An overview of biomass conversion: Exploring new opportunities

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ABSTRACT

15 Recycling biomass is indispensable these days not only because fossil energy sources are
16 gradually depleted, but also because pollution of the environment, caused by the increasing use
17 of energy, must be reduced. This paper intends to overview the results of plant biomass
18 processing methods that are currently in use. Our aim was also to review published methods that
19 are not currently in use. It is intended to explore the possibilities of new methods and enzymes to
20 be used in biomass recycling. The results of this overview are perplexing in almost every area.
21 Advances have been made in the pre-treatment of biomass and in the diversity and applications
22 of the enzymes utilized. Based on molecular modeling, very little progress has been made in the
23 modification of existing enzymes for altered function and adaptation for the environmental
24 conditions during the processing of biomass. There are hardly any publications in which
25 molecular modeling techniques are used to improve enzyme function and to adapt enzymes to
26 various environmental conditions. Our view is that using modern computational, biochemical,
27 and biotechnological methods would enable the purposeful design of enzymes that are more
28 efficient and suitable for biomass processing.

29

INTRODUCTION

31 The importance of biomass recycling is that the usage of fossil fuels can be reduced towards the
32 goal of realizing a more sustainable mix of energy sources. Biomass is a renewable energy
33 source, and is reproduced in a short life cycle, usually within one year (*Wang et al., 2018*). Plant
34 biomass that is recycled annually on Earth is estimated to be about 200 billion (2×10^{11})
35 tonnes/year (*Bjerre et al., 1996*). Most of this is in the form of lignocellulose. The aim of
36 biomass recycling is to extract, process and convert the major carbohydrate components
37 (sucrose, starch, cellulose, hemicellulose) in plant material into valuable chemical components or
38 fuel (*Schlaf et al., 2016*). With the use of biomass, the use of current energy sources (coal,
39 natural gas, oil) can be reduced. This can result in lower air pollution and slow down the rate of
40 increase in the athmospheric CO_2 content (suppressing the greenhouse effect and global
41 warming) (*Song et al., 2016*). We believe that it is important to explore all opportunities to apply
42 existing physical, chemical, microbiological, biochemical and biotechnological knowledge, and
43 apply the results to improve biomass conversion and utilization processes.

44

Plant Cell Wall Polysaccharides

46 Cellulose is one of the most stable molecules on Earth. The glucose associated with the β-1,4-
47 O-glucosidic bonds forms cellulose (*Heinze et al., 2018*). Within the polymer molecule, H-bonds
48 are formed between the ring's oxygen and the 3-OH group, while H-bond is also formed through
49 the O-glycosidic bond and the 6-OH group between the chains (*Shuangxi et al., 2020*). This
50 cross-linked structure effectively prevents the enzymatic degradation of the polymer molecule
51 since the O-glycosidic bonds are difficult to access for enzymes (*Rosenau et al., 2018*). Thus, the
52 hydrolysis of cellulose molecules is difficult to accomplish without help. The breakdown of
53 cellulose is also hampered by the fact that hydrolysis of the O-glycosidic bonds may be reversed
54 due to the immobility of the molecules.
55 Hemicelluloses are polysaccharides that, in addition to cellulose, are involved in building up
56 the cell wall (*Houfani et al., 2020*). Their role is to fix the cell wall skeleton and connect it to the
57 cellulose fiber network. The practical distinction between cellulose and hemicellulose is made
58 possible by the fact that cellulose is not soluble in NaOH solution, while polysaccharides with

59 lower molecular weight and the different polysaccharides of hemicellulose are soluble (*Kojima et*
60 *al., 2019*). On the other hand, acid hydrolysis of hemicelluloses takes place under milder
61 conditions than that of cellulose; with dilute sulfuric acid, almost all of the hemicellulose content
62 can be liquefied into monomers without additional enzymatic or acid treatment. Cellulose can
63 only be hydrolyzed with concentrated hydrochloric acid or 60-80% sulfuric acid at more than
64 100 °C temperature and under high pressure (*Lee & Yu, 2020*).
65 The hemicellulose content of plants is predominantly pentosan, and thus arabinan is formed
66 by L-arabinose associated with 1,2-, 1,3- and 1,5-O-glycosidic bonds. Xylan consists of xylose
67 linked by beta-1,4-O-glycosidic bonds. The chain may be linked to alpha-L-arabinose and alpha-
68 D-glucose (*Serna-Saldívar & Hernández, 2020*). Xyloglucan and arabino-galactan also contain
69 sugars composed of five and six carbon atoms. Galactomannans are made up of beta-D-
70 mannoses which are connected by beta-1,4-O-glycosidic bonds, formed by a side chain bound by
71 beta-D-galactose with 1,6-O-glycosidic bonds (*Rodriguez-Canto et al., 2019*).
72 Pectins, together with hemicelluloses and proteins, form the base matrix of the middle plate
73 and cell walls (*Stoffels et al., 2020*). Most of the pectin consists of alpha-D-galacturonic acid.
74 The chain is interrupted in part by alpha-L-rhamnose, to which the alpha-L-arabinose chain and
75 the alpha-D-galactose chain may be attached (*Shakhmatov, Toukach & Makarova, 2020*).
76 Lignin is deposited in the molecular size cavities of the cell wall of cellulose and
77 hemicellulose, increasing the mechanical resistance of the cell wall (*Setälä et al., 2020*). Lignin
78 found in different wood species or in plant parts have different structure, but there are structural
79 similarities: the aromatic rings are often linked by a methoxy group or a phenolic hydroxyl group
80 (*Li et al., 2020*). Lignin is a constituent of tissues of plants. Three cinnamon alcohol derivatives
81 (sinapyl alcohol, *p*-coumaryl alcohol, coniferyl alcohol) are involved in the construction of
82 lignin. From these, the macromolecular lignin is formed by the action of a dehydrogenase
83 enzyme (*Elder et al., 2020*). Lignin can interact in several ways with cellulose and
84 hemicellulose.
85
Review methodology
87 The following search terms were used for database search: polysaccharides, cellulose
88 hemicellulose lignin biodegradation, modification, immobilization, industry. O-glucosyl
89 hydrolase, cellulase enzyme modeling, molecular modeling, computation, cellulase modification,
90 cellulose enzyme modification modeling. The search was combined with OR and AND terms.
91 Searches were carried out up until 2020. We have also reviewed the articles and references
92 therein. The articles we found interesting with respect to the problem area highlighted above
93 were classified into the following categories: Biodegradation of polysaccharides; Mechanical and
94 physico-chemical modifications of substrates; Cellulose hemicellulose lignin modification;
95 Modification of enzymes; Immobilization of enzymes; Molecular modeling of enzymes. From
96 these articles, we compiled our study to examine the use of model-based enzyme modifications
97 or rational design in contrast to conventional methods.
98
BIODEGRADATION OF POLYSACCHARIDES
100 The production of ethanol, which can also be used as a fuel, is still almost exclusively
101 fermentation-based. For this, the raw material (sucrose and starch) is obtained from sugar cane,
102 sugar beet, cereals, and potatoes (*Arnold et al., 2019*). These so-called first-generation biofuel
103 technologies necessarily raise ethical, environmental and political concerns due to the raw
104 materials used in these processes. Therefore, second-generation technologies (*Satari et al., 2019*)

105 are under constant development. These technologies can utilize lignocellulose-containing
106 byproducts of agriculture and forestry, as well as industrial wastes or residues along with crops
107 that are not used for food production. Unlike the first-generation methods that process only a
108 relatively small proportion of plants (root, stem, crop), processing the entire biomass is possible
109 with second-generation technologies. The third-generation methods (*Mahjoub et al., 2020*) are
110 used to process algae and microorganisms into biofuels. Fourth-generation biofuel processes use
111 genetically modified algae to further enhance fuel production.
112   How can biomass-based fuel production methods be improved for greater efficiency or
113 productivity? One option is modifying processing conditions (temperature, pH, physical and
114 chemistry parameters) or altering the substrate with physical chemistry methods. Another
115 possibility is to look for newer and more specific enzymes to utilize biomass. The third approach
116 is to modify the existing enzymes and increase their efficiency. These options are reviewed
117 below.
118

Mechanical, physico-chemical and biotechnological modifications of substrates

121 Pre-treatment of biomass can be physical, chemical, physico-chemical and biological. The
122 recovered polysaccharides (cellulose, hemicellulose) can be degraded by mild acidic or
123 enzymatic hydrolysis (*Cann et al., 2020*). Monosaccharides (glucose, mannose, xylose,
124 arabinose, etc.) obtained by hydrolysis of polysaccharides are sources of valuable components
125 (methanol, ethanol, furfural and derivatives, hydroxymethyl-furfural, levulinic acid, succinic
126 acid, lactic acid, sorbitol, etc.) (*Van Walsum et al., 1996, Ramli & Amin, 2020*). The purpose of
127 physical pretreatment is to reduce the particle size by grinding. The energy requirements are
128 usually high, so these methods cannot be economical procedures on an industrial scale.
129   One possible way of chemical pretreatment is the lignin breakdown with ozone, which occurs
130 at room temperature under atmospheric pressure and does not produce toxic byproducts.
131 However, this method is very expensive due to the use of ozone (*Figueirêdo, Heeres & Deuss,*
132 *2020*). Acid or alkaline hydrolysis is more important in practice (*Kobayashi & Fukuoka, 2013*).
133 An example of the former is mild acid pre-treatment with sulfuric acid, which can be carried out
134 in a high-temperature continuous reactor. Hemicelluloses can be released from the plant cell wall
135 with alkali (*Tribot et al., 2019*). After alkaline extraction, most hemicellulose fractions dissolve
136 in water (*Teymouri et al, 2005; Deepa et al., 2011; Kamm, Gruber & Kamm, 2016*). General
137 experience shows that treatment with ionic liquids causes both carbohydrates and lignin to be
138 soluble but not degraded (*Ramli & Amin, 2020*). Another possibility for chemical pre-treatment
139 is the use of organic solvents; in this case, an organic solvent is used in the presence of an
140 inorganic acid catalyst to break down the bonds between hemicelluloses and lignin to bring the
141 lignin into solution (*Wang C. et al., 2020*). The structure of lignin and the linkages between
142 lignin and hemicellulose and cellulose can be broken by acetyl group removal as well, and the
143 successive enzymatic hydrolysis of cellulose can be enhanced (*Huang J. et al., 2019*).
144   The impact of various pre-treatment processes on improving the surface morphology of wheat
145 straw has been investigated using polystyrene composite films. The surface was improved by the
146 enhancement of the susceptible cellulose area; therefore, the modified material can be used for
147 various industrial green packaging applications (*Dixit & Yadav, 2019*). The effect of alkali-
148 bleach treatment has successfully obtained microfibrillated cellulose from stalk sweet sorghum
149 waste fibers (*Ismojo et al., 2019*). Almost complete biomass saccharification was achieved with
150 4% NaOH at 50 °C. (*Alam et al., 2019*). A group showed that ball milling can lead to the

151   depolymerization of cell-wall polymers, especially the polysaccharides. Micromorphology
152   characterization showed that mechanical manipulation disintegrated fibrillar matrices. The β-1,4
153   glycosidic bond breakage in cellulose, along with the decomposition of arabinoxylans suggested
154   the modification in polysaccharide chains (*Liu H. et al., 2019*). In conclusion, mechanochemical
155   methods can be used to create more digestible plant material.
156   The addition of naphthol derivatives can enhance the enzymatic hydrolysis, as was described
157   by Lai (*Lai et al., 2018; Fei et al., 2020*). *P*-toluenesulfonic acid can remove wood lignin. Disk
158   refining with subsequent acid hydrolysis (so-called physicochemical treatment) doubled the
159   delignification efficiency (*Gu et al., 2019*).
160   In a 2-propanol alkaline medium, arabinoxylans were derivatized by carboxymethylation with
161   sodium monochloroacetate. With this method, it is possible to produce hemicellulosic derivatives
162   from corn fibers without using extreme conditions in solvents and temperature (*de Mattos et al.,*
163   *2019*). Lignocellulose crops serve as an excellent feedstock for biofuels because of their reduced
164   costs and net carbon emission, and higher energy efficiency. Results showed that *Miscanthus*
165   *sacchariflorus* possesses lower lignin and higher polysaccharide content in its leaves and stalks,
166   compared to other Miscanthus species, therefore it is a better bioenergy crop (*Jung, Kim &*
167   *Chung, 2015*). It was found that an alkali treatment leads to gradual removal of binding
168   materials, such as hemicellulose and lignin from bamboo fiber (*Zhang, Wang & Keer, 2015;*
169   *Chin et al., 2020*). The wood waste and cellulose, hemicellulose handled with cyclic anhydrides
170   in a green reactive and solvent-free extrusion will allow targeted modification of composites
171   (*Vaidya, Gaugler & Smith, 2016*). Suhas focused on the utilization of cellulose as an adsorbent in
172   natural/modified form or as a precursor for activated carbon (*Suhas et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016*).
173   Cellulose, lignin, and hemicellulose were tested to hydrothermal carbonization in different
174   temperature ranges and time. The effects of these parameters were combined and investigated in-
175   depth (*Borrero-López et al., 2018*). Modification of pectin improves its physicochemical
176   properties, thus allowing the availability of other components (*Buergy et al., 2020; Wang W. et*
177   *al., 2020*).
178   Modified microfibrillated cellulose was used with three different coupling agents: 3-
179   aminopropyl triethoxysilane, 3-glycidoxypropyltrimethoxysilane, and titanate-containing agent
180   to improve the mechanical properties of the cellulose-based material. The modifications changed
181   the surface character of the cellulose from hydrophilic to hydrophobic (*Biliuta & Coseri, 2019*),
182   and an epoxy resin system can be created with better mechanical properties of regular composite
183   materials (*Lu et al., 2008*). Results showed that banana fiber modified by alkaline treatment is a
184   low-cost alternative for metal removal in aqueous industry effluents (*Barreto et al., 2010*).
185   Lignin is mostly used as a filler or additive. It may be an excellent candidate for chemical
186   modifications and reactions due to its phenolic and aliphatic hydroxyl groups for the
187   development of new biobased materials (*Laurichesse & Avérous, 2014; Bertella & Luterbacher,*
188   *2020*).
189   Zeng reviewed the recent advances in understanding lignin structure in plant cell walls and
190   the negative roles of lignin in the processes of converting biomass to biofuels (*Zeng et al., 2014*).
191   Modification of the degree of 4-O-methylation of secondary plant cell wall glucuronoxylan is
192   important for better utilization of plant biomass for biofuel production (*Yuan et al., 2014*). Huang
193   indicated that to enhance biomethane yield of corn stover, *Ceriporiopsis subvermispora*
194   modification is one of the most effective methods. Increasing the number of reducing ends in β-
195   1,4-glucan chains positively affected biomass enzymatic saccharification. This demonstrates a

196 potential strategy for genetic modification of cellulose microfibrils in bioenergy crops (*Huang*
197 *W. et al., 2019*).
198

Application of new and special enzymes

200 Lignin-degrading enzymes that are produced mainly by fungi, are capable of depolymerization
201 and modification of lignin. The most studied representatives of these enzymes are lignin
202 peroxidase, manganese peroxidase and laccase (*Eriksson & Bermek, 2009; Zhao et al., 2020*).
203 Dashtban describes ligninolytic enzyme families that are involved in wood decay processes. The
204 molecular structures, biochemical properties, and the mechanisms of action which make them
205 useful candidates in biotechnological applications, such as pulp bio-bleaching, biosensors, food
206 industries, textile industries, soil bioremediation and in the production of complex polymers in
207 synthetic chemistry are also described (*Dashtban et al., 2010*). With anaerobic digestion of
208 organic waste high in lignocellulose content, methane was synthesized by using laccase,
209 hemicellulose, and cellulase enzymes (*Luo et al., 2010; Abraham et al., 2020*).
210   It was proved that horticultural waste was a potential feedstock for fuel using *Saccharomyces*
211 *cerevisiae* ethanol production and a special pre-treatment method was developed (*Geng, Xin &*
212 *Ip, 2012*). Polysaccharide conversion within the lignocellulosic biomass by enzymes is under
213 intensive research (*Horn et al., 2012*). Other researchers isolated a special pectate lyase enzyme
214 that had high thermal and pH stability and was able to produce pectin oligosaccharides from food
215 waste (*Wang Z. et al., 2020*).
216   Li investigated the microbial communities involved in anaerobic digestion along with the
217 methane production characteristics of cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin. The results showed
218 that the biomethane potential of cellulose was higher than that of hemicellulose; however,
219 hemicellulose was hydrolyzed more quickly than cellulose, while lignin was very difficult to be
220 digested (*Li et al., 2018*). Lignocellulosic enzymes, such as cellulases and xylanases were used to
221 modify paper pulp characteristics (*Siqueira et al., 2020*). The tear strength of recycled paper was
222 found to be increased after enzymatic treatment (*Kumar et al., 2018*).
223   When a commercial cellulase mixture was supplemented with xylanases, substrates could be
224 readily hydrolyzed, recovering most of the hemicellulose and cellulose as monomeric sugars
225 (*Wu, Chandra & Saddler, 2019*). Ying concluded that lignin could bind to cellulases and
226 decrease the enzyme accessibility to cellulose fibres. Modified lignins were prepared from alkali
227 lignin; the post-treatment weakened the adsorption rate between lignin and cellulase enzymes
228 and improved the enzymatic saccharification efficiency (*Ying et al., 2018*). Lignin peroxidase
229 (LiPH8) from the white-rot fungus *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* can efficiently catalyze the
230 degradation of lignin (*Majeke et al., 2020*). The in silico designed and engineered LiPH8 showed
231 improved stability, as well as a higher activity under acidic pH conditions (*Pham et al., 2018*).
232 Several methods have been developed to immobilize cellulase enzymes. The results indicate that
233 cheap supports can be used to effectively immobilize enzymes (*Zang et al., 2018*).
234   A research group tried the hydrolysis of hemicellulose and cellulose into fermentable sugars
235 which needs a pre-treatment of the whole material to remove unnecessary components from the
236 biomass (*Laca, Laca & Díaz, 2019*). Pentose sugars, which are formed by hydrolyzing
237 hemicelluloses, cannot be fermented with *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, therefore, other
238 ethanologenic species, e.g. *Zymomonas mobilis* are used to break down pentose. Liu critically
239 reviewed the progress in this field and highlighted challenges and strategies for solutions (*Liu C.*
240 *et al., 2019*). An integrated process of cellulase production and pre-treatment employing
241 *Piptoporus betulinus* was proposed to accomplish the economic feasibility of lignocellulosic

242 ethanol (*Li et al., 2019*). Biofuel produced from lignocellulosic biomass by hydrolysis of fungal
243 consortium enzymes is an environmentally friendly method (*Cherukuri et al., 2019*).
244 Wierzbicki summarizes biotechnological approaches to improve industrial processing
245 (*Wierzbicki et al., 2019*). Structurally different glycosyl hydrolases (enzyme families) were
246 studied. The softwood fiber modification rate by enzymes was studied, dissolved sugar
247 concentrations were measured, and the results were summarized (*Rahikainen et al., 2019*). To
248 achieve an efficient bioethanol production process, cellulase enzymes are under consideration as
249 potential biocatalysts (*Verardi et al., 2020*). Shah made an overview of cellulases, specifically
250 covering their utilization and bioconversion from a proteomics, biochemistry, and genetics
251 perspective (*Shah, Ranawat & Mishra, 2019*).
252
253

254 **Modify the enzymes and increase their efficiency**
255
256 *Modification and utilization of enzymes by molecular biological,*
257 *biotechnological, and computational methods*
258
259 The substrate specificity and activity of enzymes should be increased to reduce the costs of
260 biofuel production. Various qualities can be improved in enzymes, including specificity, catalytic
261 activity and thermostability, all under industrial conditions (*Prajapati et al., 2014*).
262 In the past few years, cellulases have been successfully immobilized with various methods
263 (*Mubarak et al., 2014; Mo et al., 2020*). Cellulase immobilization onto coffee surface provides
264 an excellent base for increasing the enzyme productivity and different uses of the enzyme
265 (*Buntić et al., 2018*). Gao developed a rapid method to immobilize cellulases onto graphene
266 oxide. The immobilization was highly efficient and shows great potential for the immobilization
267 of other enzymes (*Gao et al., 2018*).
268 Various fungi which break down lignin by their oxidoreductase enzymes (manganese
269 peroxidases, laccases, lignin peroxidases) (*Trametes*, *Polyporus*, *Pleurotus*) can also be used to
270 release cellulose. These enzymes may attack the cellulose and hemicelluloses, so sugar loss can
271 occur during the pre-treatment, and the treatments are very time-consuming (*Houfani et al.,*
272 *2020*). Fungal enzymes make up more than half of the enzymes currently used in industrial
273 applications. They play a major role in the modification, partial or complete degradation of
274 polysaccharides into oligomers and monomers (*de Vries et al., 2020*).
275 Cellulase adsorption and inactivation in the presence of lignin is the main concern in the case
276 of lignocellulose conversion to biofuels. Relatively little research deals with the necessary
277 protein structure-function relationships. By molecular modeling, highly active, low
278 lignin‐binding cellulases can be determined (*Haarmeyer et al., 2017*).
279 Understanding enzyme mechanisms at the molecular level is a fundamental requirement in the
280 case of cellulases and ligninases to produce fuel from renewable biomass more efficiently and to
281 utilize plant biomass as a sustainable energy resource. To study the three-dimensional structure
282 of the enzymes and the substrates, along with the enzyme-substrate interactions, computational
283 approaches like molecular dynamics (MD) simulations, ligand-enzyme docking, and quantum
284 chemical calculations are commonly used to give a more detailed description of interaction
285 mechanisms between the enzyme and its substrate (*Meng et al., 2011*).
286 For selected fungal cellulases, the acidic quality was determined by in silico physicochemical
287 characterization. One molecular docking study revealed that the amino acid side chains of

288 cellulases which interact with cellulose may vary, based on the source organism of the enzyme
289 (*Tamboli et al., 2017*).
290   The hydrolytic activity of cellulases depends mostly on the binding affinities of the enzyme
291 with cellulose (*Krishnaraj et al., 2017*). These results were obtained by molecular docking and
292 this method is useful in industrial biotechnology to design more effective enzyme structures
293 (*Amore et al., 2017*).
294   The activity of xylanases can be characterized under different conditions. Computational
295 models can help to scale down the experimental costs and save time by identifying enzymes with
296 appropriate activity for scientific and industrial usage (*Ariaeenejad et al., 2018*).
297   Hamre made a comparison of three different cellulases by thermodynamic signatures of
298 substrate binding (*Hamre et al., 2019*).
299   Based on an in silico study cold-active enzymes have many more advantages compared to
300 mesophilic enzymes. It is concluded that this approach would be valuable for further research
301 and application at the industrial level (*Latip, Hamid & Nordin, 2019*).
302   The study of Mahmood shows an approach by an in silico analysis to identify hot spot amino
303 acid residues responsible for enhancing the thermostability of enzymes of industrial importance
304 (*Mahmood et al., 2019*).
305   Ligninolytic enzymes can mediate lignin waste degradation. The most common ligninolytic
306 enzymes are laccase, lignin peroxidase, and manganese peroxidase. In the study of Chen (*Chen
307 et al., 2011*), lignin binding to these enzymes was determined. The robustness of the binding
308 modes was verified by MD simulations. Residues Ser113, Pro346, Glu460 in laccase, residues
309 Asp183, Arg43, Ala180 in lignin peroxidase and residues Arg177, Arg42, His173 in manganese
310 peroxidase were the most critical in binding of lignin, respectively. Interaction analyses indicated
311 that hydrophobic interaction plays a crucial function in the designation of substrate specificity.
312 This information can be used as a reference for designing enzymes with better lignin-degrading
313 properties.
314   Mäkelä described the utilization of wood and dried annual plant biomass using
315 *Basidiomycetes*, along with the biotechnological potential of the fungal enzymes for the use of
316 plant biomass (*Mäkelä et al., 2020*).
317   Gerini (*Gerini et al., 2003*) investigated the dynamical and structural properties of lignin
318 peroxidase, a heme-containing enzyme with broad substrate specificity, and its Trp171Ala
319 mutant (*Blodig et al., 2001*) in aqueous solution using MD simulations. The conformational
320 changes in the so-called ligand access channel, which structure was described previously by
321 Poulos, (*Poulos et al., 2003*) have been analyzed to investigate possible variations of its size,
322 which is very important in determining the substrate accessibility to the enzymatic active site.
323 The analysis of the MD trajectories also showed significant fluctuations of the residues forming
324 the ligand access channel, where the open and closed states are in constant equilibrium in
325 solution. These movements grant the access of the substrate to the enzyme active site. Steered
326 molecular dynamics (SMD) docking simulations have shown that the natural substrate of lignin
327 peroxidase, veratrol, can approach the heme edge through the ligand access channel of the
328 enzyme.
329   Furthermore, MD simulations made by Ecker and Fülöp (*Ecker & Fülöp, 2018*) showed that
330 small-sized ligands can not necessarily enter the channel due to their specific interactions with
331 channel residues.
332   To determine the energetics and extent of the interactions between various solvents and the
333 cellulosic oligomers, a force field for ionic liquids was developed by Liu (*Liu et al., 2010*). The

334   behavior of cellulose was examined using MD simulations of a series of glucose oligomers. The
335   simulation included cellulose oligomers in two solvents — methanol and water — which can
336   precipitate cellulose from ionic solutions. The results showed that some of the cations were
337   found to be in strong contact through hydrophobic interactions with the polysaccharides, and the
338   interaction energy between the liquid and the polysaccharide chain was stronger than in the case
339   of methanol or water. These results suggest that cationic interactions play a dominant role in the
340   dissolution of cellulose.
341   In his paper, Kun examined the degradation of plant biomass in a special way, e.g. CRISPR /
342   Cas9 genome editing and adaptive evolution (*Kun et all., 2019*).
343   Similarly, Jaeger (*Jaeger, Burney & Pfaendtner, 2015*) used MD to investigate the differences
344   in ionic liquid tolerance among three family 5 cellulases from *Trichoderma viride*, *Thermogata*
345   *maritima*, and *Pyrococcus horikoshii*. Their analysis demonstrates that the effects of ionic liquids
346   on the enzymes vary in each case from local structural disturbances to loss of much of one of the
347   enzyme's secondary structure. Enzymes with more negatively charged surfaces are much more
348   difficult to destabilize by ionic liquids. Ions in aqueous solutions affect the specificity of
349   enzymes.
350   Wohlert and Berglund (*Wohlert & Berglund, 2011*) have built a coarse-grained model of
351   cellulose for MD simulations, using cellobiose from the MARTINI coarse-grained force field
352   (*López et al., 2009*). The model was extrapolated to longer cellooligomers, and they obtained a
353   model which gives an ordered structure of cellulose in water.
354   By mutating tryptophans to alanine, Payne (*Payne et al., 2011*) calculated the relative ligand
355   binding free energy of family 6 cellulases (Cel6A). Their results propose that aromatic residues
356   directly upstream of the active site are not directly implied in binding. However, this is necessary
357   for the glucopyranose ring distortion which plays a role in catalysis. Removal of aromatic
358   residues at the entrance and exit of the enzyme tunnel highly affects the binding affinity. This
359   suggests that these residues play a role in chain acquisition and product stabilization. By MD and
360   normal mode analysis, the roles suggested from differences in binding affinity were confirmed.
361   Aromatic-carbohydrate interactions depend on the residue positions in the enzyme channel.
362   These results have implications for understanding protein structure-function relationships in
363   carbohydrate metabolism and protein engineering strategies for biomass utilization since
364   aromatic-carbohydrate interactions are present in all carbohydrate-active enzymes.
365   Wakai constructed a genetically modified strain that simultaneously contained
366   cellobiohydrolase, endoglucanase, and β-glucosidase; multiple copies of the coding genes were
367   integrated. The resulting transformant showed 40-fold higher cellulolytic activity (*Wakai et al.,*
368   *2019*).
369   High temperatures are optimal for thermophile cellulases for cleaving sugars from cellulose as
370   was described by Batista (*Batista et al., 2011*). In the thermo-resistant cellulase (Cel9A-68), the
371   cellulose-binding domain (CBM) and the catalytic domain are connected by a Pro-Ser-Thr rich
372   linker. There is a cooperative connection between these domains. The mechanism of action of
373   the CBM is still lacking. Higher collective motions were detected at higher temperatures by
374   simulations. Analysis of the motions showed an interdomain where Gly460 and Asp459, located
375   at the linker region, are the hinge residues. Therefore, thermophile cellulases are useful models
376   to study the interactions of the two domains since these collective motions and cooperative
377   connection need higher temperatures to occur at a detectable scale.
378   To examine the linker function, Payne (*Payne et al., 2013*) performed MD simulations on
379   Family 6 and 7 cellobiohydrolases bound to cellulose. The presence of glycosylated linkers

380   bound to cellulose suggests a previously unknown role in enzyme action. By measuring the
381   binding affinity of the Cel7A CBM and the natively glycosylated Cel7A CBM-linker, this
382   prediction was examined experimentally. The glycosylated linker on the crystalline cellulose
383   increases the affinity of CBM binding. The bound linker may affect enzyme action due to
384   significant damping in the enzyme fluctuations, as MD simulations suggest. The glycosylated
385   linkers in carbohydrate-active enzymes aid in dynamic binding during the enzymatic breakdown
386   of plant cell walls.
387   Based on the previous study, Costa (*Costa, Silva & Batista, 2018*) identified two residues
388   (Gly460 and Pro461) located at the linker that act as a hinge point and assumed that a Pro461Gly
389   and a Gly460+ (with an extra glycine) constructs of a Cel9A-68 would present enhanced
390   interdomain motions, while the Gly460Pro mutant would be rigid. The Pro461Gly mutation
391   resulted in an extension of the conformational space, as confirmed by clustering and free energy
392   analyses. If the enzyme has more possible conformations, its substrate-binding and degrading
393   potential may also be higher. The engineering seems to be an efficient way to change the enzyme
394   activity and to facilitate the disruption of cellulose fibers.
395   The product site of cellulase tunnel is inhibited by monosaccharides and disaccharides, so it is
396   a key ingredient of cellulase action on cellulose. The absolute binding free energy of cellobiose
397   and glucose to the product site of the catalytic tunnel of the Family 7 cellobiohydrolase (Cel7A)
398   was calculated by Bu (*Bu et al., 2011*) using two different approaches: SMD simulations and
399   alchemical free energy perturbation molecular dynamics (FEP/MD) simulations. Analysis of the
400   SMD pulling trajectories suggests that several protein residues play key roles in glucose and
401   cellobiose binding to the catalytic tunnel. Five mutations were made computationally to measure
402   the changes in free energy during the product expulsion process. The results showed that new
403   enzymes can make the conversion of biomass more efficiently.
404   In wood-fed animals, lignocellulose-rich biomass is utilized appropriately by symbiotic
405   microorganisms. Lignocellulose-based biotechnological processes work in a similar way
406   (*Ozbayram*, Kleinsteuber & Nikolausz *et al., 2020*).
407   Textor (*Textor et al., 2013*) reported the first crystal structure of the catalytic core domain of
408   Cel7A (cellobiohydrolase I) from *Trichoderma harzianum* IOC 3844. The flexibility of Tyr side
409   chains in the active center is increased compared to the reference *Trichoderma reesei* Cel7A due
410   to slightly shorter side chains of adjacent amino acids. This creates an additional gap at the side
411   face of the catalytic tunnel. *T. harzianum cellobiohydrolase I interacts with the substrate of T.*
412   *reesei Cel7A*.
413   Silveira and Skaf (*Silveira & Skaf, 2015*) used MD simulations to collect data about the
414   binding of cellobiose to *Trichoderma reesei* Cel7A (TrCel7A) cellobiohydrolase and the effects
415   of mutations that may reduce cellobiose binding, without affecting the integrities of the enzyme.
416   The product binding site shows inside flexibility, that can sterically prevent cellobiose release.
417   The enzyme-substrate interactions can be reduced by point mutations, and not necessarily
418   preserve the structure of the enzyme. Mutation of charged residues in the TrCel7A product
419   binding site causes perturbations that affect the structure of the substrate-binding tunnel and may
420   affect TrCel7A function in other steps of the hydrolysis mechanism. The results show there is a
421   connection between product inhibition and catalytic performance, and these may designate
422   directions for cellulase engineering.
423
424
425   *Modification of enzymes using molecular modeling methods*

426
427   There are several ways to improve the enzymes currently used for biomass processing.
428   Molecular modeling techniques can be used to modify enzymes to function more efficiently
429   under the given physicochemical conditions.
430   By studying the function of the enzymes and catalytic conditions, it is possible to intervene in
431   the chemical reactions by modifying the enzyme structure to better suit the actual processing. To
432   do this, we need to know the enzymatic processes used and modify the function of enzymes by
433   computer modeling and design, in the hope of better utilization.
434   Nonspecific adsorption of cellulases to lignin prevents enzymatic biomass conversion.
435   Computations show that cellulase with a negatively supercharged surface could reduce lignin
436   inhibition. It is possible to construct highly active cellulases that are resistant to lignin-mediated
437   inactivation, although further work is needed to understand this problem (*Whitehead et al.,*
438   *2017*).
439   Enzymes that break down polysaccharides are often linked with glycosylation, N- and O-
440   linked glycans, the roles of which are only partially understood. Glycans may affect the critical
441   properties of enzymes: N-glycosylation improves thermal and proteolytic stability, O-
442   glycosylation improves CBM-binding affinity and stability along with proteolytic stability, but
443   their presence not necessarily affect catalytic activity (*Amore et al., 2017*). Modeling of
444   glycosylated cellulases can improve our knowledge about the various functions of the glycans.
445   Chung described a glycosylated cellulase where mainly galactose disaccharides could be
446   found. This glycosylation dramatically impacted the hydrolysis of insoluble substrates,
447   proteolytic and thermal stability and was found to be necessary for this enzyme to function in
448   harsh environments including industrial settings (*Chung et al., 2019*).
449   It is of note that immobilized cellulase-polymethacrylate particles exhibit excellent pH-
450   adaptability compared to free cellulase (*Chan et al., 2019*).
451
452   **CONCLUSIONS**
453   We have explored the possibilities of plant structural biomass utilization along with methods
454   recently studied and applied. Progress has been made in all areas and this field is in constant
455   evolution. New physical and chemical methods have been developed for the pre-treatment of
456   biomass, which can result in extracting biomass materials more efficiently. A wide variety of
457   enzymes in microorganisms have been isolated and used in biomass processing. The mechanism
458   of enzyme function has been studied and new and modified methods have been developed. In our
459   view, there are a few areas that have been seen less development recently. These include
460   changing the properties of existing enzymes using rational design based on structure modeling,
461   MD simulations, enzyme substrate interactions, and virtual mutagenesis.
462   There are untapped and enormous opportunities to produce modified enzymes that work more
463   effectively under the usually harsh industrial conditions used for biomass processing. Using
464   rational modification of enzymes, the development of biomass conversion, enzyme or process
465   effectiveness can be increased significantly. Physical, chemical, biochemical, biotechnological
466   and molecular biological methods are available to modify the protein side chains in enzymes to
467   provide more efficient biomass utilization that are more appropriate to the techniques employed.
468   With the widespread application of these methods, further progress is expected in this field,
469   and it can only be supported that in silico modeling, virtual modification of molecules, molecular
470   simulations are used to explore enzyme action under various environmental and/or industrial
471   conditions. This would help to develop the industrial biomass utilization methods used so far

472 without having to change the method, but only to modify the specific enzymes to work more
473 efficiently under the given conditions, thus increasing productivity and reducing costs.
474

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478

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