Beta-Glucosidase: Key Enzyme in Determining Efficiency of Cellulase and Biomass Hydrolysis

Vijaya Rani, Saritha Mohanram, Rameshwar Tiwari, Lata Nain and Anju Arora*
Division of Microbiology, Indian Agricultural Research Institute, New Delhi 110 012, India

Abstract

Overall economics of the biomass to ethanol process is largely determined by the efficiency of biomass hydrolysis. Performance of cellulase cocktails used for saccharification of cellulose in biomass is often limited by lower amounts of β-glucosidases present, which catalyse hydrolysis of cellobiose, the product of endo and exocellulases to glucose. Inappropriate ratio of these enzymes in commercial cocktails leads to accumulation of cellobiose which inhibits the activity of cellulases. Thus, this rate limiting enzyme is of crucial importance in determining the efficiency of commercial cellulases. The saprophytic fungus *Trichoderma sp.*, exploited for production of commercial cellulases, produces very minute quantities of β-glucosidases as compared to endo and exocellulases. However, several other organisms are known to produce β-glucosidases in higher quantities, over a broader substrate range. Strategies to get optimal ratio of exocellulases, endocellulases and β-glucosidases to enhance saccharification yields are, therefore, discussed. Appropriate levels of β-glucosidase activity in commercial cocktails have been obtained by supplementing with accessory β-glucosidases, transgenic approaches and by optimizing β-glucosidase production through manipulation of culture conditions. These approaches have resulted in achieving higher β-glucosidase activity in cellulase cocktails, facilitating higher sugar yields and thereby potentially improving enzymatic saccharification of biomass and eventually ethanol production.

Keywords: β-glucosidase; Saccharification; Lignocellulotic biomass

Introduction

Population is increasing at a fast pace and so is the demand, luxuries and, of course, energy consumption of a common man. Fossil fuel reserves being one of the major energy sources are diminishing at a fast rate, as a result of which fuel prices are increasing. Moreover, use of these fossil fuels emits greenhouse gases to the environment. With dwindling petroleum reserves and uncertain pricing, search for alternate forms of energy has gained unprecedented momentum. Amongst all renewable energy resources, energy from biomass is important not only for energy security but also for climate change mitigation. Bioenergy routes suggest that atmospheric carbon can be cycled through biofuels in carefully designed systems for sustainability. Significant potential exists for bioconversion of biomass, the most abundant and also the most renewable biomaterial on our planet, to ethanol. So, there is a move to adopt the environment friendly approach of using bioethanol as a transport fuel worldwide. In India, the Ministry of Petroleum on the 11th of January, 2013 issued a gazette notification making mandatory for Oil Marketing Companies (OMCs) - Bharat Petroleum, Hindustan Petroleum and Indian Oil Corporation - to blend 5% ethanol with petrol. Keeping in view the crisis of petroleum products, ethanol blending is necessary but there is still a wide gap between the ethanol required and produced. There are many technological gaps hindering the commercial production of biofuel of which costs as well as efficiency of hydrolytic enzymes are the major contributors [1].

Biomass to Ethanol Process

Bioethanol production had started long ago. The first attempt at commercialization of a process for ethanol production from wood was done in Germany in 1898 [2]. Currently ethanol is being produced from corn in the U.S. and from sugarcane in Brazil as well as India. But, being the world’s second most populous country, India has many mouths to feed and therefore, ethanol production from these substrates does not appear to be advantageous. So, use of lignocellulotic biomass is the best way out to reduce the energy burden on a developing country like India, as it is cheap and easily available. Lignocellulotic biomass consists mainly of cellulose (33-40%), hemicellulose (20-25%) and lignin (15-20%) [3]. Cellulose and hemicellulose are the most abundant biopolymeric materials on earth and constitute a major portion of plant cell wall comprising mainly of 5-carbon and 6-carbon sugars [4]. Of the three components of the lignocellulotic biomass, lignin is the most recalcitrant to digestion followed by hemicellulose and cellulose [5]. Therefore, conversion of this lignocellulotic biomass to ethanol involves various steps which include pre-treatment, saccharification, fermentation, separation and purification [6]. Pre-treatment causes increase in the accessible surface area, decrystallisation and depolymerisation of cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin to some extent. A variety of pre-treatment technologies are available like physical (grinding, milling, pyrolysis), physio-chemical (steam explosion, ammonia fibre explosion, CO₂ explosion), chemical (ozonolysis, acid hydrolysis, alkaline hydrolysis, oxidative delignification, organosolv process) and biological (lignin degradation by brown rot and white rot fungi) [7]. Saccharification of complex polymers to simple sugars is carried out by the synergistic action of various hydrolytic enzymes like cellulases (exoglucanase, endoglucanase, β-glucosidase) and hemicellulases. Sugars formed are converted to ethanol by fermentation, predominantly carried out by yeast. Microorganisms used in the fermentation process should possess the ability to ferment both hexose and pentose sugars and should be
tolerant to lignocellulose derived metabolic inhibitors [8].

All the above steps require optimisation and they vary with the substrate used. Of these, hydrolysis is the most critical step, as complete saccharification and utilization of plant polymers is essential for efficient and economic production of bioalcohols. Existing technologies do not allow complete saccharification of plant polymers as there are many technological gaps hindering the action of currently available commercial cellulases. This step involves use of complex enzyme mixtures which are a costly input. The various means to maximise saccharification efficiency for enhanced ethanol production at reduced costs, as indicated in the Figure 1, include the following:

- Screening new organisms and bioprospecting for superior versions of key enzymes
- Using cellulosomes (multienzyme complex produced mainly by anaerobic bacteria) [9]
- Cellulase engineering using rational or irrational design [10]
- Protein engineering and high level expression in plants [6]
- Supplementing deficient enzymatic cocktails with accessory enzymes like β-glucosidase, xylanase, β-xylidosidase, esterases [11]

Selecting Enzymes for Augmenting Cellulase Cocktail

The recalcitrant lignocellulose matrix has to be broken down to release cellulose and hemicelluloses for conversion to fuels and chemicals. This step can be performed chemically or enzymatically, the latter route being more appealing as the operating conditions are less harsh, less energy intensive and environment friendly [12]. A complete saccharification and utilization of plant polymers is critical for efficient and economic production of bioalcohols.

Cellulose is a linear polymer of glucose linked by β-1,4 linkage. It is acted upon by cellulases that consist of three major enzymes viz- endoglucanases (EC 3.2.1.4), exoglucanases (EC 3.2.1.91) and β-glucosidase (EC 3.2.1.21) [13]. These enzymes act in perfect synergism and tight regulation under natural conditions and break the cellulose polymer. Endoglucanases act randomly along the chain length, thereby producing new sites to be attacked by exoglucanases (or cellobiohydrolases (CBH)). Exoglucanases hydrolyse cellulose polymers from the terminal reducing or non-reducing ends producing mainly cellobiose. The cellobiose liberated are acted upon by cellulases that consist of three major enzymes viz- endoglucanases (EC 3.2.1.4), exoglucanases (EC 3.2.1.91) and β-glucosidase (EC 3.2.1.21) [13]. These enzymes act in perfect synergism and tight regulation under natural conditions and break the cellulose polymer. Endoglucanases act randomly along the chain length, thereby producing new sites to be attacked by exoglucanases (or cellobiohydrolases (CBH)). Exoglucanases hydrolyse cellulose polymers from the terminal reducing or non-reducing ends producing mainly cellobiose. The cellobiose liberated are acted upon by cellulases that consist of three major enzymes viz- endoglucanases (EC 3.2.1.4), exoglucanases (EC 3.2.1.91) and β-glucosidase (EC 3.2.1.21) [13].

Hemicelluloses are branched heteropolymers consisting of pentoses (xylose, arabinose), hexoses (glucose, mannose, galactose) and sugar acids of which xylose is the most abundant (70-90%) [3]. Hemicellulose is mainly found on the outer surface of the cellulose fibres and act as a physical barrier that limits the accessibility of the cellulase enzymes to cellulose. Use of only cellulases in the enzymatic cocktail not only restricts its entry in the biomass but also leads to wastage of sugars trapped in hemicelluloses. Addition of hemicellulases in the enzymatic cocktails, hence, shows synergistic effect and not additive effect [16]. Hydrolysis of hemicelluloses can be done by enzymes like glycoside hydrolases, carbohydrate esterases, endo-hemicellulases, polysaccharide hydrolases which include endo-1,4-β-xylanases, β-xylidosidase, β-mannase, β-mannosidase, α-L-arabinofuranosidase etc. thereby suggesting use of various hemicellulases like xylanases, xylosidases in the enzymatic cocktail [11].

Lignin is most recalcitrant to digestion and consists of large amounts of phenolic acids such as coumaric acid and ferulic acid esterified to alcohol groups, in the form of coniferyl alcohol, sinapyl alcohol and coumaryl alcohol. Its degradation is carried out by various oxidoreductases like lignin peroxidase (EC 1.11.1.14), Mn peroxidase (EC 1.11.1.13), laccase (EC 1.10.3.2), etc. [17]. The action of these enzymes not only increases the accessibility of enzymes acting on the cellulose and hemicellulose components but also generates various oxidative species which may attack inhibitors produced during the production process and makes the process more effective. On the other hand, auto-oxidation of peroxidases may undermine their activity [18].

Use of these enzymes in the cocktails for saccharification still requires further research.

Of all the enzymes that could be used for supplementing cellulases for enhancing saccharification efficiency, β-glucosidase and xylanase are the most common and have been widely worked upon [11,19]. Therefore, screening new organisms and bioprospecting for superior versions of key enzymes and enzymes that act synergistically with existing commercial cellulases constitute an empirical approach towards increasing the cellulase efficiency and reducing the cost of ethanol production. Based on the understanding of lignocellulose matrix structure and mechanism of action of hydrolytic enzymes, it has been hypothesized that accessory enzymes- hemicellulases such as xylanases and β-glucosidases - can have a significant effect on the performance of cellulase cocktails [20]. Thus, supplementation of cellulase preparations is a useful strategy for maximising saccharification efficiency. Commercially, there is requirement of complex and coherent enzyme cocktails which act synergistically to unlock and saccharify polysaccharides from the lignocellulose complex to fermentable sugars to the greatest extent. These enzymes are the major costly inputs in the overall process and bringing down the cost of enzymatic saccharification step is a great challenge. In this review, we focus mainly on the role of β-glucosidases in unlocking the trapped sugars from complex polymers, ultimately resulting in enhanced ethanol yield.

Organisms Producing Biomass Hydrolising Glucohydrolases and β-Glucosidase

Many organisms produce repertoires of hydrolytic enzymes which act in tandem to degrade components of biomass. Understanding the activity and synergism between these is fundamental in increasing the efficiency of the process [18]. Various groups of organisms including fungi, bacteria and even yeast produce β-glucosidase enzyme, each with its own advantage (Table 1). Fungi produce copious amounts of cellulases and hemicellulases extracellularly which facilitate their
Diversity of Naturally Occurring β-glucosidases through Metagenomics

Complex microbial community analysis associated with different environmental habitats revealed that only a small proportion of microorganisms on earth can be cultivated in vitro, while majority of them remain unculturable [30]. These widespread unexplored microbes hold diverse group of biocatalysts that are stable and active under different extreme conditions [31]. Metagenomics, one of the key technologies based on the direct analysis of DNA from environmental samples, represents a strategy for discovering diverse biocatalysts encoded in nature [32]. This approach has been successfully used to identify biocatalysts with desired activities by applying low-throughput function-based screening of environmental DNA clone libraries [33]. After the advancement of third generation sequencing, the discovery of complete genes from metagenomic assemblies is still limited [34]. Congregated mining of the genetic information of β-glucosidase was explored across different environments including hydrothermal spring [35], wetlands [36], sludge [37], pulp wastewater [38], gut and rumen [39-41], anaerobic digesters [42] and compost [43].

Moreover, some detailed biochemical and molecular descriptions of metagename-derived β-glucosidases are exposed to display their unique characteristics. The β-glucosidase Bgl1D derived from alkaline polluted soil is remarkably stable across a broad range of pH (5.5 to 10.5) and is not affected by high concentration of metal ions [37]. A thermostable glycosyl hydrolase 1 family β-glucosidase from archael origin, isolated from hydrothermal spring, was active even at 105°C and also performed well in the presence of different reagents and solvents [35]. Another thermostable β-glucosidase was isolated from the functional screening of a metagenomic library from termite gut which showed its highest activity at 90°C [39]. One unique β-glucosidase with very high glucose tolerance ability of upto 1000 mM was obtained from compost and it showed high transglycosylation activity by generating sophorose, laminaribiose, cellobiose, and gentiobiose [43]. Similar glucose tolerance was exhibited by the β-glucosidase derived from marine metagenome by retaining 50% of its activity even at 1000 mM of glucose [44]. This enzyme is also active at high NaCl concentration signifying its origin from marine environment. Nam et al. [36] attempted successfully to engineer the β-glucosidase protein extracted from wetland in order to enhance stability and activity. All of these selected β-glucosidase proteins show very less protein similarity with the sequences available in database. These new entries from unculturable microbial systems aid to incorporate novel insights into the structure- function relationship and substrate recognition of β-glucosidase and reflect its versatile biotechnological applications.

Transgenic Approaches to Enhance β-glucosidase and Biomass Hydrolysis

Use of transgenics offers opportunities to combine several desirable traits into a single organism. Genetic engineering can be used to engineer microbes for high β-glucosidase producing ability. *Pichia pastoris* strain expressing a cDNA encoding β-glucosidase isolated from the buffalo rumen fungus *Neocallimastix pictum* was engineered for enhanced saccharification efficiency and was found to be better than the commercial β-glucosidase, Novozym188 [45]. Hong Lee et al. [46] engineered a *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain expressing a cellobextrin transporter and an intracellular β-glucosidase from *Neurospora crassa*. This engineered strain can be used for simultaneous saccharification and fermentation with enhanced yield at reduced costs. Cellulolytic fungus *T. reesei* commonly used in commercial enzyme
Immobilisation of β-glucosidase enzyme on magnetic Fe3O4 loading and enhanced biocatalytic efficiency for industrial application of high surface area to volume ratio which facilitates higher enzyme immobilisation are in vogue these days as it offers additional advantage reduced activity, respectively. Besides, use of nanoparticles for enzyme modification method, the main drawback being enzyme leakage and of the enzyme has been tried by both physical adsorption and covalent polyacrylamide gel [54], agarose [55] and silica [56]. Immobilisation metal ion nanoparticles [51], magnetic chitosan [52], alginate [53], inorganic compounds and organic polymers like chelated magnetic solvent [50]. Immobilisation of enzyme has been tried on various efficient recovery and reuse of costly enzymes besides providing for enhancement in its activity as immobilised enzyme facilitates to cellulases than supplementation of free β- glucosidase enzyme [58].

Enhancement in β-glucosidase Activity by Enzyme Immobilisation

Immobilisation of β-glucosidase enzyme is an important tool for enhancement in its activity as immobilised enzyme facilitates efficient recovery and reuse of costly enzymes besides providing increased stability over wider ranges of temperature, pH and organic solvent [50]. Immobilisation of enzyme has been tried on various inorganic compounds and organic polymers like chelated magnetic metal ion nanoparticles [51], magnetic chitosan [52], alginate [53], polyacrylamide gel [54], agaroase [55] and silica [56]. Immobilisation of the enzyme has been tried by both physical adsorption and covalent modification method, the main drawback being enzyme leakage and reduced activity, respectively. Besides, use of nanoparticles for enzyme immobilisation are in vogue these days as it offers additional advantage of high surface area to volume ratio which facilitates higher enzyme loading and enhanced biocatalytic efficiency for industrial application [57]. Immobilisation of β-glucosidase enzyme on magnetic Fe3O4 nanoparticles coupled with agaroase showed enhanced activity as well as superior usability with more than 90% of enzyme activity retained even after 15 successive cycles [51]. A 10% increase in saccharification efficiency has been observed on supplementation of immobilised T. reesei β-glucosidase enzyme on synthetic super paramagnetic magnetite to cellulases than supplementation of free β- glucosidase enzyme [58]. Pretreatment of the immobilised β-glucosidases with cellobiose and glucose has been found to increase the activity of the enzyme but would surely add to the cost of fuel production and affect the economy of the process [59]. It has been also observed that immobilised enzymes differ in their physicochemical properties and increased thermo stability and different pH optima have been observed as compared to free enzyme [57]. In most of the cases, an increase in K_m and decrease in V_max value have been reported on enzyme immobilisation but the advantage of being used multiple times with enhanced stability at extreme range of temperature and pH makes the process economically feasible [53,60]. The use of nanoparticles for enzyme immobilisation has been found to improve biochemical properties of the entrapped enzyme [56].

Therefore, enzyme immobilisation can be used as an efficient tool to combat the crisis faced due to high cost of the various hydrolytic enzymes and to economise biofuel production. Large scale trials for usage of immobilised β-glucosidase enzyme at industrial level are required to check the overall economy of the fermentable sugar production process.

Accessory Enzyme β-glucosidase and Improvement in Biomass Hydrolysis

The endogenous level of β-glucosidase activity in most cellulases is not sufficient to give high saccharification efficiencies. To rectify this limitation, supplementation of cellulases with accessory β-glucosidase from other sources having compatible activity parameters is a rational approach. Tolypocladium cylindrosporum syxzc4, isolated from rotten corn stover, was found to extensively produce extracellular thermoacidophilic β-glucosidase using agro-industrial residues. This β-glucosidase when supplemented with commercial enzyme Celluclast from T. reesei was found to increase saccharification yield up to 88.4% underoptimalhydrolysiscondition [61]. Fourhighlyactiveβ-glucosidase enzymes were isolated from ruminal bacteria of which LAB25s2 was found to be most active and could improve saccharification efficiency when used in combination with β-glucosidase deficient commercial T. reesei cocktail [15]. This was the first clear experimental evidence that β-glucosidase from ruminal bacterial metagenome can be of great use in hydrolysis of biomass. Thermotolerable β-glucosidases, isolated from Acromonium thermophilum (AtBG3) and Thermoascus aurantius

---

| Yeast | Location | Molecular mass (kDa) | Km’ (mM) | pH | Temperature °C | References |
|-------|----------|---------------------|---------|----|---------------|------------|
| Candida cacaoi | Intracellular | 220 | 0.44 | 5.5 | 60 | [85] |
| Meldschikowia pulcherrima | Intracellular | 400 | 1.5 | 4.5 | 50 | [86] |
| Pichia pastoris | Intracellular | 275 | 0.12 | 7.3 | 40 | [87] |
| Saccharomyces cerevisiae | Extracellular | 100 | 111.98 | 4.0 | 40 | [88] |
| Sporobolomyces singularis | Cell | 146 | 1.96 | 3.5 | | [89] |

**Table 1:** List of microorganisms producing β-glucosidases

---

Citation: Rani V, Mohanram S, Tiwari R, Nain L, Arora A (2014) Beta-Glucosidase: Key Enzyme in Determining Efficiency of Cellulase and Biomass Hydrolysis. J Bioprocess Biotech 5: 197 doi: 10.4172/2155-9821.1000197
Desired Traits for Selecting β-glucosidases to be used for Supplementing Cellulases

β-glucosidase activity and other parameters like tolerance to high concentration of glucose or ethanol, optimum temperature and pH range have been found to vary with culture conditions [63]. It is of imperial importance to use suitable substrate while undergoing β-glucosidase production as cheap and economic production of the concerned enzyme along with desirable properties for biomass hydrolysis determines the efficiency of the whole process.

Some important traits that should be considered in order to shortlist β-glucosidases for supplementation to hydrolytic cellulases are: insensitivity to high concentration of glucose or cellobiose, tolerance to high level of ethanol (more important in case of consolidated bioprocessing where enzyme production, saccharification and fermentation all occur in a single vessel), insensitivity to inhibitors like 2-furaldehyde and 5-hydroxymethyl-2-furaldehyde (produced during pre-treatment), high specific activity [64], low adsorption capabilities to lignin and wider temperature and pH range. Lower molecular weight isoforms of β-glucosidase have been found to be more glucose tolerant [64]. Changing the carbon source can also influence the glucose tolerance ability of β-glucosidases. Use of lactose has been found to improve the glucose tolerance ability of the enzyme [64]. Ethanol tolerance is another attribute that needs to be taken care of. Yeast strain Clavispora NRRL Y-50464 resistant to these inhibitors has been reported [67]. An increase in β-glucosidase activity on addition of inorganic ions like MnCl₂, by Phaffia rhodozyma has been reported [68] which emphasises the role played by different constituents of the culture media. Novel bifunctional glycoside hydrolase enzymes having properties of both β-glucosidase and β-xylosidase have also been reported in Penicillium piceum i.e. this enzyme can even act on xylotriose to produce xylobiose and D- xylose [69]. Research shows that xylooligomers are more powerful inhibitors of saccharification process than cellobiose and glucose [70]. Using enzymes with bifunctional activity would enhance the sugar yield in a dual fashion both by forming xylose sugar as well as by eliminating the inhibition caused by xylooligomers. These bifunctional β-glucosidases could produce better enzyme cocktails and greatly stimulate cellulase efficiency. The entrapment of cellulase enzyme particularly β-glucosidase enzyme onto lignin in the crude lignocellulosic biomass have been found to decrease sugar yield. β-glucosidase enzyme obtained from different organisms differ in their ability to get adsorbed onto the lignin component of the biomass as β-glucosidase obtained from T. reesei has been found to be more susceptible to activity loss as compared to that obtained from Aspergillus niger [71]. Moreover, the ability to adsorb enzyme also differ with the composition of lignin, the type of biomass as well as pre-treatment method used [72]. High guaiacyl content than syringyl content in lignin confers increased ability to entrap enzyme and cause activity loss [73]. Enzymes having wider pH and temperature ranges seem to be a superior blender with the other hydrolytic enzymes used in the enzymatic cocktails. Chen et al. [23] isolated β-glucosidase from Penicillium decumbens whose temperature (65-70°C) and pH (4.5-5.5) optima were found to be similar to that of cellulases obtained from T. reesei and hence was a superior blender in enzymatic cocktails containing cellulases from T. reesei [19].

Thus, the β-glucosidases used for supplementation in the saccharification of lignocellulosic biomass should have suitable properties in order to economise the production process and contribute to bring down the cost of ethanol to the extent that it can be used as a blender with petroleum products.

Maximizing β-glucosidase Production through Manipulation of Cultural Parameters and Statistical Softwares

Enzyme production using microorganisms employs use of complex nutrient medium having different components like carbon and nitrogen sources, inducers, surfactant, etc. Optimization of culture conditions helps in significant improvement in enzyme yield, saves time and is cost-effective. Various factors have been found to affect β-glucosidase production like temperature, pH, incubation time, inoculum size, moisture content and substrate concentration [19,74]. Earlier, one variable-at-a-time method was used for optimization. But this method does not include the effect of interactions between the variables selected. Moreover, it requires numerous sequential experimental runs and is a time consuming and costly strategy [75]. In order to overcome these drawbacks, statistical methods such as Response Surface Methodology (RSM) can be used. This approach has been used by various workers for optimizing physiological conditions of fermentation involved in production of enzymes like TaqI endonuclease [76], polygalacturonase [77], cellulase [78]. It has also been used for optimising fermentation condition and maximizing β-glucosidase enzyme production where a number of factors like pH, temperature, incubation time, type and amount of carbon and nitrogen source, surfactant, casamino acid, methanol were chosen of which methanol had the most pronounced effect on enzyme production [75].

Once the conditions for maximum enzyme production are optimised, further optimization is required at the hydrolysis stage where sugar rich complex substrates and different combinations of hydrolytic enzymes are used. Other software’s like Artificial Neural Network (ANN) and genetic algorithm are also available that can be used for process optimization.

Application of β-glucosidase in Biorefinery and Other Industries

β-glucosidases are ubiquitous in nature and can be found in...
bacteria, fungi, plants and animals. These enzymes have broad substrate specificity and therefore have huge applications across diverse industries. β-glucosidase molecules can cause both hydrolysis as well as reverse hydrolysis (transglycosylation) and lead to both cleavage and synthesis of glycosidic bond. The hydrolytic activities of these enzymes not only make them suitable for biofuel production but also for production of aglycone moieties (antitumor agent) and low viscosity gellan. The enzyme can also be used to remove bitterness from cooked soybean syrup [79], citrus fruit juices [80], and unripe olive [81] and even to detoxify cassava [82]. Deglycosylation (reverse hydrolysis) can cause degradation of betacyanins in beet root and release bioactive cellular metabolite with antitumor activity [83]. The enzymes are also involved in various biological pathways like degradation of structural and storage polysaccharides, host-pathogen interactions, cellular signalling and oncogenesis [84]. β-glucosidases can also cause synthesis of surfactant, o-alkyl-glucoside, by reverse hydrolysis. This surfactant is suitable for biological degradation and can be used as detergent in food industry, in cosmetic and pesticide formulation, and extraction of organic dyes. However, application of β-glucosidases in biomass refining has gained unprecedented importance. All these applications require large scale production of the β-glucosidase enzyme in a cost effective manner.

**Future Prospect**

Most of the bioconversion processes used today does not allow complete saccharification of biomass. Hydrolysis of biomass can be enhanced by several approaches, one of which is by supplementation of cellulose complex with accessory enzymes. Traditional approach focuses on isolating high β-glucosidase producing microorganisms, isolating the enzyme and then supplementing it to commercial preparations. An alternate and more futuristic strategy is to engineer isolating the enzyme and then supplementing it to commercial cellulase cocktail. Biotechnol Biofuels 5: 73.

1. Banerjee G, Scott-Craig JS, Walton JD (2010) Improving enzymes for biomass conversion: A basic research perspective. Bioenerg Res 3: 82-92.
2. Barreto J, Aboti E, Jansen EL, Howard S (2003) Lignocellulose biotechnology: issues of bioconversion and enzyme production. Afr J Biotechnol 2: 602-619.
3. Banerjee J, Scott-Craig JS, Walton JD (2010) Improving enzymes for biomass conversion: A basic research perspective. Bioenerg Res 3: 62-92.
4. Sun Y, Cheng J (2002) Hydrolysis of lignocellulosic materials for ethanol production: a review. Bioresour Technol 82: 117-123.
5. Sánchez OJ, Cardona CA (2008) Trends in biotechnological production of fuel ethanol from different feedstocks. Bioresour Technol 99: 5207-5226.
6. Howard RL, Abuti E, Jansen EL, Howard S (2003) Lignocellulose biotechnology: issues of bioconversion and enzyme production. Afr J Biotechnol 2: 602-619.
7. Banerjee J, Aboti E, Jansen EL, Howard S (2003) Lignocellulose biotechnology: issues of bioconversion and enzyme production. Afr J Biotechnol 2: 602-619.
8. Sánchez OJ, Cardona CA (2008) Trends in biotechnological production of fuel ethanol from different feedstocks. Bioresour Technol 99: 5207-5226.
9. Howard RL, Aboti E, Jansen EL, Howard S (2003) Lignocellulose biotechnology: issues of bioconversion and enzyme production. Afr J Biotechnol 2: 602-619.
10. Banerjee J, Aboti E, Jansen EL, Howard S (2003) Lignocellulose biotechnology: issues of bioconversion and enzyme production. Afr J Biotechnol 2: 602-619.

**References**

1. Gao J, Weng H, Xi Y, Zhu D, Han S (2008) Purification and characterization of a novel endo-beta-1,4-glucanase from the thermoacidophilic Aspergillus terreus. Biolett Lett 30: 323-327.
2. Saeman JF (1945) Kinetics of Wood Saccharification - Hydrolysis of Cellulose and Decomposition of Sugars in Dilute Acid at High Temperature. Ind Eng Chem 37: 43-52.
3. Volnynts B, Dahman Y (2011) Assessment of pretreatments and enzymatic hydrolysis of wheat straw as a sugar source for bioprocess industry. Int J Environ Environ 2: 427-446.
4. Sánchez OJ, Cardona CA (2008) Trends in biotechnological production of fuel ethanol from different feedstocks. Bioresour Technol 99: 5207-5226.
5. Howard RL, Abuti E, Jansen EL, Howard S (2003) Lignocellulose biotechnology: issues of bioconversion and enzyme production. Afr J Biotechnol 2: 602-619.
6. Banerjee J, Scott-Craig JS, Walton JD (2010) Improving enzymes for biomass conversion: A basic research perspective. Bioenerg Res 3: 62-92.
7. Sun Y, Cheng J (2002) Hydrolysis of lignocellulosic materials for ethanol production: a review. Bioresour Technol 82: 117-123.
8. Sánchez OJ, Cardona CA (2008) Trends in biotechnological production of fuel ethanol from different feedstocks. Bioresour Technol 99: 5207-5226.
33. Steele HL, Jaeger KE, Daniel R, Streit WR (2009) Advances in recovery of novel biocatalysts from metagenomes. J Mol Microbiol Biotechnol 16: 25-37.

34. Pareek CS, Smoczynski R, Tredyn A (2011) Sequencing technologies and genome sequencing. J Appl Genet 52: 413-435.

35. Schröder C, Elleuche S, Blank S, Antraekian G (2014) Characterization of a heat-active arabella β-glucosidase from a hydrothermal spring metagenome. Enzyme Microb Technol 57: 48-54.

36. Nam KH, Kim SJ, Kim MY, Kim JH, Yeo YS, et al. (2008) Crystal structure of engineered beta-glucosidase from a soil metagenome. Proteins 73: 788-793.

37. Jiang C, Li SX, Luo FF, Jin K, Wang Q, et al. (2011) Biochemical characterization of two novel β-glucosidase genes by metagenome expression cloning. Biotechnol Biofuels 102: 3272-3278.

38. Yang C, Niu Y, Li C, Zhu D, Wang W, et al. (2013) Characterization of a novel metagenome-derived β-phospho-β-glucosidase from black liquor sediment. Appl Environ Microbiol 79: 2121-2127.

39. Wang Q, Qian C, Zhang XZ, Liu N, Yan X, et al. (2012) Characterization of a novel thermostable β-glucosidase from a metagenomic library of termite gut. Enzyme Microb Technol 51: 319-324.

40. Bao L, Huang Q, Chang L, Sun Q, Zhou J, et al. (2012) Cloning and characterization of two β-glucosidase/xylanase enzymes from yak rumen metagenome. Appl Biochem Biotechnol 166: 72-86.

41. Zhu L, Wu Q, Dai J, Zhang S, Wei F (2011) Evidence of cellulose metabolism by the giant panda gut microbiome. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 108: 17714-17719.

42. Healy FG, Ray RM, Aldrich HC, Wilkie AC, Ingram LO, et al. (1995) Direct isolation of functional genes encoding cellulases from the microbial consortia in a thermophilic, anaerobic digester maintained on lignocelluloses. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 43: 667-674.

43. Uchiyama T, Miyazaki K, Yaoi K (2013) Characterization of a novel β-glucosidase from a compost microbial metagenome with strong transglycosylation activity. J Biol Chem 288: 18325-18334.

44. Fang Z, Fang W, Liu J, Hong Y, Peng H, et al. (2012) Cloning and characterization of a beta-glucosidase from marine microbial metagenome with excellent glucose tolerance. J Microbiol Biotechnol 20: 1351-1358.

45. Chen T, Yang W, Guo Y, Yuan R, Xu L, et al. (2014) Enhancing catalytic performance of β-glucosidase via immobilization on metal ions chelated magnetic nanoparticles. Enzyme Microb Technol 63: 50-57.

46. Zheng P, Wang J, Lu C, Xu Y, Sun Z (2013) Immobilized β-glucosidase on magnetic chitosan microspheres for hydrolysis of straw cellulose. Process Biochemistry 48: 683-687.

47. Keerti, Gupta A, Kumar V, Dubey A, Verma AK (2014) Kinetic Characterization and Effect of Immobilized Thermostable β-Glucosidase in Alginate Gel Beads on Sugarcane Juice. ISRN Biochemistry 2014: 1-8.

48. Ortega N, Busto MD, Perez-Mateos M (1998) Optimisation of β-glucosidase enrichment in alginate and polyacrylamide gels. Bioresearch Technology 64: 105-111.

55. Silva TM, Pessela BC, Silva JCR, Lima MS, Jorge JA, et al. (2014) Immobilization and high stability of an extracellular β-glucosidase from Aspergillus japonicus by ionic interactions. Journal of Molecular Catalysis B: Enzymatic 104: 95-100.

56. Reshmi R, Sugunan S (2013) Improved biochemical characteristics of crosslinked β-glucosidase on nanoperporous silica foams. Journal of Molecular Catalysis B: Enzymatic 85-86: 111-118.

57. Verma ML, Chaudhary R, Tsuzuki T, Barrow CJ, Puri M (2013) Immobilization of β-glucosidase on a magnetic nanoparticle improves thermostability: application in cellulose hydrolysis. Bioreasour Technol 135: 2-6.

58. Vaenzuela R, Castro JF, Parra C, Baeza J, Duran N, et al. (2014) β-Glucosidase immobilisation on synthetic superparamagnetic magnetite nanoparticles and their application in saccharification of wheat straw and Eucalyptus globulus pulps. Journal of Experimental Nanoscience 9: 177-185.

59. Jung YR, Shin HY, Song YS, Kim SB, Kim SW (2012) Enhancement of immobilized enzyme activity by pretreatment of β-glucosidase with cellulose and glucose. Journal of Industrial and Engineering Chemistry 18: 702-706.

60. Abraham RE, Verma ML, Barrow CJ, Puri M (2014) Suitability of magnetic nanoparticle immobilised cellulosases in enhancing enzymatic saccharification of pretreated hemp biomass. Biotechnol Biofuels 7: 90.

61. Zhang Y, Chengyu L, Jingying T, Yu X, Lu J, et al. (2011) Enhanced saccharification of steam explosion pretreated corn stover by the supplementation of thermostable β-glucosidase from a newly isolated strain, Tolypocladium cylindrosporum syzxy. Afr J Microbiol Res 5: 2413-2421.

62. Teugias H, Váljamäe P (2013) Selecting β-glucosidases to support cellulases in cellulose saccharification. Biotechnol Biofuels 6: 105.

63. García-Kirchner O, Segura-Granados M, Rodríguez-Pascual P (2005) Effect of media composition and growth conditions on production of beta-glucosidase by Aspergillus niger C-6. Appl Biochem Biotechnol 121-124: 347-359.

64. Rajasree KP, Mathew GM, Pandey A, Sukumaran RK (2013) Highly glucose tolerant β-glucosidase from Aspergillus niger: NH 08123 for enhanced hydrolysis of biomass. J Ind Microbiol Biotechnol 40: 967-975.

65. Biondiri B, Ratamaohenina R, Arnaud A, Gaifzy P (1983) Purification and properties of the β-glucosidase of a yeast capable of fermenting cellulose to ethanol: Dekkera intermedia Van Der Watt. European J Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 17: 1-6.

66. Gonde P, Ratamaohenina R, Arnaud A, Gaifzy P (1985) Purification and properties of an exocellular β-glucosidase from Candida molschiana (Zkes) Meyer Yarrow capable of hydrolyzing soluble cellulodextrins. Can J Biochem Cell Biol 63: 1160-1166.

67. Liu ZL, Weber SA, Cotta MA, Li SZ (2012) A new β-glucosidase producing yeast for lower-cost cellulosic ethanol production from xylose-extracted corncomb residues by simultaneous saccharification and fermentation. Bioreasour Technol 104: 410-416.

68. Pera LM, Rubinstein L, Baigori MD, Figueroa L, Callieri DA (1999) Influence of manganese on cell morphology, protoplasts formation and β-D-glucosidase activity in Phaffia rhodozyma. FEMS Microbiology Letters 171: 155-160.

69. Gao L, Gao F, Zhang D, Zhang C, Wu G, et al. (2013) Purification and characterization of a new β-glucosidase from Penicillium piceum and its application in enzymic degradation of diglified corn stover. Biotechnol Bioeng 117: 659-661.

70. Qing Q, Wyman CE (2011) Hydrolysis of different chain length xylooligomers by cellulose and hemicellulose. Bioreasour Technol 102: 1359-1366.

71. Ko JK, Ximenes E, Kim Y, Ladisch MR (2014) Adsorption of enzyme onto lignin of liquid hot water pretreated hardwoods. Biotechnol Bioeng 120: 347-359.

72. Haven MO, Jorgensen H (2013) Adsorption of β-glucosidases in two commercial preparations onto pretreated biomass and lignin. Biotechnol Biofuels 6: 105.
76. Nikerel E, Toksoy E, Kirdar B, Yildirim R (2005) Optimising medium composition for Taq endonuclease production by recombinant Escherichia coli cells using response surface methodology. Process Biochemistry 40: 1633-1639.

77. Tari C, Gogus N, Tokatlı F (2007) Optimization of biomass, pellet size and polygalacturonase production by Aspergillus sojae ATCC 20235 using response surface methodology. Enzyme and Microbial Technology 40: 1108-1116.

78. Dave BR, Sudhir AP, Parmar P, Pathak S, Raykundalikya DP, et al. (2013) Enhancement of cellulase activity by a new strain of Thermosascus aurantius: Optimisation by statistical design response surface methodology. Biocat Agri Biotechnol 2: 108-115.

79. Hashimoto W, Miki H, Nankai H, Sato N, Kawai S, et al. (1998) Molecular cloning of two genes for beta-D-glucosidase in Bacillus sp. GL1 and identification of one as a gellan-degrading enzyme. Arch Biochem Biophys 360: 1-9.

80. Rottner M, Schalkmmer T, Pittner F (1984) Characterization of naringinase from Aspergillus sniger. Monatshefte für Chemie 115: 1255-1267.

81. Briante R, La Cara F, Febbraio F, Barone R, Piccialli G, et al. (2000) Hydrolysis of oleuropein by recombinant beta-glycosidase from hyperthermophilic archaeon Sulfolobus solfataricus immobilised on chitosan matrix. J Biotechnol 77: 275-289.

82. González-Pombo P, Pérez G, Carrau F, Gisén JM, Batista-Viera F, et al. (2008) One-step purification and characterization of an intracellular beta-glucosidase from Mucor circinelloides. J Biotechnol 130: 1469-1475.

83. Turan Y, Zheng M (2005) Purification and characterization of an intracellular beta-glucosidase from the methylotrophic yeast Pichia pastoris. Biochemistry (Mosc) 70: 1363-1368.

84. Villena MA, Iranzo JFÚ, Pérez ALB (2007) beta-Glucosidase activity in wine yeasts: application in enology. Enz Microb Technol 40: 420-425.

85. Ishikawa E, Sakai T, Ikemura H, Matsumoto K, Abe H (2005) Identification, cloning, and characterization of a Sporobolomyces singularis beta-galactosidase-like enzyme involved in galacto-digalactosaccharide production. J Biosci Bioeng 99: 331-339.

86. Ng IS, Li CW, Chan SP, Chir JL, Chen PT, et al. (2010) High-level production of a thermoacidophilic beta-glucosidase from Penicillium citrinum YS40-5 by solid-state fermentation with rice bran. Bioresour Technol 101: 1310-1317.

87. Pal S, Banik SP, Ghoshray S, Chowdhury S, Khowala S (2010) Purification and characterization of a thermostable intra-cellular beta-glucosidase with transglycosylation properties from filamentous fungus Termotilomyces clypeatus. Bioresour Technol 101: 2412-2420.

88. Krisch J, Takó M, Papp T, Vágvölgyi C (2010) Characteristics and potential use of beta-glucosidases from zygomycetes. Current research, technology and education topics in applied microbiology and microbial biotechnology 2: 891-896.

89. Fan HX, Miao LL, Liu Y, Liu HC, Liu ZP (2011) Gene cloning and characterization of a cold-adapted beta-glucosidase belonging to glycosyl hydroxide family 1 from a psychrotolerant bacterium Micrococcus arcticus. Enzyme Microb Technol 49: 94-99.

90. Vaithanomsat P, Kosugi A, Apiwatanapinwat W, Thapanawee P, Waeonukul R, et al. (2013) Efficient saccharification for non-treated cassava pulp by supplementation of Clostridium thermocellum cellulosome and Thermoanaerobacter brockii beta-glucosidase. Bioresour Technol 132:383-286.