

Review Paper**A Review: Cellulose and Cellulase drive sustainable biomass conversion****Charmi Mahla and Trupti Pandya***Bhagwan Mahavir College of Basic and Applied Science, Surat, Gujarat, India
truptipandya13101996@gmail.comAvailable online at: www.isca.in, www.isca.meReceived 20th May 2023, revised 9th September 2023, accepted 18th October 2023**Abstract**

Due to its high cellulose content and abundance in agriculture and forestry leftovers, cellulosic biomass is a viable feedstock. Cellulose, the most prevalent biopolymer on Earth, is a complex carbohydrate polymer that serves as the structural backbone of plant cell walls. However, there is still a considerable difficulty in the effective conversion of cellulose into biofuels and other products with added value. Cellulase enzymes, which are produced by a variety of microorganisms and some plants, are essential for the breakdown of cellulose. Through an intricate enzymatic mechanism, these enzymes have the singular capacity to hydrolyse cellulose into fermentable carbohydrates like glucose. By creating a sustainable and eco-friendly method for the manufacture of biofuel, the discovery and use of cellulases have revolutionized the conversion of biomass. Microbial cellulases are an essential tool for converting cellulosic biomass into useful products, providing environmentally friendly options for chemicals, materials, and energy. Cellulase production, optimisation, and application are areas that require ongoing research and technical development if we are to realise the full potential of these enzymes and accelerate the transition to a more resource-conscious and sustainable future.

Keywords: Cellulose, bacterial isolates, cellulase, and the food sector.**Introduction**

Cellulose is a biopolymer, the world's most plentiful and renewable carbon source. It is the most important component of plant cell walls, giving structural support and rigidity. Cellulose is a polysaccharide composed of hundreds of glucose molecules connected by -1,4-glycosidic linkages. However, cellulose's extremely crystalline structure makes it challenging to disassemble into its component glucose units, creating a considerable barrier to turning cellulose into useful goods.

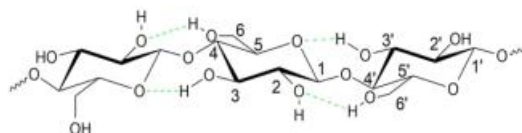
Cellulase enzymes are a type of enzyme that breaks down cellulose into glucose molecules. These enzymes are produced by a range of microorganisms, including bacteria and fungi, as well as by some mammals, including termites. Endoglucanases, exoglucanases, and -glucosidases are the three primary types of cellulase enzymes. Endoglucanases break the cellulose chain's internal 1,4-glycosidic linkages, whereas exoglucanases split the cellulose chain's ends. The cellobiose molecules produced by endo- and exoglucanases are then hydrolyzed into glucose by -glucosidases.

Because of their potential for sustainable biomass conversion, cellulose, and cellulase enzymes have received a lot of interest in recent years. The capacity to degrade cellulose into its constituent glucose units opens new avenues for the manufacture of valuable products such as biofuels, bioplastics, and biochemicals. Furthermore, using cellulose as a feedstock

for these products has the potential to reduce our reliance on fossil fuels while also lowering greenhouse gas emissions.

Cellulose

Cellulose is an organic substance that serves as the primary structural component of plant cell walls. It is a linear polymer composed of repeated -D-glucose units connected by -1,4-glycosidic linkages. One of the most abundant biopolymers on Earth is cellulose, with photosynthesis in plants, algae, and some bacteria producing an estimated 1011 tons per year. Cellulose offers an exceptional combination of qualities, including high tensile strength, low density, and biodegradability, making it an appealing material for a wide range of applications. Cellulose, for example, is used to make paper, textiles, food additives, and biofuels, and it has been studied as a potential biomaterial for tissue engineering and medication delivery¹.

**Figure-1:** Chemical structure of cellulose¹.

The high expense of turning cellulose into usable sugars, however, has prevented the use of cellulose as a feedstock for biofuels. Researchers are investigating several strategies,

including the use of genetically engineered microbes and enzymes, to increase the effectiveness and lower the cost of this process². Cellulose has been investigated for use in biomedical applications in addition to its potential usage in composites and biofuels. For instance, cellulose-based hydrogels have been created for tissue engineering and medication delivery. The antibacterial capabilities of cellulose nanocrystals and their possible application in wound dressings have also been studied³.

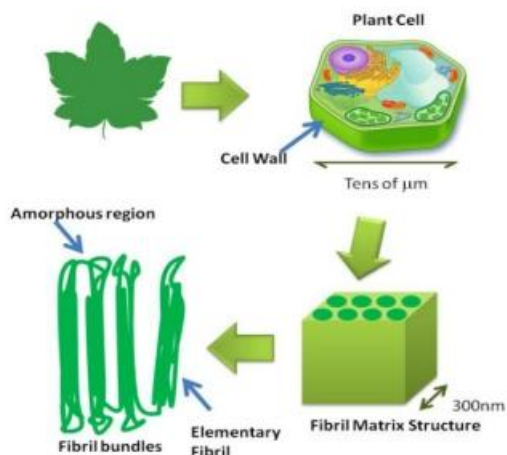


Figure-2: Fibril from cellulose.

For more than a century, scientists have been studying the structure and properties of cellulose using a range of techniques such as X-ray diffraction. In recent years, there has been an increase in interest in creating novel ways for producing and modifying cellulose, as well as investigating its potential applications in disciplines such as nanotechnology and sustainable materials⁴.

Cellulose source

Cellulose is found throughout the plant kingdom in its natural state. In wood pulp or cotton fibers (cotton fibers are a virtually pure cellulose biological source). Cotton fibers contain approximately 98% cellulose, whereas wood contains 40-50% cellulose (Table-1)⁵.

Other plant materials that can be used to make cellulose include maize cobs or stalks, soybean hulls, bagasse (sugar cane stalks), wheat straw, sugar beetroot pulp, bamboo, oat hulls, rice hulls, and fibers like jute, flax, and ramie⁶. Cellulose is found throughout the plant kingdom in its natural state. In wood pulp or cotton fibers (cotton fibers are a virtually pure cellulose biological source). Cotton fibers contain approximately 98% cellulose, whereas wood contains 40-50% cellulose. Rice husk, an agricultural waste product produced after rice milling, is one potential source of cellulose. The extraction of cellulose from rice husk has gained popularity in recent years because it provides a sustainable and low-cost source of cellulose. The viability of cellulose extraction from rice husk using a combination of chemical and mechanical techniques was

examined in a study. According to the study, rice husk contains about 34% cellulose, which may be removed by utilizing an alkaline treatment, bleaching, and mechanical processing. A high degree of purity and a low level of crystallinity was achieved, which is ideal for many industrial applications. The study also found that extracting cellulose from rice husk was more energy-efficient and cost-effective than standard cellulose sources such as wood pulp. This is because rice husk is a plentiful waste product that does not necessitate considerable resources to gather and handle. The researchers showed that high-quality cellulose can be extracted from rice husks using a mix of chemical and mechanical techniques and that this process is more energy-efficient and economical than other sources of cellulose. This study has enormous ramifications for the creation of cellulose supplies that are affordable and sustainable, which might have a big impact on a variety of businesses⁷.

Table-1: A summary of natural sources of cellulose⁵.

Source	Cellulose content (%)
Rice straw	40-45
Ramie	70-75
Kapok	70-75
Jute	60-65
Hemp	75-80
Flax	70-75
Cotton	90-99
Bamboo	40-55
Baggbasses	35-45

Cellulose extraction methods

The acid hydrolysis technique, which includes the use of strong acids to break down cellulose into its constituent glucose monomers, is a common cellulose extraction method. This process was widely employed in the past, but it relates to several environmental concerns, including the production of vast amounts of waste acids and the release of hazardous byproducts such as sulphur dioxide and nitrogen oxides.

The alkaline extraction procedure, which uses alkaline solutions to break down the lignin and hemicellulose components of plant materials, leaving behind the cellulose fibers, is another cellulose extraction method. This approach is less harmful to the

environment than acid hydrolysis, but it requires higher temperatures and longer processing durations.

Deep eutectic solvents, ionic liquids, and other non-toxic solvents are used in cellulose extraction procedures because of growing interest in creating ecologically friendly and sustainable systems. The ability of these solvents to dissolve cellulose with the least amount of negative environmental impact has been demonstrated.

The type of plant material being utilized, the desired purity of the extracted cellulose, and the extraction process's impact on the environment are all factors that influence the choice of cellulose extraction method⁸.

Cellulose applications

Due to its plentiful availability and distinctive characteristics, cellulose, a biopolymer that occurs naturally, has drawn considerable interest. Wood, cotton, and other agricultural wastes are just a few examples of plant-based materials from which cellulose can be extracted using several methods. Cellulose has developed a wide range of uses over time, including in the textile, paper, packaging, pharmaceutical, and food industries. We will go through some of the important uses for cellulose and its derivatives in this overview. i. Paper and packaging: For thousands of years, the paper industry has been using cellulose, an essential part of paper. In addition to paper, cellulose-based products such corrugated boxes and packaging materials are commonly used due to their strength, biodegradability, and recycle-ability. ii. Textiles: Cotton and other cellulose-based fibres are widely utilised in the textile sector because they are great at absorbing moisture and are long-lasting and comfortable. Additionally, cellulose fibres can be chemically altered to create new functional fibres with enhanced qualities. For instance, rayon fibres are utilised in garments and home textiles, while cellulose acetate fibres are employed in cigarette filters. iii. Pharmaceuticals: In the pharmaceutical industry, cellulose and its derivatives, including methyl cellulose and hydroxypropyl cellulose, have applications as excipients, binders, and coatings. These substances are an essential part of pharmaceutical formulations because they increase medication solubility, stability, and bioavailability. iv. Food: Cellulose is added to food as a stabilizer, fiber-content booster, and texture-improving addition. In addition, cellulose derivatives including carboxymethylcellulose and microcrystalline cellulose are utilised in a variety of culinary products as thickeners, emulsifiers, and fat substitutes⁹.

Cellulase: All living things produce biological molecules called enzymes. In general, these are known to as biocatalysts. Enzymes are increasing more and more in demand as hazardous chemicals are being replaced in the industrial sector by green chemistry technologies. It is essential in this situation that affordable enzyme substrates are readily available to make compound production on a broad scale feasible. Plant cell walls

are a crucial component of the carbon cycle because the polysaccharides they contain can be utilized by bacteria as a source of carbon and energy. As an outcome, researchers from all around the world are working to understand the structural features of plant cell wall polysaccharides and have shifted their focus to identifying the enzymes responsible for breaking down these polysaccharides as well as the genes that produce them¹⁰. The microbial enzymes that degrade plant cell walls can also be used to produce biofuels, textiles, paper, detergents, and food for both humans and animals¹¹. Enzymes from animals and plants are less stable than those from bacteria. They may be manufactured utilizing fermentation procedures with great consistency for less money, in less area, and with shorter production times. Additionally, process optimization is easy¹². The main enzymes created for use in many industrial industries are those that break down plant cell walls, such as pectinase, xylanases, and cellulases. Cellulase hydrolyzes the 1,4-glycosidic linkages to cause cellulose degradation¹³.

Cellulases are used in the textile industry^{14,15}, in detergents^{16,17}, in the pulp and paper industry¹⁸, in improving the digestibility of animal feeds¹⁹, and in the food industry²⁰. Issues about the depletion of fossil fuels, the release of greenhouse gases, and the air pollution brought on by incomplete combustion of fossil fuels have increased interest in the ability to perform enzymatic hydrolysis of the lignocellulosic material using cellulases and hemicelluloses^{21,22}. However, the cost of the enzymes required for raw material hydrolysis must be reduced, and their effectiveness in producing bioethanol must be enhanced, to make the process economically viable²³.

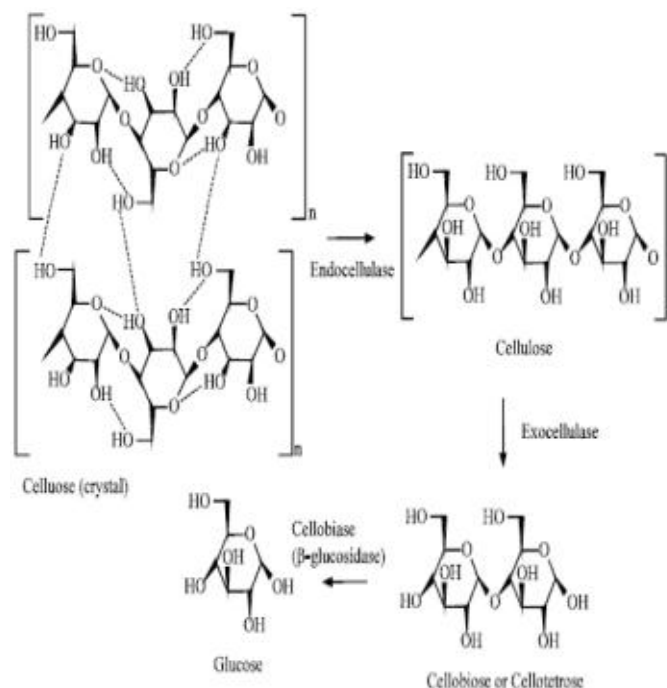


Figure-2: Mode of action of various components of cellulose.

Microbial cellulose

Cellulase-producing microorganisms: Bacteria that break down carbohydrates but cannot use proteins or lipids as growth fuel are known as cellulolytic bacteria. Bacteria that break down carbohydrates but cannot use proteins or lipids as growth fuel are known as cellulolytic bacteria²⁴. While most fungi and some cellulolytic microorganisms, such as the bacteria *Cellulomonas* and *Cytophaga*, can use several different carbohydrates in addition to cellulose²⁵⁻²⁶, anaerobic cellulolytic species can only use cellulose and/or its hydrolytic metabolites²⁷⁻²⁸. Own specie for the efficient procedure of cellulases are *Aspergillus* and *Trichoderma*²⁹. Mandel's and Reese conducted several studies to produce cellulolytic enzymes from biowaste degradation processes by many microorganisms including fungi such as *Trichoderma*, *Penicillium*, and *Aspergillus* species, among others³⁰.

Microorganisms are primarily responsible for the majority of cellulose breakdown that occurs in nature. They address this challenge by utilizing a multi-enzyme system. Numerous extracellular enzymes with binding modules for different cellulose conformations were created by aerobic bacteria. Anaerobic bacteria contain a special extracellular multienzyme complex called the cellulosome. Cellulase preparations may degrade both natural celluloses (found in materials like filter paper) and modified celluloses like carboxymethyl cellulose and hydroxyethyl cellulose. In nature, cellulose coexists with substances like lignin, pectin, and hemicellulose. Other processes carried out by SERVA cellulases contribute to the breakdown of these elements and the deterioration of the cell wall. To achieve the desired surface effect, cellulase is utilized to alter the surface properties of cellulosic fibres³¹.

Table-2: Cellulose degrading microorganisms.

Microorganism	Cellulose degradation mechanism	Ref.
<i>Trichoderma reesei</i>	Secretion of cellulase enzymes	32
<i>Clostridium thermocellum</i>	Cellulosome complex formation	33
<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	Secretion of cellulase enzymes	34
<i>Cellulomonas fimi</i>	Secretion of cellulase enzymes	35
<i>Fibrobacter succinogenes</i>	Cellulosome complex formation	36
<i>Ruminococcus albus</i>	Cellulosome complex formation	37
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Secretion of cellulase enzymes	38

Waste from plants, or lignocellulosic, has been broken down using cellulase. Nigeria imports cellulase, an industrial enzyme, for use. Producing it from readily accessible sources, such as plant leftovers, will therefore aid in lowering importation expenses. More focus has been placed on the generation of cellulase by different organisms during submerged state fermentation, but it has been discovered that this is prohibitively expensive due to the high cost of process engineering. Cellulose and hemicellulose can be broken down and used by many bacteria as a source of carbon and energy. The ability of *thermophilic bacteria* to create the enzymes required for substrate destruction during composting determines their capability to assimilate organic materials³⁹.

Cellulase enzyme application

Textile Industry: Cellulases have risen to the third position among the groups of enzymes utilized in the industry⁴⁰. Some of the main uses of this enzyme in the textile industry, particularly for wet processing, include biostoning of denim cloth biopolishing of textile fibres, softening of clothing, and removal of excess colour from fabrics⁴¹. In the textile business, *Trichoderma reesei* fungal cellulases are the most often used enzyme. Similarly, some of the sources of enzymes to be used in the decolorization and degradation of textile dyes includes actinomycetes from the genera *Streptomyces* and *Thermobifida* and other genera of bacteria, such as *Pseudomonas* and *Sphingomonas*⁴². The best cellulase applies in the present textile industry are generally known to be biostoning and biopolishing. Additionally, cellulases have been utilized in defibrillation⁴⁴, softening⁴⁵, and procedures that produce regional variations in fiber colour density^{46,47}.

Laundry and Detergent: The primary reason enzymes are used in the production of detergents is their capacity to remove stains. Applying alkaline enzymes in big quantities is the most recent development in this field. Protease, cellulase, -amylase, lipase, and mannanase, for instance, are frequently used in effective laundry detergents and automatic dishwashing products^{48,49}. There has been a lot of research done on cellulases that have been derived from fungi like *Trichoderma sp.* (*T. longibrachiatum*, *T. reesei*, *T. viride*, and *T. harzianum*), *Aspergillus niger*, *Humicola* (*H. insolens* and *H. griseothermoidea*), and *Bacillus sp.* for application in detergents⁵⁰. Cellulase must be thermostable and compatible with alkaline environments as well as other formulation elements for the detergent industry^{51,52}. Alkaline cellulase, in particular enhances colour vibrancy and remove dirt from textiles⁵³.

Animal Feed Industry: To increase the nutritional value of forages, pectinases, hemicellulases, and cellulases are added to enzyme preparations⁴⁶. Cellulases are used in feed processing, and this has been reported to improve feed digestibility and animal performance⁵⁴. Additionally, cellulases break down oligosaccharides, beta-glucan, pectins, lignin, inulin, dextrins,

cellulose, and arabinoxylans are examples of anti-nutritional compounds. By eliminating these chemicals, the nutritional value of feed and the health of animals are improved⁵⁵.

Pulp and Paper Industry

In the past ten years, there has been a substantial increase in interest in the use of cellulases in the paper and pulp manufacturing industry. Cellulase and hemicellulase mixtures have also been employed to biomodify fibre qualities in paper mills before or after beating pulp, with the goal of enhancing drainage and beatability⁴⁶. Different forms of paper waste can be deinked with cellulases alone or in conjunction with xylanases⁵⁷ and improve drainage and run ability of paper mills⁵⁸. Cellulase Use in the paper and pulp sector is still a developing field. Mechanical or biological techniques can be used for pulping. A mechanical process produces pulp that is stiff, bulky and contains a lot of particles, whereas a biochemical approach that uses cellulose results in 20–40% energy savings⁵⁹. *Aspergillus niger* and *Trichoderma reesei* are two common fungi whose cellulases are employed for this. It is also claimed that bacterial cellulase called CelB enhances the qualities of paper⁶⁰.

Biofuel and Biorefineries

Because of the ability to of cellulase enzyme to hydrolyse cellulose into glucose, a sugar that could potentially be fermented to ethanol, cellulases serve as important biofuel enzymes. Three stages are taken to decompose such biomass: pretreatment; saccharification, which involves enzymes; and fermentation. According to estimates, cellulolytic bacteria can bioprocess biomass to cut the cost of the process by 40%⁶¹. Recently, laws governing cellulosic ethanol was formed by a number of nations, and among its goals is the transition away from starchy or cane sugars as biomass resources towards cellulose-based materials⁶². This thermophilic bacteria, *Caldicelluloseruptor bescii*, can directly convert plant biomass into bioethanol, demonstrating its potential for ethanol production. Bioethanol synthesis from biomass is an important commercial use for this bacteria⁶³.

Food Industry

Cellulase can be utilized in the food sector in order to improve the nutritional quality of products⁶⁴. Many of the aforementioned goals can be accomplished in the commercial sector with the help of enzymes. However, widespread acceptance of the use of cellulases in the food industry is still a long way off⁶⁵. Potential uses for cellulase in the food business include fungi (*Trichoderma* and *Aspergillus*)⁶⁶.

Conclusion

According to the literature, the advantages of enzyme-based businesses over chemical-based ones include process safety, cheap refining costs, high yields, effective process management,

and environmental friendliness. In the paper, pharmaceutical, detergent, and food sectors, enzymes, in particular cellulases may find use. Thermostatic capacitors are frequently employed because of their durability at high temperatures. The industries that produce food, animal feed, and beverages are now those that use cellulases most successfully.

References

1. Scott G. W. and Kafrawy F. A. (1992). Cellulose: The Structure and Properties of this Versatile Biomaterial. *Chemistry in Australia*, 59(10), 18-21, 1992.
2. Iglesias-Montoro J. C., Arregui-Mena A. J. and A. J. López-Pérez (2021). Cellulose-Based Materials for Tissue Engineering Applications. *Materials*, 14(1), 132, 2021.
3. Bismarck A. and Aranberri-Askargorta A. (2018). Cellulose-Based Materials: From Nature to Applications. Woodhead Publishing.
4. Payen, A. (1838). Mémoire sur la composition du tissu propre des plantes et du ligneux. *Comptes rendus*, 7(lu 17 décembre 1838), 1052-1056
5. Dashtban, M., Schraft, H., & Qin, W. (2020). Fungal bioconversion of lignocellulosic residues; opportunities & perspectives. *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, 5(6), 154, 1256-1266.
6. Sindhu, R., Binod, P., & Pandey, A. (2016). Biological pretreatment of lignocellulosic biomass – An overview. *Bioresource Technology*, 199, 76-82.
7. Habibi, Y. (2014). Key advances in the chemical modification of nanocelluloses. *Chemical Society Reviews*, 43(5), 1519-1542
8. Kalia, S., Dufresne, A., Cherian, B. M., Kaith, B. S., Avérous, L., Njuguna, J., & Nassiopoulos, E. (2011). Cellulose-based bio-and nanocomposites: A review. *International journal of polymer science*.
9. Klemm, D., Kramer, F., Moritz, S., Lindström, T., Ankerfors, M., Gray, D., & Dorris, A. (2011). Nanocelluloses: a new family of nature based materials. *Angewandte Chemie International Edition*, 50(24), 5438-5466.
10. Chang, C., & Zhang, L. (2011). Cellulose-based hydrogels: Present status and application prospects. *Carbohydrate polymers*, 84(1), 40-53.
11. Saxena, Rohit, et al. (2017). Bioconversion of cellulose for sustainable production of biofuels: a review. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 79, 1116-1129.
12. Ockerman, H. W. (1991). Food science sourcebook. Van Nostrand Reinhold.
13. Salameh, Y. (2009). Methods of Extracting Cellulosic Material from Olive Pulp. Doctoral dissertation, An-Najah National University.

14. Kian, L. K., Saba, N., Jawaid, M., Alothman, O. Y., & Fouad, H. (2020). Properties and characteristics of nanocrystalline cellulose isolated from olive fiber. *Carbohydrate polymers*, 241, 116423.
15. Bhatia, S. K., Kim, S. H., Yoon, J. J., & Yang, Y. H. (2017). Current status and strategies for second generation biofuel production using microbial systems. *Energy Conversion and Management*, 148, 1142-1156.
16. Li, J., Henriksson, G., & Gellerstedt, G. (2007). Lignin depolymerization/repolymerization and its critical role for delignification of aspen wood by steam explosion. *Bioresource Technology*, 98(16), 3061-3068
17. Seo, Y. B., Kim, H. J., & Bhatia, S. K. (2019). Advances in cellulose extraction and its environmental impact. *Advances in Bioenergy and Bioproducts*, 125-145. Springer.
18. Klemm, D., Heublein, B., Fink, H. P., & Bohn, A. (2005). Cellulose: Fascinating biopolymer and sustainable raw material. *Angewandte Chemie International Edition*, 44(22), 3358-3393.
19. Belgacem, M. N., & Gandini, A. (2008). The surface modification of cellulose fibers for use as reinforcing elements in composite materials. *Composite Interfaces*, 15(1-2), 9-23.
20. Kaushik, A., & Singh, M. (2011). Cellulose fibers: A review of the developments in structure, morphology, and applications. *Polymer-Plastics Technology and Engineering*, 50(6), 543-562.
21. Nandi, S. K., Kundu, B., Basu, D., & Roy, S. (2010). Development of novel cellulose acetate-silver nanoparticle composite for effective antibacterial applications. *Journal of Applied Polymer Science*, 115(5), 2904-2912.
22. Liu, L., Fishman, M. L., Hicks, K. B., & Kende, M. (2010). Cellulose-based materials as hydrophilic matrices for active release. *Journal of Applied Polymer Science*, 115(5), 2479-2487.
23. Guo, X., & Zhang, X. (2012). Cellulose derivatives as water-retention agents in cement-based materials: A review. *Cellulose*, 19(5),
24. Rehman, S., Aslam, H., Ahmad, A., Khan, S. A., & Sohail, M. (2014). Production of plant cell wall degrading enzymes by monoculture and co-culture of *Aspergillus niger* and *Aspergillus terreus* under SSF of banana peels. *Brazilian journal of microbiology*, 45, 1485-1492.
25. Adrio, J. L., & Demain, A. L. (2014). Microbial enzymes: tools for biotechnological processes. *Biomolecules*, 4(1), 117-139.
26. Gurung, N., Ray, S., Bose, S., & Rai, V. (2013). A broader view: microbial enzymes and their relevance in industries, medicine, and beyond. *BioMed research international*.
27. Gusakov, A. V., Berlin, A. G., Popova, N. N., Okunev, O. N., Sinitsyna, O. A., & Sinitsyn, A. P. (2000). A comparative study of different cellulase preparations in the enzymatic treatment of cotton fabrics. *Applied biochemistry and biotechnology*, 88(1), 119-126.
28. Belghith, H., Ellouz-Chaabouni, S., & Gargouri, A. (2001). Biostoning of denims by *Penicillium occitanis* (Pol6) cellulases. *Journal of biotechnology*, 89(2-3), 257-262.
29. Maurer, K. H. (1997). Development of new cellulases. *Surfactant science series*, 175-202.
30. Kottwitz, B., & Schambil, F. (2005). U.S. Patent Application No. 10/897,898.
31. Buchert, J., Suurnäkki, A., Tenkanen, M., & Viikari, L. (1996). Enzymatic characterization of pulps.
32. Mandels, M., & Reese, E. T. (1957). Induction of cellulase in *Trichoderma viride* as influenced by carbon sources and metals. *Journal of bacteriology*, 73(2), 269-278.
33. Meyer, K. H. (1911). Zur Kenntnis des Anthracens. I. Über Anthranol und Anthrahydrochinon. *Justus Liebigs Annalen der Chemie*, 379(1), 37-78.
34. Coutinho, P. M. (1999). Carbohydrate-active enzymes: an integrated database approach. *Recent advances in carbohydrate bioengineering*.
35. Chun, S., Gopal, J., & Muthu, M. (2021). Antioxidant activity of mushroom extracts/polysaccharides—Their antiviral properties and plausible antiCOVID-19 properties. *Antioxidants*, 10(12), 1899.
36. Doi, R. H. (2008). Cellulases of mesophilic microorganisms: cellulosome and noncellulosome producers. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1125(1), 267-279.
37. Dasgupta, S. (2019). *Comparing the Start-Up and Operation of Conventional and Granular Activated Sludge Reactors*. Doctoral dissertation, The University of Utah.
38. Kurosawa, K., & Ishii, M. (2017). Expanding the potential of thermophilic *Bacillus* and *Geobacillus* species for bio-based production. *Journal of bioscience and bioengineering*, 124(6), 637-643.
39. Lewis, G. E., Hunt, C. W., Sanchez, W. K., Treacher, R., Pritchard, G. T., & Feng, P. (1996). Effect of direct-fed fibrolytic enzymes on the digestive characteristics of a forage-based diet fed to beef steers. *Journal of Animal Science*, 74(12), 3020-3028.
40. GALANTE, Y. M., DE CONTI, A. L. B. E. R. T. O., & MONTEVERDI, R. (1998). Application of *Trichoderma* enzymes. *Trichoderma and Gliocladium*, 2: Enzymes, Biological Control and commercial applications, 2, 327.
41. Harman, G. E., & Kubicek, C. P. (Eds.). (1998). *Trichoderma and Gliocladium*. volume 2: Enzymes,

- biological control and commercial applications (Vol. 2). CRC Press.
42. McMullan, G., Meehan, C., Conneely, A., Kirby, N., Robinson, T., Nigam, P., ... & Smyth, W. F. (2001). Microbial decolourisation and degradation of textile dyes. *Applied microbiology and biotechnology*, 56, 81-87.
 43. Zaldivar, J., Nielsen, J., & Olsson, L. (2001). Fuel ethanol production from lignocellulose: a challenge for metabolic engineering and process integration. *Applied microbiology and biotechnology*, 56(1), 17-34.
 44. Sheehan, J., & Himmel, M. (1999). Enzymes, energy, and the environment: a strategic perspective on the US Department of Energy's research and development activities for bioethanol. *Biotechnology Progress*, 15(5), 817-827.
 45. Lynd, L. R., Weimer, P. J., Van Zyl, W. H., & Pretorius, I. S. (2002). Microbial cellulose utilization: fundamentals and biotechnology. *Microbiology and molecular biology reviews*, 66(3), 506-577.
 46. Poulsen, O. M., & Petersen, L. W. (1988). Growth of *Cellulomonas* sp. ATCC 21399 on different polysaccharides as sole carbon source induction of extracellular enzymes. *Applied microbiology and biotechnology*, 29(5), 480-484.
 47. Rajoka, M. I., & Malik, K. A. (1997). Cellulase production by *Cellulomonas biazotea* cultured in media containing different cellulosic substrates. *Bioresource Technology*, 59(1), 21-27.
 48. Ng, T. K., & Zeikus, J. G. (1982). Differential metabolism of cellobiose and glucose by *Clostridium thermocellum* and *Clostridium thermohydrosulfuricum*. *Journal of bacteriology*, 150(3), 1391-1399.
 49. Thurston, B., Dawson, K. A., & Strobel, H. J. (1993). Cellobiose versus glucose utilization by the ruminal bacterium *Ruminococcus albus*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 59(8), 2631-2637.
 50. Van Peij, N. N., Gielkens, M. M., de Vries, R. P., Visser, J., & de Graaff, L. H. (1998). The transcriptional activator XlnR regulates both xylanolytic and endoglucanase gene expression in *Aspergillus niger*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 64(10), 3615-3619.
 51. Mandels, M. (1985). Fungal cellulase and microbial decomposition of cellulosic fibres. *Dev Ind Microbiol*, 5, 5-20.
 52. Kotchoni, O. D., Shonukan, O. O., & Gachomo, W. E. (2003). *Bacillus pumilus* BpCRI 6, a promising candidate for cellulase production under conditions of catabolite repression. *African journal of biotechnology*, 2(6), 140-146.
 53. Tuomela, M., Vikman, M., Hatakka, A., & Itävaara, M. (2000). Biodegradation of lignin in a compost environment: a review. *Bioresource technology*, 72(2), 169-183.
 54. Xia, L., & Cen, P. (1999). Cellulase production by solid state fermentation on lignocellulosic waste from the xylose industry. *Process Biochemistry*, 34(9), 909-912.
 55. Belghith, H., Ellouz-Chaabouni, S., & Gargouri, A. (2001). Biostoning of denims by *Penicillium occitanis* (Pol6) cellulases. *Journal of biotechnology*, 89(2-3), 257-262.
 56. Bhat, M. K. (2000). Cellulases and related enzymes in biotechnology. *Biotechnology advances*, 18(5), 355-383.
 57. Cortez, J. M., Ellis, J., & Bishop, D. P. (2001). Cellulase finishing of woven, cotton fabrics in jet and winch machines. *Journal of Biotechnology*, 89(2-3), 239-245.
 58. Kvietok, L. L., Trinh, T., & Hollingshead, J. A. (1995). U.S. Patent No. 5,445,747. Washington, DC: U.S. Patent and Trademark Office.
 59. Andersen, L. D. (2000). U.S. Patent No. 6,051,414. Washington, DC: U.S. Patent and Trademark Office
 60. Galante, Y. M., & Formantici, C. (2003). Enzyme applications in detergency and in manufacturing industries. *Current organic chemistry*, 7(13), 1399-1422.
 61. Sukumaran, R. K., Singhanian, R. R., & Pandey, A. (2005). Microbial cellulases-production, applications, and challenges.
 62. Sukumaran, R. K., Singhanian, R. R., & Pandey, A. (2005). Microbial cellulases-production, applications, and challenges.
 63. Kottwitz, B., & Schambil, F. (2005). U.S. Patent Application No. 10/897,898.
 64. Kinet, R., Destain, J., Hilgsmann, S., Thonart, P., Delhalle, L., Taminiau, B., ... & Delvigne, F. (2015). Thermophilic and cellulolytic consortium isolated from composting plants improves anaerobic digestion of cellulosic biomass: toward a microbial resource management approach. *Bioresource technology*, 189, 138-144.
 65. Gurumurthy, D. M., & Enleagued, S. E. (2012). Molecular characterization of industrially viable extreme thermostable novel alpha-amylase of *Geobacillus* sp Iso5 Isolated from geothermal spring. *J. Pure Appl. Microbiol*, 6, 1759-1773.
 66. Juturu, V., & Wu, J. C. (2014). Microbial cellulases: engineering, production and applications. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 33, 188-203