



Lignocellulosic Biomass for Bioethanol Recovery: A way towards Environmental Sustainability

Aakansha Raj and Birendra Prasad*

Microbial & Molecular Genetics Laboratory, Department of Botany, Patna University, Patna 800005, India.

*Corresponding author: bprasad.pu@gmail.com

Received: 13-06-2024; Accepted: 10-07-2024; Published: 31-07-2024

© Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License

<https://doi.org/10.55218/JASR.2024150705>

ABSTRACT

The increasing population and industrialization have increased the day-to-day demand for energy. Global warming and other climatic disasters caused by burning of conventional fossil fuels have laid the need for an alternative and renewable fuel. Concurrently, the worldwide demand and production of bio-ethanol, a bio-based sustainable fuel, is increasing continuously. Fungal saccharification of lignocellulosic biomass takes place simultaneously with the secretion of various metabolites, which function as a catalytic system to liberate soluble sugars from insoluble composite biomass. Cellulase holds a major role in converting lignocellulosic feedstock into fermentable sugar. Fungi, especially filamentous fungi, preferably the *Aspergillus* species, are known to produce cellulase. Amongst the lignocellulosic biomass, rice straw is considered as one of the most attractive materials for producing bioethanol because of its high cellulosic and hemicellulosic content, which can be hydrolyzed into fermentable sugars. However, the recalcitrant nature of the substrate imposes considerable challenges and limitations to bioethanol production. To combat these challenges, various pretreatment techniques such as chemical, physical and physico-chemical processes are known to be effective enough to enhance the efficiency of enzymatic saccharification in order to make the complete process economically feasible.

The present work deals with the isolation and selection of hypercellulase-producing fungal species. These species were used along with the pretreatment techniques either alone or in combination for efficient hydrolysis of rice straw to obtain the maximum amount of the released sugar.

Keywords: Lignocellulosic biomass, Cellulase, Fungi, Enzyme assays, Pretreatment, Bioethanol.

INTRODUCTION

The past few decades have witnessed the doubling of the human population,^[1] which is estimated to reach upto a value of 9 billion by 2050.^[2,3] This has increased worldwide concern about climate change keeping carbon emissions as a causal factor.^[4] India, with its vast population density showing a growth rate every minute, demands a simultaneous increase in the rate of agricultural production. However, the rise in agricultural productivity would lead to a consequent rise in agricultural residues. Lignocellulosic biomass serves as a potential option for bio-ethanol production in terms of energy ratio, abundant availability, low cost as well as ethanol yields.^[5] Rice straw is one such main agricultural substrate residue in India.^[6] In addition, day-to-day rises in gas and fuel prices have triggered humankind to find alternative and sustainable energy resources, especially bio-ethanol fuel for automobiles.^[7]

The yearly availability of rice straw was approximately 731 million tons in Africa, 667.6 million tons in Asia, 3.9 million tons in Europe and 37.2 million tons in America.^[8] This huge quantity of rice straw is estimated to produce about 206 billion liters volume of bio-ethanol annually.^[9] The major steps involved in lignocellulosic ethanol production are effective pretreatment of the substrate, enzymatic hydrolysis by potential microorganisms and fermentation of reduced

sugar.^[10] The basic purpose of this research study is to find potential fungal isolates which could degrade the lignocellulosic components of rice straw to form reducing sugar and thereby conversion of these sugars to bioethanol.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Collection and Preparation of Substrates

Rice straw harvested from agricultural fields near Patna, Bihar, underwent a rigorous cleaning process. Initially washed with distilled water to remove impurities, it was subsequently dried, chipped, and ground to 50 and 100 μm sieve sizes. The resulting material was then stored in sterile polythene bags for future use.

Isolation and Purification of Microorganisms

Various agricultural sites and garbage areas were chosen as collection sites for soil samples to isolate potential hyper cellulolytic fungi. The soil surface was dug 2 to 4 cm and soil samples were aseptically collected and stored in sterile bags for subsequent analysis.

The collected soil samples were then cultured using the spread plate technique^[11] on Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) media. The plates were then incubated at a temperature of $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ for duration of 5 days.

To obtain purified cultures, mixed colonies were transferred onto individual plates containing the similar PDA media composition.^[12] This step allowed for the isolation of individual fungal strains for subsequent characterization and experimentation.

Screening of Purified Plates

The isolated fungal strains were screened for their cellulose-producing ability. Each of the fungal isolates was streaked individually on minimal agar media where Carboxymethyl cellulose was used as the only carbon source.^[13] The plates were incubated at $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ for proper growth, after which 1% congo red dye was flooded on the plates. Following the initial incubation period of 15 minutes, the plates were subjected to a washing step using 1M NaCl solution. Upon completion of the washing step, transparent hydrolytic zones were carefully observed and noted. These zones indicated areas where the hyper cellulolytic fungi had enzymatically degraded the cellulose present in the medium, resulting in the formation of transparent regions. This observation served as a qualitative indicator of cellulolytic activity and aided in the further characterization of the isolated fungal strains.

Enzyme Assays

Fungal isolates displaying the most extensive hydrolytic zones were selected for enzyme assays to further characterize their cellulolytic activity. Various enzyme assays, including Filter Paper Activity (FPase) and endoglucanase assays, were conducted.^[14-16]

In these assays, the fungal isolates were tested for their ability to produce cellulolytic enzymes, which are capable of breaking down cellulose into simpler sugars. The amount of reducing sugar released during the enzymatic reactions was quantitatively measured. This provided valuable insights into the efficiency and potency of the cellulolytic enzymes produced by the fungal isolates, facilitating a comprehensive understanding of their cellulolytic capabilities.

For FPase assay, filter paper was used as a substrate. Modified Mandels medium was prepared to which an appropriate size of Whatmann filter paper was added. The mixture was allowed to incubate at 28°C in a shaker incubator for 5 days at 180 rpm. After the incubation period, the reaction mixture was procured and filtered. 1-mL of the filtered mixture was added to an equal amount of citrate buffer (pH 4.8) to which 3 mL of DNSA reagent was added and incubated at 50°C for 30 minutes. The amount of reduced sugar was observed.

For endoglucanase assay, CMCase was used as a substrate. 0.5 g of carboxymethyl cellulase was added to Modified Mandels medium and incubated at 28°C for 5 days. The reaction mixture was filtered after the completion of the incubation period and the supernatant was restored. 1ml of this supernatant was mixed with an equal amount of citrate buffer and boiled in a water bath for 15 minutes 3 mL of DNSA reagent was added to the mixture and the amount of reducing sugar was noted.

Pretreatment of Substrate

Rice straw was pretreated using different techniques, such as physical and chemical treatments were adapted to break the cellulose-hemicellulose and lignin matrix.

Milling and steam explosion treatments were used as physical treatments.^[17] For this, 10 g of the rice straw was finely chopped

and sieved to the desired mesh size. Further, it was transferred to an Erlenmeyer flask to which 250 mL of distilled water was added and passed through steam for 30 mins.

For alkaline pretreatment, 10% of sodium hydroxide was dissolved in 250 mL of distilled water to which the chopped rice straw was added. The mixture was continuously stirred with a magnetic stirrer for about 2 hours.^[18] It was further filtered and washed with distilled water until it was completely alkali-free, dried and stored.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Isolation and Purification of Microorganisms

Initially, 96 fungi were isolated and purified on Potato Dextrose Agar plates using the streak plate technique. Among these, a hyper cellulolytic fungal isolate identified as *Aspergillus terreus*, named BA13.5, demonstrated the highest cellulase activity. Other research studies have highlighted fungi as the most efficient cellulase degraders among various microorganisms for many natural polymers. Extensive research has focused on a diverse range of strains from *Penicillium* and *Trichoderma* species in this context.^[19] In recent years, *Aspergillus* species have also gained attention for their significant cellulase production, rendering them promising for industrial applications.^[20-22]

Following isolation, the fungal strains underwent screening to assess their hypercellulolytic capabilities. This screening involved a series of assays and observations aimed at identifying strains proficient in cellulose degradation. Those strains showing significant hypercellulolytic activity were then chosen for in-depth analysis and characterization, thereby advancing the exploration of cellulolytic fungi for potential biotechnological uses.

Screening of the Purified Isolates

Using Congo red dye screening, 57 fungal isolates were identified as hypercellulase producers. Among them, isolate BA13.5 displayed the largest hydrolytic zone, measuring approximately 27 mm in diameter (Fig. 1). This exceptional cellulolytic activity underscores the promise of isolating BA13.5 for future investigation and utilization in cellulose degradation processes.

Enzyme Assays

During the filter paper assay of BA13.5, no considerable activity was detected within the first 24 hours of incubation. However,



Fig. 1: Transparent hydrolytic zone by BA13.5

after 72 hours of incubation, a significant rise in enzyme activity was observed, peaking at 0.210 IU/mL at 120 hours of incubation. Interestingly, reducing the incubation period resulted in a decline in enzyme activity in the reaction mixture. These findings mirror those reported by Dashtan *et al.*, where the filter paper activity after a 96-hour incubation period was measured at 0.028 IU/mL.^[23]

BA13.5 exhibited a notable increase in endoglucanase activity starting from 72 hours of incubation, with this concentration continuing to rise significantly as the incubation time prolonged. It reached its peak at 144 hours of incubation, recording a value of 0.419 IU/mL. These findings highlight the cellulolytic potential of isolate BA13.5, particularly in terms of its endoglucanase activity, emphasizing its significance for further exploration and potential biotechnological applications.

These results align with the research conducted by Yadav *et al.*^[24] where the endoglucanase amount after 160 hours of incubation was observed to be 0.788 IU/mL. However, they contrast with the findings presented by Gunjkar *et al.*,^[25] where the endoglucanase activity after 72 hours of incubation was noted to be 0.523 IU/mL.

The effect of pretreatment has been known to disrupt the cell wall, including the cellulose-hemicellulose-lignin matrix, providing accessibility for enzyme saccharification.^[26,27]

One IU of activity toward the substrate mentioned above was defined as μ mole of glucose (endoglucanase, endoglucanase activity, or p-nitrophenol (β -glucosidase) released per minute under the above assay conditions by using glucose, xylose, or p-nitrophenol, respectively as a standard curve. Reducing sugar estimation was carried out by the dinitro salicylic acid (DNSA) method (Figs 2 and 3).

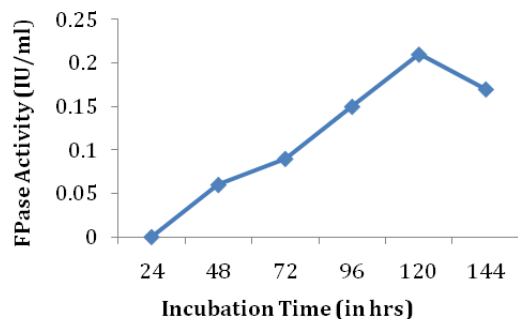


Fig. 2: FPase activity of BA13.5

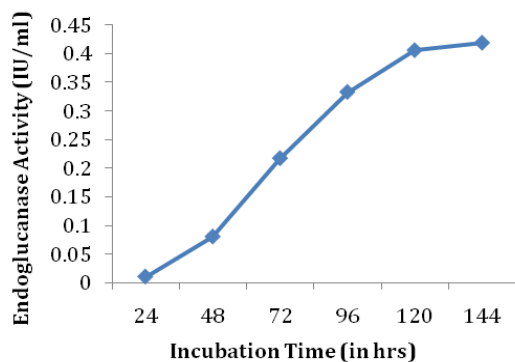


Fig. 3: Endoglucanase activity of BA13.5

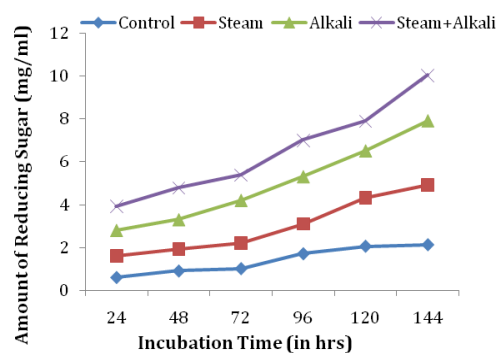


Fig. 4: Amount of reducing sugar released after different pretreatment techniques

Pretreatment of Substrate

Several pretreatment techniques, including milling, steam explosion, alkali treatment, and their combinations, were utilized to evaluate their effects on cellulose degradation, quantified by the release of reducing sugars (Fig. 4).

Among these techniques, the steam alkali combination treatment demonstrated the highest yield of reducing sugar, measuring 10.03 mg/mL. This outcome suggests that the combined application of steam and alkali led to the most efficient breakdown of cellulose, resulting in a substantial release of reducing sugars. This observation highlights the potential of steam alkali pretreatment as a promising method for enhancing enzymatic cellulose hydrolysis, providing valuable insights for optimizing bioconversion processes in various biotechnological applications.

CONCLUSION

Based on morphological and phylogenetic analyses, isolate BA13.5 was identified as *A. terreus*. It exhibited promising enzymatic activities, with FPase activity peaking at 0.210 IU/mL after 120 hours of incubation and endoglucanase activity reaching 0.419 IU/mL within the same incubation period.

Moreover, the combination of steam and alkali pretreatment emerged as the most effective method, yielding a significant amount of reducing sugars (10.03 mg/mL). This finding suggests its potential for enhancing cellulose degradation and subsequent bioethanol production.

Given these results, further investigations utilizing isolate BA13.5 will focus on developing cost-effective techniques for industrial bioethanol production. This research aims to harness the cellulolytic capabilities of *A. terreus* BA13.5 to optimize bioconversion processes, ultimately contributing to the advancement of sustainable biofuel production methods.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors share no conflict of interest.

SOURCE OF FUNDING

No funding received for the current work.

REFERENCES

- Vance CP. (2001). Symbiotic nitrogen fixation and phosphorus acquisition. Plant nutrition in a world of declining renewable sources.

- Plant Physiology. 127: 390-97.
2. Raj A, Arfi T, Saurabh S (2023). Biobutanol: A Promising Liquid Biofuel. Production of Biobutanol from Biomass, 323-353. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781394172887.ch13>
 3. Mishra R, Raj A, Saurabh, S (2023). Present Status and Future Prospect of Butanol. Fermentation. Production of Biobutanol from Biomass, 105-131. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781394172887.ch4>
 4. Godfray HCJ, Beddington JR, Crute IR, Haddad L, Lawrence D, Muir JF, Pretty J, Robinson S, Thomas SM, Toulmin C. (2010). Food security: the challenge of feeding 9 billion people. Science, 327,812–18. doi:10.1126/science.1185383
 5. Chum HL, Overend RP (2001). Biomass and Renewable Fuels. Fuel Processing Technology, 71, 187-95. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0378-3820\(01\)00146-1](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0378-3820(01)00146-1).
 6. Anil K, Jain KK, Bijender S. (2020). Process optimization for chemical pretreatment of rice straw for bioethanol production. Renewable Energy, 156, 1233-43.
 7. Moiser N, Wyman C, Dale B, Elander R, Lee YY, Holtzapple M. (2005). Features of Promising Technologies for Pretreatment of Lignocellulosic Biomass. Bioresource Technology, 96, 673-86. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2004.06.025>.
 8. Abo-State MA. (2014). Bioethanol Production from Rice Straw Enzymatically Saccharified by Fungal Isolates, *Trichoderma viride* F94 and *Aspergillus terreus* F98. Soft, 3, 19-29. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/soft.2014.32003>.
 9. Karimi K, Emtiazi G, Taherzadeh MJ. (2006). Ethanol Production from Dilute Acid Pretreated Rice Straw by Simultaneous Saccharification and Fermentation with *Mucorindicus*, *Rhizopusoryzae*, and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Enzyme and Microbial Technology, 40, 138-44. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.enzmictec.2005.10.046>.
 10. Martín C, Galbe M, Wahlbom CF, Hahn-Hägerdal B, Jönsson LJ. (2002). Ethanol Production from Enzymatic Hydrolysates of Sugarcane Bagasse Using Recombinant Xylose-Utilizing *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Enzyme and Microbial Technology, 31, 274-82. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229\(02\)00112-6](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229(02)00112-6).
 11. Abo-State MAM. (2003). Production of Carboxymethyl Cellulase by *Fusarium oxysporium* and *Fusarium neoceros* from Gamma-Pretreated Lignocellulosic Wastes. Egyptian Journal of Biotechnology, 15, 151-68.
 12. Oxoid (1982) Manual of Culture Media, Ingredients and Other Laboratory Services. Oxoid Limited, Basingstoke.
 13. Demain AL. (1958). Minimal media for quantitative studies with *Bacillus subtilis*. Journal of Bacteriology, 75(5), 517-22.
 14. Miller GL. (1959). Use of dinitrosalicylic acid reagent for determination of reducing sugar. Analytical chemistry, 31(3), 426-28.
 15. Ghose TK. (1987). Measurement of cellulase activities. Pure and applied Chemistry. 59(2), 257-68.
 16. Lowry OH. (1951). Protein measurement with the Folin phenol reagent. J Biol Chem, 193, 265-75.
 17. Mabee WE, Gregg DJ, Arato C, Berlin A, Bura R, Gilkes N, et al. (2006). Updates on softwood-to-ethanol process development. Appl Biochem Biotechnol, 55, 129–32.
 18. Li Y, Ruan R, Chen PL, Liu Z, Pan X, Lin X, et al. (2004). Enzymatic hydrolysis of corn Stover pretreated by combined dilute alkaline treatment and homogenization. Trans ASAE. 47, 821–25.
 19. Shi QQ, Sun J, Yu HL, Li CX, Bao J, Xu JH. (2011). Catalytic performance of corn stover hydrolysis by a new isolate *Penicillium sp.* ECU0913 producing both cellulase and xylanase. Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology, 164, 819-30.
 20. Camassola M, Dillon AJP. (2007). Production of cellulases and hemicellulases by *Penicillium echinulatum* grown on pretreated sugar cane bagasse and wheat bran in solid-state fermentation. Journal of Applied Microbiology, 103, 2196–04.
 21. Jørgensen H, Mørkeberg A, Krogh KBR, Olsson L. (2005). Production of cellulases and hemicellulases by three *Penicillium* species: effect of substrate and evaluation of cellulase adsorption by capillary electrophoresis. Enzyme and Microbial Technology, 36, 42–48.
 22. Kovács, K, Szakacs G, Zacchi G. (2009). Comparative enzymatic hydrolysis of pretreated spruce by supernatants, whole fermentation broths and washed mycelia of *Trichoderma reesei* and *Trichoderma atroviride*. Bioresource Technology, 100, 1350–57.
 23. Dashtban M, Maki M, Leung KT, Mao C, Qin W. (2010). Cellulase activities in biomass conversion: measurement methods and comparison. Crit Rev Biotechnol. 30(4),302-9. doi: 10.3109/07388551.2010.490938. Epub 2010 Sep 24. PMID: 20868219
 24. Yadav A, Kumar Yadav, D Rani, P Bhardwaj, N Gupta, A Bishnoi, NR. (2024). Functionalized iron oxide nanoparticles for covalent immobilization of cellic CTec2 cellulase: enabling enzyme reusability in cellulosic biomass conversion. Biofuels, 15(3), 363-73.
 25. Gunjekar TP, Sawant SB, Joshi JB. (2001). Shear deactivation of cellulase, exoglucanase, endoglucanase, and beta-glucosidase in a mechanically agitated reactor. Biotechnol Prog. 17(6), 1166-68. doi: 10.1021/bp010114u. PMID: 11735455.
 26. Masud HSk, Anantharaman N, Manas D. (2012). Bioethanol Fermentation from Untreated and Pretreated Lignocellulosic Wheat Straw Using Fungi *Fusarium oxysporum*. Indian Journal of Chemical Technology, 19, 63-70.
 27. Gautam SP, Bundela PS, Pandey AK, Khan J, Awasthi MK. (2011). Optimization for the production of cellulase enzyme from municipal solid waste residue by two novel cellulolytic fungi. Biotechnology Research International. 1-8.

HOWTO CITETHISARTICLE: Raj A, Prasad B. Lignocellulosic Biomass for Bioethanol Recovery: A way towards Environmental Sustainability. J Adv Sci Res. 2024;15(7): 22-25 DOI: 10.55218/JASR.2024150705