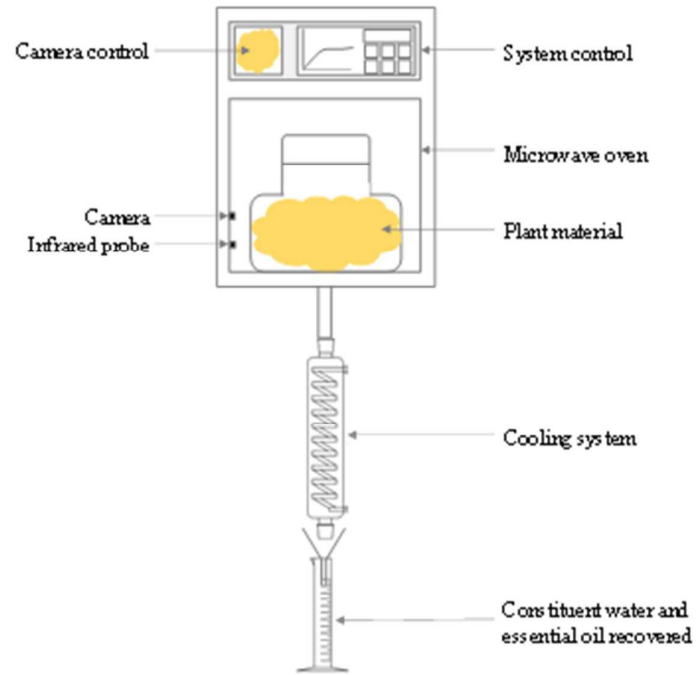
2 Conventional bio-refinery3 "Dry" bio-refinery

4

5 Figure 1: Flow sheet of processes used in the study for total valorization of ginger by-
6 products.7 MHG: Microwave Hydrodiffusion and Gravity; UAE: Ultrasound assisted extraction; DW:
8 Dry weight.

9

1



2

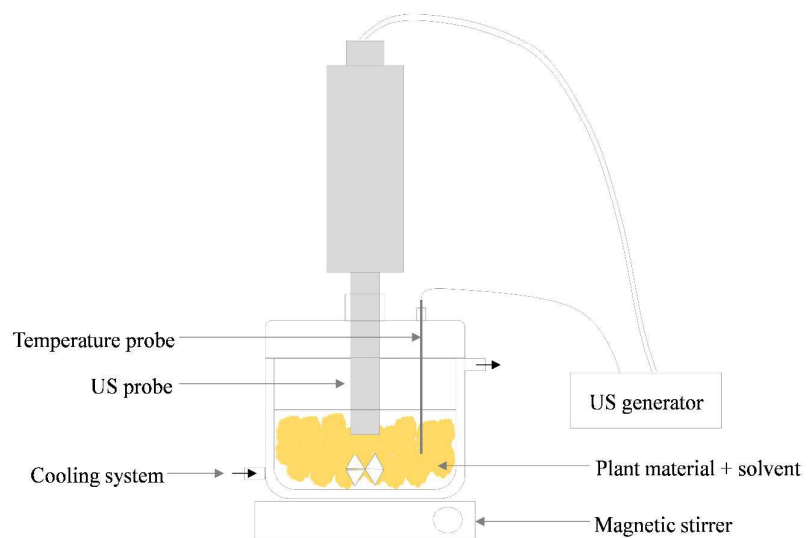
(a)

(b)

3

4

Figure 2: Microwave Hydrodiffusion and Gravity (MHG): from laboratory (a) to pilot scale (b).



1

2

3

4

5

Figure 3: Ultrasound assisted extraction (UAE): from laboratory (a) to pilot scale (b).

1

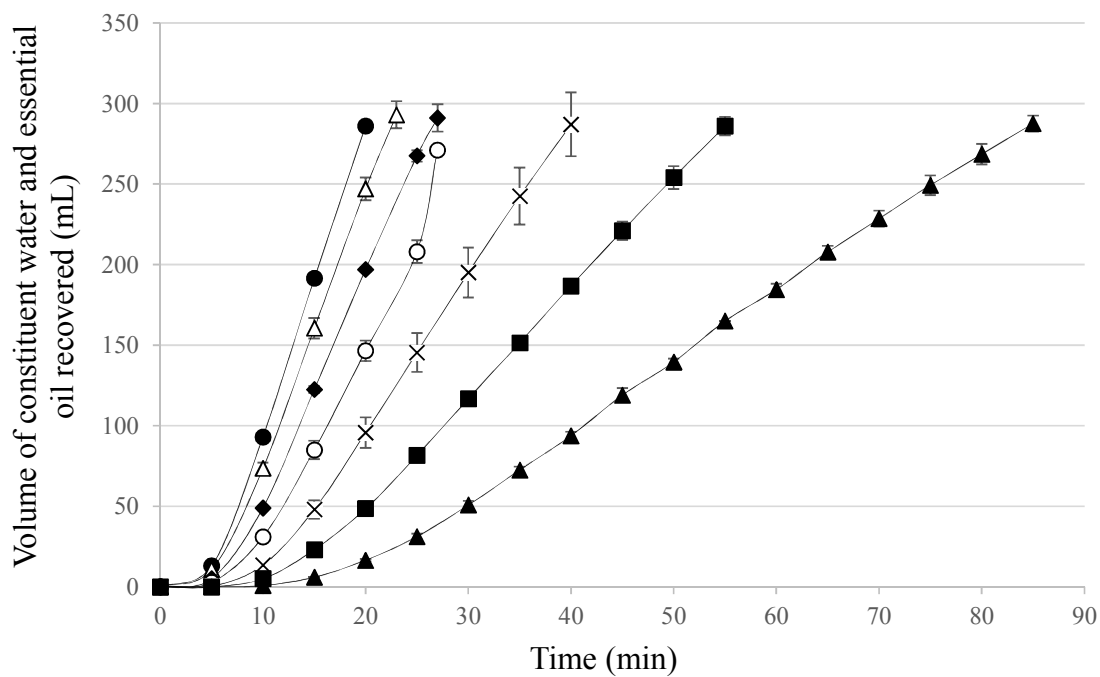
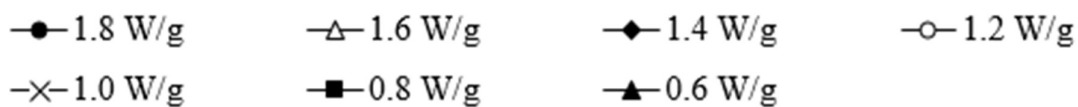
2
3

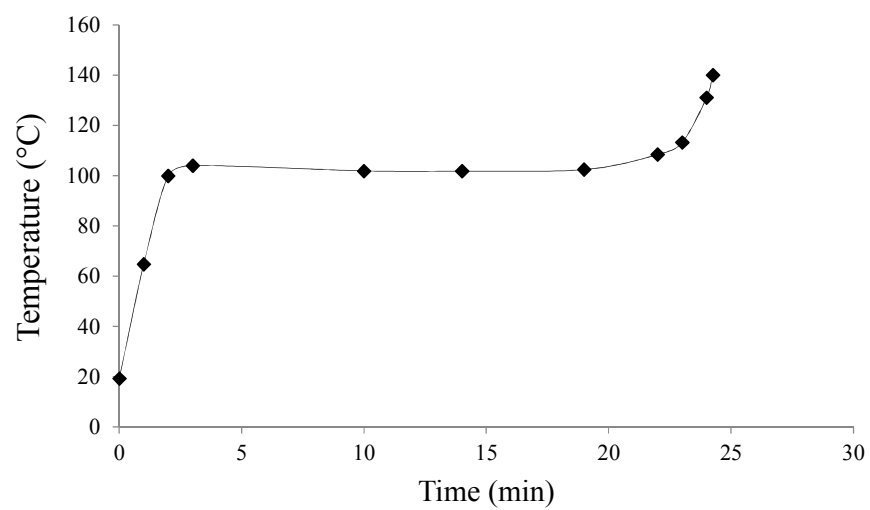
Figure 4: Effect of MW power on quantity of “*in situ*” water recovered by MHG.



4

5

1



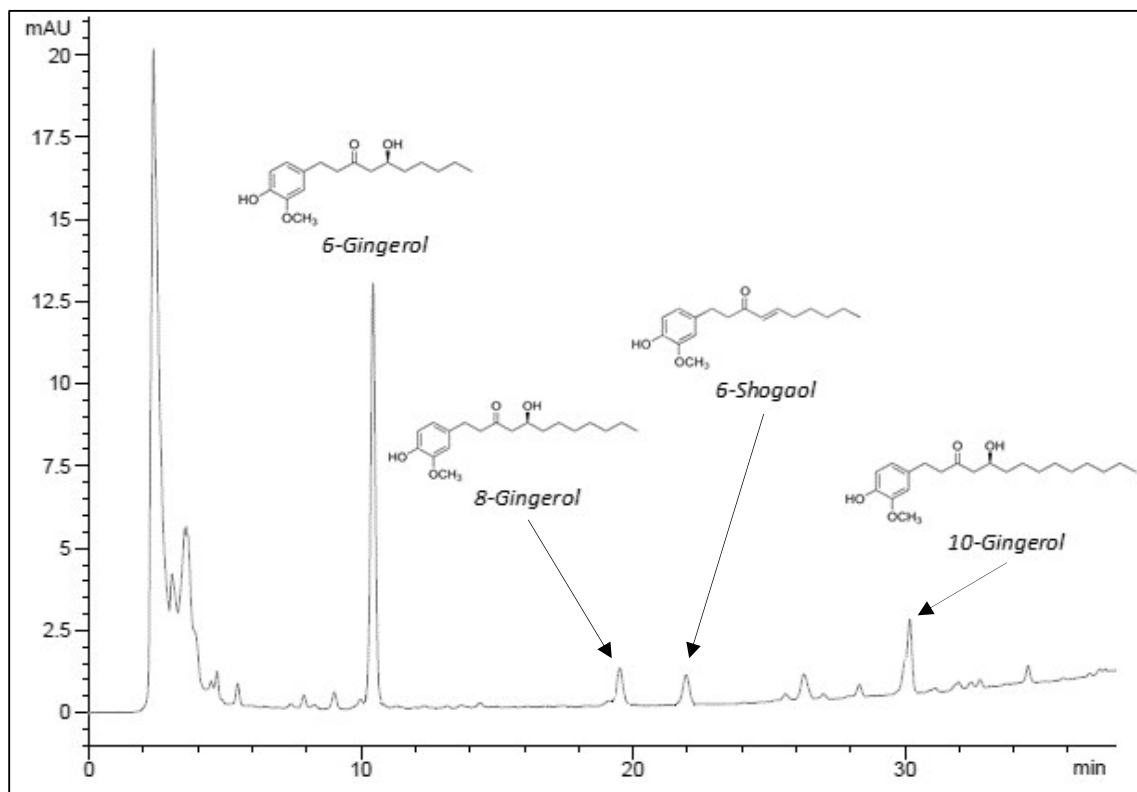
2

3

Figure 5: Evolution of temperature in the matrix submitted to microwaves (1.6 W/g).

4

1

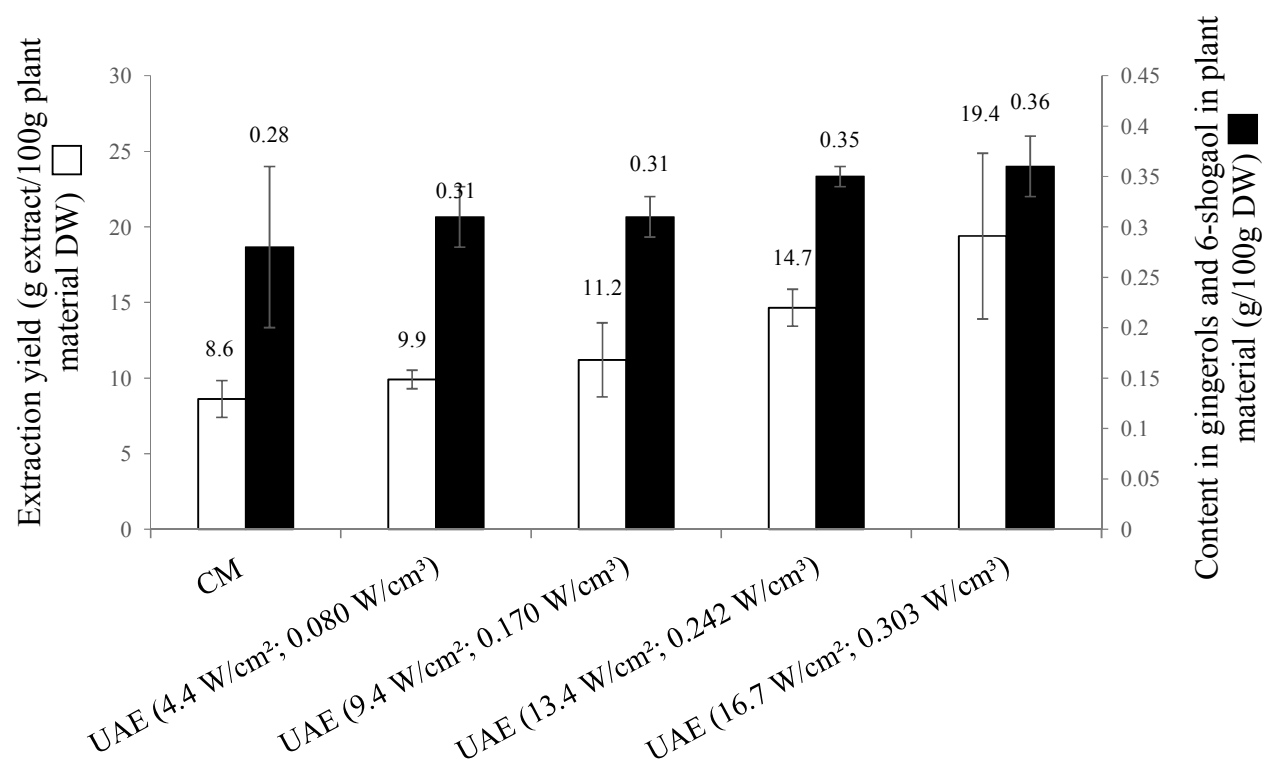


2

3

Figure 6: Specific HPLC-DAD chromatogram of a ginger extract at 282 nm.

4

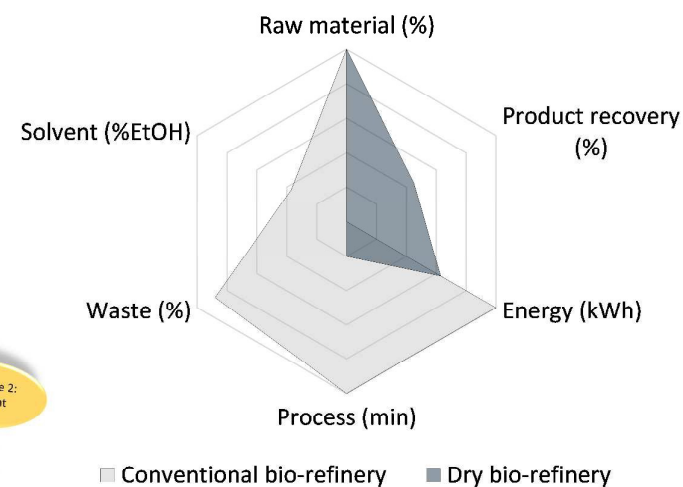
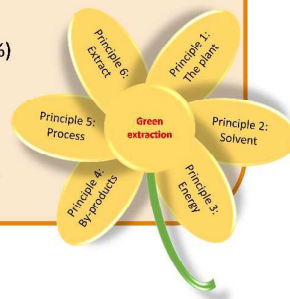


1

2 Figure 8: Effect of US on extraction yield and gingerols and 6-shogaol content in the extracts.

3

- **Raw material** (*principle 1*): % of valorized raw material from food processing industry
- **Solvent** (*principle 2*): $\frac{\text{mass ethanol}}{\text{total mass of solvent used in the bio-refinery}}$ (%)
- **Energy** (*principle 3*): energy consumption for the bio-refinery of 1.150 kg of raw material (extraction and evaporation steps) (kWh)
- **Waste** (*principle 4*): $\frac{\text{mass waste}}{\text{total mass of solvent + raw material used in the process}}$ (%)
- **Process** (*principle 5*): extraction duration for the bio-refinery (min)
- **Product recovery** (*Principle 6*): $\frac{\text{mass of final product recovered}}{\text{mass of available product in the plant material}}$



4

5

Figure 9: Process assessment of “dry” bio-refinery and conventional bio-refinery according to the six principles of eco-extraction.

6

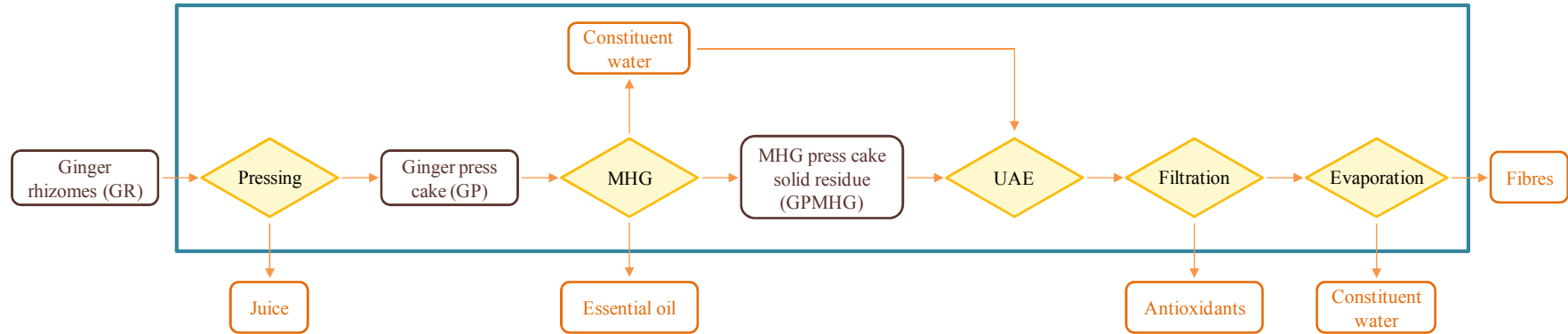
7

8

9

1 Graphical Abstract

2



3