

1 *Review*

2 **Recent advances in applications of acidophilic fungal** 3 **microbes for bio-chemicals**

4 **Rehman Javaid**¹, **Aqsa Sabir**² **Nadeem Sheikh**³ and **Muhammad Ferhan**^{4,*}

5 ^{1,3,4*}Lignin Valorization & Nanomaterials Lab, Centre for Applied Molecular Biology (CAMB), University of the
6 Punjab, 87-West Canal Bank Road, Thokar Niaz Baig, Lahore-53700, Pakistan; rehman.camb.pu@gmail.com

7 ² Institute of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology, University of Lahore, 1 - KM Raiwind Road, Lahore;
8 aqsa.mughal411@gmail.com

9 * Correspondence: ferhan.camb@pu.edu.pk; muhammad.ferhan@utoronto.ca; Tel.: (+92-42) 3529 3135-36

10 **Abstract:** The processing of fossil fuels is the major environmental issue today which should be
11 lessen. Biomass is gaining much interest these days as an alternate to energy generation.
12 Lignocellulosic biomass (cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin) is abundant and has been used for a
13 variety of purposes. Among them, the lignin polymer having phenyl-propanoid subunits linked
14 together through C-C bonds or ether linkages, can produce numerous chemicals. It can be
15 depolymerized by microbial activity together with certain enzymes (laccases and peroxidases). Both
16 acetic acid and formic acid production by certain fungi contribute significantly to lignin
17 depolymerization. Natural organic acids production by fungi has many key roles in nature that are
18 strictly dependent upon organic acid producing fungus type. Fungal enzymatic conversion of
19 lignocellulosic is beneficial over other physiochemical processes. Laccases, the copper containing
20 proteins oxidize a broad spectrum of inorganic as well as organic compounds but most specifically
21 phenolic compounds by radical catalyzed mechanism. Similarly, lignin peroxidases (LiP), the heme
22 containing proteins perform a vital part in oxidizing a wide variety of aromatic compounds with
23 H₂O₂. Lignin depolymerization yields value-added compounds, the important ones are BTX
24 (Benzene, Xylene and Toluene) and phenols as well as certain polymers like polyurethane and
25 carbon fibers. Thus, this review will provide a concept that biological modifications of lignin using
26 acidophilic microbes can generate certain value added and environment friendly chemicals.

27 **Keywords:** Lignocellulosic biomass; Laccases; Peroxidases; Green biochemical; Acidophilic
28 microbes.

29 **1. Introduction**

30 The processing as well as the withdrawal of fossil fuels are the major prevailing environmental
31 issues these days. Therefore, it is the utmost need of the time to lessen fossil fuels consumption as
32 much as possible. The only reliable solution to this major issue is to exchange the petroleum products
33 with lesser costly and environmental friendly (green) chemicals. Over 10 million tons of
34 petrochemical materials (phenol and its derivatives) are generated annually. Thus, advancement is
35 required to utilize new and natural raw substances for polyphenolic compounds biosynthesis [1].

36 Biomass is gaining much attention these days for being a renewable carbon source for chemicals,
37 materials and energy production and hence acting as a resource to produce green products and
38 replace fossil fuels that are deteriorating day by day [2,3]. Among the plant derived raw materials,
39 lignocellulosic biomass is most abundant and consists of three macromolecular constituents,
40 cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin that constitutes plant cell walls. The quantities of each of these
41 polymers are dependent on age, harvest season and plant species [4-6].

42

43 1.1 Lignin

44 Lignin is primarily composed of three phenyl-propanoid monomers namely sinapyl alcohol (S),
45 4-hydroxycinnamyl alcohol (H) and coniferyl alcohol (G) bonded by C–O or C–C linkages and are
46 produced during cell wall biosynthesis by radical coupling reactions [7,8]. Plants utilize this high
47 molecular weight, branched polymers for both water transport and defense. Around 50% of the inter-
48 monomer linkages of lignin in most plants are the aryl ether β -O-4 bonds [7]. The internal
49 “nonphenolic” β -O-4 linkages in lignin are bonded to additional monomeric units while lignin
50 polymers being blocked by a *p*-hydroxyl group also called as “phenolic” group (Fig. 1) [9].

51 Various processes like homogeneous or heterogeneous catalysts availability as well as chemical
52 and physical environments have been taken into consideration to understand the chemistry of
53 predominant β -O-4 linkages cleavage in lignin polymers [10,11]. Remarkable and sophisticated NMR
54 methods for fingerprinting aryl-ether linkages (and other linkages) in lignin have been developed to
55 establish their fate to final product [12-14]. Lignin removal coupled with redistribution within
56 biomass is the principal cause of using biomass for both important fuels and products synthesis using
57 carbohydrates [6,15].

58 Concentrated acid hydrolysis can also be applicable to depolymerize lignin, cellulose and
59 hemicellulose [16]. A broad range of genetically modified plants are used for less recalcitrant lignin
60 or lower lignin contents as to improve carbohydrate production from biomass [17,18]. Other
61 technologies by means of novel solvents like ionic liquids [19-21] coupled with organic solvents
62 (Organosolv processes) are developing to depolymerize the plant cell wall into its respective
63 components [22-24].

64 2. Organic Acid Treatment

65 A broad scale laboratory investigation using a varied majority of organic solvents (ethanol, acetic
66 acid, esters etc.) has been recognized to obtain remarkable results of both woody as well as non-
67 woody pulping procedures [25-27].

68 2.1 Acetic Acid

69 Acetic acid, the first organic acid used in laboratory studies for lignocellulosic raw material
70 delignification, proved to be helpful as a pulping solvent [28,29]. The wood pulping properties of
71 acetic acid is far better compared with conventional chemical processes; it also possesses major
72 benefits in contrast to other organosolv processes used at laboratory scales as reported by many
73 researchers [30].

74 2.2 Formic Acid

75 Delignification can be performed via organosolv extraction. Formic acid, a chemical agent for
76 biomass fractionation, is readily available and cheap organic solvent [31]. During formic acid
77 pulping, β -O-4 bonds of lignin are cleaved by its dissolution into black liquor, whereas solid cellulose
78 remains in the residue after degradation hemicellulose into both monosaccharides as well as
79 oligosaccharides. Lignin precipitates out from the liquor by adding water while formic acid can be
80 reused easily after recovery. Various techniques for pulping biomass fractions via formic acid have
81 been described using peroxy-formic acid mixtures, aqueous formic acid and with acid-catalyzed
82 aqueous formic acid [31,32-34].

83 Below 70% formic acid strength, pulping of lignocelluloses for delignification is not efficient but
84 it rises as formic acid concentrations exceed 80% [31,35]. The structural together with molecular

85 characteristics of lignin by-products and solid residues formed as consequences of formic acid
86 pulping should be established for various applications of biopolymers [36].

87 2.3 Fungal Acid Production

88 The filamentous fungi have gained remarkable interest due to their characteristics industrial
89 applications as well as significant role in natural ecology as they play a pivotal role for low molecular
90 weight organic acids production [37,38]. Natural organic acids production by fungi has many key
91 roles in nature depending upon organic acid generating fungus type. These roles are primarily either
92 due to direct environmental interaction of organic acid or decrease in pH after their secretion [39,40].

93 Acid-tolerant filamentous fungi have a great advantage due to consecutive decline in pH upon
94 organic acid secretion. For ecto-mycorrhizal fungi, this decline in pH have been suggested to dissolve
95 soil minerals and release nutrient ions for plants and microorganisms uptake, hence enhancing
96 mineral weathering [38]. The formation of oxalic acid by saprophytic and wood rotting fungi result
97 in acid-catalyzed hydrolysis of holocellulose [41-43]. For this reason, Basidiomycota is studied in
98 detail being capable to synthesize oxalic acid [44-47]. Studies on both fungus and plant symbiosis
99 have focused to recognize their ecosystem roles [44,48]. The focus of the synthetic biology is based on
100 working and utilization of biological systems for the benefits of society by fulfilling the demands for
101 sustainable alternatives to fossil fuels. Pharmaceutical, cosmetic excipients and food additives are
102 some of the major industrial outcomes of organic acids as they are highly degradable molecules and
103 can potentially replace petroleum-based or synthetic chemicals [49].

104 A variety of useful organic acids are produced by fungi, such as citric, gluconic, malic and
105 itaconic acids are synthesized by *Aspergillus* and lactic and fumaric acids are formed by *Rhizopus*
106 genera. Large scale bio-processes can be used for certain organic acids like citric acid having the
107 potential of fungi as organic acid production platforms [37,50]. Several acidophilic fungal microbes
108 are listed below [51].

109

Table 1. Acidophilic fungal strains [51].

Compounds	Fungal strains
<i>Ascomycota</i>	
Itaconic acid	<i>Aspergillus terreus</i>
Fumaric acid	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>
Ascorbic acid	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>
Butyric acid	<i>Aspergillus flavus</i>
Isobutyric acid	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>
Malic acid	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>
Citric acid	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>
Succinic acid	<i>Aspergillus flavipes</i>
Lactic acid	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>
Oxalic acid	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>
Formic acid	<i>Aspergillus flavipes</i>
Acetic acid	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>
Propionic acid	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>
Gluconic acid	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>
<i>Basidiomycota</i>	

Gluconic acid	<i>Pycnoporus coccineus</i>
Oxalic acid	<i>Ganoderma weberianum</i>
Formic acid	<i>Pycnoporus coccineus</i>

110

111 Lignin inhibits both enzymatic and microbial attack as it is the chief constituent of plant tissue's
 112 mechanical support. By forming stable lignin-carbohydrate complexes (LCCs) with polysaccharides,
 113 lignin restricts the ruminal degradation and digestion of both cellulose and hemicellulose [52].
 114 Actinomycetes together with white-rot fungi are LCCs degraders [53,54], although anaerobic lignin
 115 breakdown that occurs in the rumen appears to be uncertain as oxygen is the main moiety for lignin
 116 depolymerization [53,55,56].

117 The existence of soluble compounds in the rumen exhibiting the likewise spectra for both
 118 ultraviolet and infrared compared to lignin were previously reported [57]. All such easily dissolvable
 119 substances would not be liberated by disruption of LCCs, rather they might originate from the
 120 microbial hydrolysis of surrounding basic structural polysaccharides on LCCs surfaces. Conversely,
 121 conventional degradation of lignin model compounds by ruminal microbes coupled with the
 122 predicted ways for their depolymerization utilizing HPLC investigation of the end products were
 123 additionally described [58-60]. Synthetic model compounds proved to be highly important to express
 124 breakdown of lignin attached structures on cell walls of plants. 4-Methylumbelliferone (4-MUF), a
 125 lignin analogue, is usually incorporated to lignin structure that can be helpful for detection purposes
 126 of lignin degradation as 4-MUF usually fluoresces in free state [61].

127 Both bacteria and fungi can primarily degrade lignocellulose biomass. However, augmenting
 128 the microbial activities is a collection of soil macro-invertebrates ranging their properties from
 129 modest combination and spreading of plant material to a definite dissimulation of the structural
 130 polymers of lignocellulose feedstock [62,63]. Termites, being the most abundant and important of
 131 these invertebrates that coupled with associated microbial symbionts have the capability to
 132 disintegrate a proportion of both cellulose (74-99%) and hemicellulose (65-87%) constituents of the
 133 ingested lignocellulosic plant material [64,65].

134 3. Linkages in Lignin

135 Lignin molecule possesses a variety of structurally correlated phenylpropanoid subunits having
 136 either C-C bonds or ether linkages known as core lignin [66]. Among all linkages present in lignin, β -
 137 O-4 aryl glycerol ether bonds are the dominant one constituting around 50% of total lignin in both
 138 hardwoods and softwoods. Some other less common linkages involve 5-5, β -5, α -O-4, β - β , β -1, 4-O-
 139 5, and dibenzodioxocin [67].

140 The different linkages type in both softwood lignin and hardwood lignin together with the functional
 141 groups and their approximate proportions commonly present in a lignin macromolecule are
 142 mentioned in table [68,69].

143

Table 2. Common linkages in lignin [68].

Linkage type	Share in softwood lignin (%)	Share in hardwood lignin (%)
β -O-4	45–50	60
5-5	10–27	3–9
β -5	9–12	6

α -O-4	2-8	7
β - β	2-6	3-12
β -1	7-10	1-7
4-O-5	4-8	7-9
Dibenzodioxocin	5-7	1-2

144

Table 3. Functional groups in lignin [69].

Functional Groups	Abundance per 100 C ₉ -units	
	Softwood lignin	Hardwood lignin
Methoxyl	90-97	139-158
Phenolic hydroxyl	15-30	10-15
Carbonyl	10-20	17-24
Aliphatic hydroxyl	115-120	88-166

145

146 The major linkage in lignin is a phenylglycerol- β -aryl ether (e.g. ring 1 \rightarrow 14), trailed by
 147 phenylcoumaran (ring \rightarrow 2), diary propane (ring \rightarrow 11), and biphenyl (ring \rightarrow 5) linkages. But diphenyl
 148 ethers (ring 12 \rightarrow 13) and pinosresinol linkages (ring 5 \rightarrow 6) are characteristically less common [70]. The
 149 breakdown of all these linkages by hydrolysis is almost tough or not possible. The structural and
 150 non-repetitive intricacy of lignin is due to its biogenesis [71].

151 In 1951, Freudenberg with his co-workers reported high molecular weight dehydrogenation
 152 polymerizates (DHP) having a proximity to spruce lignin synthesized by coniferyl alcohol
 153 dehydrogenative polymerization [72,73]. Further studies revealed the explanation of a complex
 154 reaction sequence that usually takes place in plant cell walls lignifications [66,70,74,75]. The
 155 production of majority of phenoxy radicals using extracellular peroxidases starts a new cycle of non-
 156 enzymatic polymerization reactions to form oligolignols being condensed further in parallel reactions
 157 by initiating from basic identical monomers (coniferyl, sinapyl, and *p*-coumaryl alcohol). A three-
 158 dimensional complex network of non-identical oligolignols constitutes the major final product,
 159 lignin. The lignin from dissimilar phylogeny has remarkable structural differences [70].

160 Softwood lignin possess guaiacyl propane subunits (e.g. ring 13), being polymerizates of
 161 coniferyl alcohol monomers. Conversely, a mixture of sinapyl and coniferyl alcohol starts hardwood
 162 lignification that yields a characteristic mixture of syringyl and guaiacyl propane subunits (ring 4).
 163 Comparable to both types described, the grass lignin showed the greatest complication having 4-
 164 hydroxyphenylpropane subunits (ring 14). However, most grass lignin coupled with hardwoods
 165 have considerable percentage of chemically less recalcitrant linkages (5-10%) as aromatic acids being
 166 esterified to core lignin (ring 1 \rightarrow 2) normally residing the primary hydroxyl groups at propyl side
 167 chains. Being covalently bonded with hemicellulose and possess carbohydrate polymer linkage, it is
 168 impossible to depolymerize lignin from lignocelluloses prior to partial denaturation. During the
 169 polymerization process in plant cell walls, many ethers and esters are formed by covalent linkages
 170 when several intermediates not only react with other oligolignols but also with glucuronic acids in
 171 hemicelluloses possessing both hydroxyl and carboxyl groups (Fig.2 ring 10) [70,71,74].

172 3.1 Symbiotic Fungi

173 A subfamily Macrotermitinae, having higher termites, plays a remarkable role by forming a
 174 fascinating symbiotic association with external basidiomycete fungi belonging to genus *Termitomyces*
 175 that are being cultured in greyish-brown convoluted dynamic combs. The fungal mycelium that fills
 176 these combs have plant materials being partially digested by fungus and develops mycotetes (round

177 white nodules) consisting of many conidia (asexual spores). Plant material gets heavy with
178 impregnation of fresh termite faeces that ultimately becomes permeated with *Termitomyces spp.* to
179 develop new combs. Termites can easily utilize the older or more seasoned parts of the comb together
180 with the fungal nodules. In 1989, researchers reviewed both biology and importance of this
181 remarkable link that proved to be a key question for fungus role in termite nutrition [76]. Evidence
182 suggests that *Termitomyces spp.* causes incomplete digestion of both plant polysaccharides and lignin
183 within the comb [77,78].

184 4. Lignin Degradation

185 Depolymerization and aromatic ring cleavage are the key steps in lignin degradation. Certain
186 steps are involved in oxidation of lignin due to extracellular fungal enzymes:

- 187 1. β -O-4 linkages are oxidized to arylglycerol compounds;
- 188 2. Aromatic rings are cleaved that usually follows the β -keto adipate pathway;
- 189 3. Cleaved aromatic rings coupled with β -O-4 oxidation leads to the formation of cyclic
190 carbonate structures [79].

191 4.1 Enzymatic Depolymerization

192 Ligninolytic enzymes that perform the conversion of lignosulphonate considered to be the main
193 lignin degrading enzymes [80]. Enzymatic conversion of lignocellulosic is beneficial over other
194 physiochemical processes because of enzymatic specificity in reactions. There has been an expanding
195 literature focusing on the ligninolytic enzymes after their discovery from white rot fungi [81]. This
196 method is a significant alternative to the other methods due to high product yield and lower
197 environmental impact. White rot fungi produce main lignin-degrading enzymes including heme-
198 containing lignin peroxidases (LiP), manganese peroxidase (MnP), versatile peroxidase (VP) and
199 copper containing laccases (benzenediol: oxidoreductase) (Fig. 3) [80].

200 4.1.1 Laccase (1, 4-benzenediol oxygen oxidoreductase)

201 Laccases, being the core of interest since 19th century are one of the oldest enzymes obtained from
202 Japanese tree, *Rhus vernicifera* as first extracted by Yoshida in 1883 [82]. For the first time in 1896, it
203 was considered to be a fungal enzyme as demonstrated by Bertrand and Laborde [83]. These are the
204 copper (Cu) containing proteins that contribute to oxidize a broad spectrum of inorganic as well as
205 organic compounds but most specifically phenolic compounds by radical catalyzed mechanism [84].

206 The production of enzymes has been improved by some specific compounds which act as
207 protein synthesis inducers. The manufacturing of recombinant laccases at industrial level has been
208 increased by the recent success in cellular engineering and fungal molecular technology. Laccases are
209 relatively more stable because they do not use hydrogen peroxidases (H_2O_2) as a cofactor. They can
210 produce water by reducing the molecular oxygen in the presence of substrate (Fig. 4) [85].

211 Laccases are multi-copper proteins that are characterized by their electron paramagnetic
212 resonance (EPR) spectrum in three distinctive types:

- 213 ▪ Type-1 copper: attach to two amino acids (cysteine and methionine) and two histidine
214 ligands, because of these enzymes show blue color.
- 215 ▪ Type-2 copper: attach via water and two histidine ligands.
- 216 ▪ Type-3 copper: contain two copper ions each of which attach to three histidine ligands.

217 Catalytic activity of laccases is performed both by type-2 and type-3 which form a trinuclear
218 cluster (Fig. 5) [86,87].

219 The catalytic activity is generally dependent on three binding sites with these four types of copper
220 ions. Type-1 copper is the main primary electron acceptor and then electron transferred to the tri-
221 nuclear cluster. The oxygen reduction into water also takes place on these binding sites. Laccases
222 remove solely one electron to oxidize its substrate and laccase with its total reduced state contain four
223 electrons consequently electrons gain by oxygen yielding water [88]. Substrate spontaneously forms
224 free radical or a new compound after the removal of proton (Fig. 6) [87].

225 An extensive amount of literature has examined the source of Laccases from fungi and plants. Its
226 activity was also seen in bacteria viz. *Streptomyces griseus*, *Azospirillum lipoferum*, *Marinomonas*
227 *mediterranea*, and *Bacillus subtilis* [89-91]. There are abundant types of fungi that show Laccases
228 activity including *Neurospora crassa*, *Pyricularia bryzae*, *Pleurotus*, *Pholiata*, *Polyporus versicolor* A, B, and
229 *Aspergillus nidulans*. However, researchers show much interest in basidiomycetes like *Agaricus*
230 *bisporus*, *Lentimus edodes*, *Trametes versicolor* and *Pleurotus ostreatus* since they produce laccases that
231 are involved in lignin degradation [92]. Laccases from *Trametes versicolor* (LTV) and *Agaricus bisporus*
232 (LAB) are easily available commercially and have various applications in different fields including
233 pulp and paper industry, textiles, environmental aspects, the food processing units, pharmaceutical
234 business and nano-biotechnology [87].

235 Additionally, voluminous literature covers the LAB and LTV regarding their reactions and
236 production [93]. Laccases synthesized specially from white rot fungus (LAB and LTV) can cause
237 lignin degradation due to their ability to further rearrange the phenoxy radical by C α -C β cleavage as
238 well as the benzyl hydroxyls oxidation. Lignin polymer is too large to penetrate active site of laccase
239 so it could not oxidize directly by laccase. Furthermore, a mediator; an additional compound is
240 required to deal with this limitation [94].

241 4.1.2 Laccase-Mediator System (LMS)

242 For the depolymerization of lignin, laccases require a mediating agent known as intermediary
243 substance or mediator. Mostly laccase mediators are low molecular weight and aromatic compounds.
244 The combination of laccases with mediators increase the yields and rates in conversion of laccase-
245 substrate as well as it adds new reactions to substrate without which enzyme shows no or just
246 marginal activity. Consequently, LMS enhances the range of substrate to oxidize compounds with
247 higher redox potential (E $^{\circ}$) compared to laccases (LMS E $^{\circ}$ lies above +1100 mV but laccase allows to
248 oxidize molecule in limited range of +475 to +790 mV) [95].

249 Numerous artificial mediators have been discovered oxidizing the non-phenolic structural
250 moieties of lignin [96]. They remain the subject of wide range of study, from the very first described
251 laccase-mediator, ABTS; to the synthetic mediators of -NOH- type [e.g. 1-hydroxybenzotriazole
252 (HBT), N-hydroxyphthalimide (HPI), violuric acid (VLA), N-hydroxyacetanilide (HAA) and N-
253 hydroxyacetanilide (NHA)] and the stable one 2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-1-piperidinyloxy free radical or
254 TEMPO [96-98]. ABTS has been considered the best substrate-mediator laccase. It speeds up the rate
255 of reaction by moving the electron towards electron accepting compounds from the donor substrate.
256 Two stages are involved in the oxidation of ABTS. In the earlier stage, fast oxidation occurs and cation
257 radical (ABTS $^{\cdot+}$) is formed, after that di-cation (ABTS $^{2+}$) formed by the slow oxidation of cation radical
258 (Fig. 7) [99].

259 A large body of literature has explained ABTS application of lignin degradation using laccase.
260 The use of mediators, most probably ABTS is unique for the oxidation of lignin subunits. Many
261 workers examined the Kraft lignin oxidation by *Trametes versicolor* (LTV) laccase and stated that ABTS

262 coupled with laccase enhance the catalytic activity of laccase to generate lignin subunits having an
 263 average weight of 5300 g/mol [93]. The mechanism of ABTS oxidation indicates that ABTS²⁺ di-cation
 264 only act as an intermediate, for oxidation of non-phenolic structures. Conversely, ABTS^{•+}-cation
 265 radical accounts for phenolic structures [99]. In previous studies, researchers mostly concentrated on
 266 the oxidation mechanism of ethers, alcohols and lignin model compounds. Extensive research has
 267 described the effects of mediators and laccase enzyme on lignin model compounds to fully recognize
 268 the laccase reaction owing to the lignin structure complexity [93] (Fig. 8).

269 4.1.3 Model Compounds of Lignin

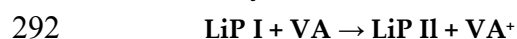
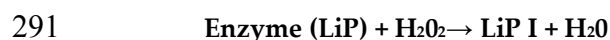
270 The structural variability and complexity of lignin provoked the use of various lignin model
 271 compounds in its place to study the lignin depolymerization [100]. Such model compounds bear a
 272 resemblance to lignin polymer and investigation of their reactivity gives understanding about the
 273 reactivity of lignin polymer itself. Several factors lead to the use of lignin model compounds:

- 274 1. to perceive the interaction between lignin and enzymes by using lignin model compounds in
 275 place of lignin due to their simple structure;
- 276 2. many model compounds contain lignin-related linkages i.e. β -O-4, α -O-4, β -5, 4-O-5, etc. so
 277 their reactivity give the information relevant to lignin-enzyme interaction;
- 278 3. the product and analysis of such model compounds are relatively easy as compared to lignin.
 279 Many publications give the idea about the interaction of lignin with laccase; though, the
 280 lignin degradation mechanism is much more difficult to understand [101].

281 4.1.4 Lignin Peroxidase (LiP)

282 Lignin peroxidases are heme containing proteins having an iron protoporphyrin prosthetic
 283 group, first isolated from *Phanerochaete chrysosporium*. These peroxidases catalyze the oxidation of a
 284 broad variety of aromatic compounds in the presence of H₂O₂ [102].

285 This enzyme had been completely characterized and its catalytic mechanism was studied
 286 previously in oxidizing substrate. Firstly, the enzyme is oxidized using hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) to
 287 LiPI (intermediate of LiP) and water. LiPI then converts to LiPII and substrate radical (VA[•]) by the
 288 oxidation of first molecule of veratryl-alcohol (VA). LiPII use the second veratryl alcohol (VA) by the
 289 reduction of the substrate and the enzyme recover in its original form as mentioned in equation 1
 290 [103].



294 Since 1986, veratryl alcohol (VA) had been a redox mediator for LiP; it did not react with lignin in the
 295 absence of veratryl alcohol. So, lignin depolymerization via LiP was performed by adding veratryl
 296 alcohol [104].

297 4.1.5 Manganese Peroxidase (MnP)

298 Manganese (Mn) is required for MnP synthesis. This enzyme has the pivotal role for earlier
 299 stages of degrading lignin polymer [105] and are produced by wide-ranging species of white rot
 300 basidiomycetes like *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* [106]. For last 25 years, production of heme-
 301 peroxidases remained an interesting subject for researchers which include both manganese
 302 peroxidase (MnP) and lignin peroxidase (LiP) [107]. MnP, like LiP are heme containing proteins as
 303 well that use H₂O₂ as a co-substrate in the substrate oxidation. Like LiP, MnP also produces the
 304 intermediates (MnP-I and MnP-II) in its catalytic cycle [103].

305 The nature of substrate makes the main difference between MnP and LiP. Unlike LiP, primary
306 substrate of MnP is Mn(II) instead of phenol and produces Mn(III) which is highly reactive and
307 oxidizes a variety of phenolic compounds. Firstly, iron-peroxide complex is formed when native
308 ferric MnP bound to H₂O₂. MnP-compound-I along with a molecule of water produces by the transfer
309 of electrons from MnP. Mn²⁺ oxidized to Mn³⁺ and transfer the electron to the porphyrin intermediate
310 while MnP-compound-I transformed to MnP-compound-II [108]. MnP-II reduces in a similar way
311 and regenerate the native MnP along with a second water molecule. Mn³⁺ ion chelated with organic
312 acids (malonate and lactate) makes possible Mn³⁺ release from the active site of MnP. This detachment
313 increases the oxidation rate by stimulating the MnP activity. Chelates of Mn³⁺ ion cause the oxidation
314 of many substrates or the removal of radicals (Fig. 9) [109].

315 4.1.6 Versatile Peroxidases (VP)

316 A novel peroxidase from *Pleurotus eryngii* was reported and this peroxidase contains both main
317 peroxidase properties (LiP and MnP) that can modify lignin molecule without the involvement of
318 external mediator [110]. This enzyme, named as versatile peroxidase (VP), indicates that it has
319 properties of both LiP and MnP and can oxidize various substrates including Mn²⁺, phenolic
320 compounds and non-phenolic aromatic compounds e.g. veratryl alcohol [111]. Versatile peroxidase
321 is isolated from white-rot fungi types like *Bjerkandera spp.* strain BOS55, *Pleurotus ostreatus* and
322 *Bjerkandera adusta* [112]. Furthermore, VP are characterized by having extensive specificity for
323 aromatic substrates, making them highly beneficial in certain applications including recalcitrant
324 pollutants bioremediation as well as gaining major industrial interests these days [113].

325 In summary, heme containing peroxidases (LiP, MnP and VP) also have some drawbacks that
326 limit their use as well. MnP, LiP and VP involve the use of H₂O₂ for their catalytic activity while
327 laccases only require O₂ which they absorb from the atmosphere directly. Peroxidases are extreme
328 expensive and are not commercially available yet, in contrast, laccases are available at low prices. In
329 comparison to peroxidases, laccases offer selection of mediator compounds for the process
330 requirements. Consequently, laccase is a potential enzyme for degradation of lignin with promising
331 applications that might improve efficiency and productivity with low investment cost [114]. Fungal
332 enzymes biosynthesis for the depolymerization of lignin on industrial scale or chemical
333 functionalization has been hindered by complications like culturing white rot fungi on an industrial
334 scale as well as in lignin-degrading enzymes expression in other fungi [115,116].

335 5. Bonds Cleavage in Lignin

336 Variety of depolymerization protocols are employed to yield 'green' chemicals from lignin. The
337 production of aromatic chemicals might be achieved through several processing routes using the
338 lignin enriched fractions [117]. The regulated breaking of different linkages in lignin requires detailed
339 information regarding the stability of the bonds under different conditions in addition to understand
340 the lignin decomposition mechanism. In lignin, both ester and ether bonds are easily hydrolysable.
341 Lignin can also be degraded by means of biological methods with micro-organisms, by chemical
342 routes or via sun light (UV) [118].

343 5.1 Monomeric Lignin Molecules

344 Selective depolymerization involving C-O and C-C bond rupturing produce an excess of
345 complex aromatics structures that are either difficult to generate via conventional petrochemical
346 ways. These compounds are correlated to the fundamental building blocks of lignin and are highly
347 desirable due to their production in a reasonable commercial amount. However, two barriers would

348 have to be overcome. The first one is the advancement in technology for careful bond-scission to
349 separate out the monomeric lignin structures, although this technology would be more difficult to
350 develop than the other destructive processes that yield phenols or BTX. Secondly, applications and
351 markets for lignin monomers are needed to be developed. For these reasons, this technology has long-
352 term applications and currently their large-scale use is unknown [119].

353 6. Green Chemicals

354 By exploring the chemical worth of biomass, green chemical technologies developed to capture
355 the resources and maximize the production of value added plus environmental friendly chemicals.
356 In this integrating approach, high value chemicals co-produce which maximizes the use of all
357 biomass components, waste streams and by-products virtually with keeping environmental footprint
358 low [101]. Green chemicals obtained from the lignin are linked to the well-being of the environment
359 with the potential production of renewable fuels, polymer building blocks and aromatic monomers
360 such as phenol, vanillin, benzene, toluene, and xylene (BTX) [120].

361 6.1 Lignin for production of aromatic chemicals

362 Lignin (the renewable raw material) is probably present in ample amounts for the synthesis of
363 aromatic substances at industrial level. It seems easy to conclude that efficient and direct conversion
364 of lignin into low molecular weight and distinct aromatic compounds is highly remarkable goal. But
365 the synthesis of defined high-volume aromatic chemicals using diverse and physically intricate lignin
366 is feasible and long-term opportunity, although it is a most challenging goal to achieve (Fig.10) [121].

367 6.1.1 BTX (Benzene, Toluene, Xylene)

368 Benzene, toluene and xylene (BTX) have a wide range of applications serving as having a major
369 potential in chemical industry. Lignin-based BTX is like BTX obtained via petroleum source so acting
370 as an alternate for it. BTX represents around 60% of all aromatics available in the market and 24% of
371 the world's petrochemical market [122].

372 Lignin can be depolymerized into various aromatic components. As these compounds are
373 obtained from lignin, the first and the foremost duty is to eradicate the oxygen containing functional
374 groups by decarboxylation, decarbonylation, dehydroxylation and demethoxylation [123]. Benzene
375 is a resourceful petrochemical building block from which more than 250 products could be formed.
376 Cyclohexane, ethyl benzene and cumene are the chief derivatives. The xylenes product well-known
377 as mixed xylene contains four different isomers: ortho-xylene, para-xylene, meta-xylene and ethyl
378 benzene. Toluene is gaining importance for the xylenes manufacturing through disproportionation
379 of toluene and trans-alkylation with C-9 aromatics [124]. Aromatic complexes are found in several
380 different configurations. However, most modern complexes of aromatics are considered to maximize
381 the yield of para-xylene, benzene and sometimes ortho-xylene [125].

382 6.1.2 Phenols

383 The main advantage of generating phenols from lignin is that nowadays phenol prices are quite
384 high based on prices of oil. On the other hands, lignin as part of renewable source has relatively stable
385 market value [122]. By focusing on phenol and its derivatives, the phenolic hydroxyl and the aromatic
386 ring needs to be remain intact and thus less energy will be required to convert polyphenolic ligneous
387 complex into useful compounds [126].

388 **6.2 Lignin valorization to polymers**

389 Advances in fractionation, catalyst development and purification technologies are necessary to
390 obtain the required final depolymerized lignin by-product [127]. Shortly, lignin has the capability to
391 substitute polymers such as polyacrylonitrile (PAN) to manufacture carbon fiber [128].

392 **6.2.1 Carbon fiber**

393 Carbon fibers with properties like low density, high stiffness and extensive strength are highly
394 valuable composite material [129]. They have wide range of applications that are increasing day by
395 day. The prices of carbon fibers for automotive industry is relatively high these days. The precursor
396 for carbon fiber is polyacrylonitrile (PAN) that makes 50% of all production costs. Lignin plays its
397 role to lessen this production cost. Lignin, being a replacement for PAN makes the process much cost
398 effective with potential usage involve manufacturing of sport goods and aircrafts, utilization in
399 automobile industry as well as in civil engineering [122].

400 Kayacarbon developed the first lignin based carbon fibers, while Nippon Kayaku Co. made its
401 commercial availability possible. Initially, lignin is melt-spun at high rates to generate economical
402 lignin-derived carbon fiber that demands high purity lignin. The contaminations like
403 polysaccharides, salts, water and further volatiles should be eliminated to obtain required results.
404 Both Graf Tech International Holdings and Oak Ridge National Laboratory hold the record of
405 generating elevated temperature thermal insulation prototypes by using lignin based carbon fibers
406 [130].

407 **6.2.2 Polymer blends**

408 Modified lignin can be used as material after its blending with synthetic or bio-based polymers.
409 Lignin usually behaves as either UV degradation stabilizer or thermo-oxidation stabilizer. Lignin can
410 fulfil this property only if it is blended with certain materials like polystyrene, polyethylene,
411 polypropylene or natural rubber [129].

412 **6.2.3 Binders**

413 Lignin do have major impact in the agrochemicals sector as well. Many applications including
414 resins and foams sectors coupled with polymers and cement, which are tremendous dispersing
415 agents and binders with dust controlling abilities are the results of lignosulfonates. Concrete industry
416 is the main and the largest applications of lignosulfonates [131]. The strong dispersing agent
417 properties of lignosulfonates allow less water consumption that provide the resulting concrete with
418 better durability, elevated density and higher compressive strength etc. before utilizing as workable
419 mixtures [132].

420 **6.2.4 Polyurethane**

421 Polyurethane, with an extensive variety of products in varied sectors, like paints, foam,
422 adhesives, elastomer etc. is the most versatile polymers. Through its great insulation and mechanical
423 properties, Rigid polyurethane (RPU having high mechanical and insulator capabilities) coupled
424 with foams and elastomers is frequently used in freeze sectors, equipment manufacturing,
425 automotive industry and construction in addition to nautical applications [133].

426 **6.3 Certain new products from lignin valorization**

427 Several academic groups are working hard to attain a vast scope of new applications and useful
428 products including fuel cells and high-performance materials, composites and batteries from lignin
429 along with the classic aromatics and polymers [128,134,135]. Furthermore, by direct lignin fuel cells,
430 lignin can also be used as fuel [136]. A novel N-doped fused carbon fibrous mat constructed via 9:1

431 combination of lignin:polyethylene oxide has been reported [137]. Since lignin possesses an aromatic
432 character making it a remarkable preliminary material for graphite electrodes [138]. This can also
433 prove to be an important and useful source for both fuel cells and lithium batteries as described
434 presently [134].

435 7. Conclusions

436 More recent research work including the biological modifications of lignin indicates that lignin
437 can be depolymerized into variety of useful chemicals of industrial importance. For the progress of
438 an economical viable lignin valorization path to synthesize aromatic chemicals, advanced methods
439 are required to assess the ideal conditions, appropriate hydrogen donors together with bio-refinery
440 catalysts. There is also much need of the time to further develop this process for the commercial
441 production of high purity lignin and lignin based byproducts.

442 In nature, lignocellulosic residues obtained via municipal solid wastes, agricultural source,
443 grass, wood and forestry substances are available in bulk quantities and have an enormous bio-
444 conversion potential. As a renewable resource, they are an important source of both biologically and
445 chemically useful products. Lignin, when accumulated in sufficient amounts at places where
446 agricultural residues reveal a discarding nuisance result in environmental decline coupled with
447 valuable materials loss that can be helpful in paper and pulp industry as well as biomass fuel
448 production and composting.

449 Varieties of innovative markets for lignocellulosic residues especially of lignin like Benzene,
450 Toluene and Xylene (BTX) have been identified in recent times. Low cost bioremediation projects by
451 utilizing fungi seem to be promising as they are the source of well-organized lignocellulose
452 depolymerization enzyme machinery. However, additional consideration of the innumerable other
453 enzymes coupled with organic acids for depolymerization reactions and its molecular features will
454 be desired. The most remarkable task is to assimilate various enzymes roles and organic acids
455 together with natural lignin degradation using a variety of microbes. Thus, lignin valorization by
456 organic acids seems to be much more effective and safe to increase the product quantities and as well
457 as to decrease costs compared to certain other costly manufacturing protocols.

458 **Acknowledgments:** The author thanks to their potential institute (CAMB, PU, Lahore) and particularly to
459 Higher Education Commission (HEC), Pakistan Grant No: 21- (1105/SRGP/R&D/HEC/2016) for providing the
460 necessary facilities and funds to accomplish this work.

461 **Conflicts of Interest:** All authors declare no conflict of interest. The founding sponsors had no role in the writing
462 of the manuscript and in the decision to publish it.

463 References

- 464 1. Ferhan, M.; Tanguy, N.; Yan, N.; Sain, M. Comparison of Enzymatic, Alkaline, and UV/H₂O₂
465 Treatments for Extraction of Beetle-Infested Lodgepole Pine (BILP) and Aspen Bark Polyphenolic
466 Extractives. *ACS Sustain Chem. Eng.* **2013**, *2*(2), 165-172. <https://doi.org/10.1021/sc400184f>
- 467 2. Savy, D.; Mazzei, P.; Roque, R.; Nuzzo, A.; Bowra, S.; Santos, R. Structural recognition of lignin isolated
468 from bioenergy crops by subcritical water: Ethanol extraction. *Fuel Process. Technol.* **2015**, *138*, 637-644.
- 469 3. Long H, Li X, Wang H, Jia J (2013) Biomass resources and their bioenergy potential estimation: a
470 review. *Renew Sust Energ Rev* 26:344–352. doi:10.1016/j.rser.2013.05.035
- 471 4. Perez, J.; Munoz-Dorado, J.; de la Rubia, T.D.; Martinez, J. Biodegradation and biological treatments of
472 cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin: an overview. *Int. Microbiol.* **2002**, *5*(2), 53-63.

- 473 5. Saini JK, Saini R, Tewari L (2015) Lignocellulosic agriculture wastes as biomass feedstocks for second-
474 generation bioethanol production: concepts and recent developments. *Biotech* 5:337–353.
475 doi:10.1007/s13205-014-0246-5
- 476 6. Chundawat, S.P.; Beckham, G.T.; Himmel, M.E.; Dale, B.E. Deconstruction of lignocellulosic biomass
477 to fuels and chemicals. *Ann. Rev. Chem. Biomol. Eng.* **2011**, *2*, 121-145. [https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-
478 chembioeng-061010-114205](https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-chembioeng-061010-114205)
- 479 7. Boerjan, W.; Ralph, J.; Baucher, M. Lignin biosynthesis. *Annu. Rev. Plant Biol.* **2003**, *54*(1), 519-546.
480 <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.arplant.54.031902.134938>
- 481 8. Vanholme, R.; Demedts, B.; Morreel, K.; Ralph, J.; Boerjan, W. Lignin biosynthesis and structure. *Plant*
482 *Physiol.* **2010**, *153*(3), 895-905. <https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.110.155119>
- 483 9. Sturgeon, M.R.; Kim, S.; Lawrence, K.; Paton, R.S.; Chmely, S.C.; Nimlos, M.; Beckham, G.T. A
484 mechanistic investigation of acid-catalyzed cleavage of aryl-ether linkages: Implications for lignin
485 depolymerization in acidic environments. *ACS Sustain Chem. Eng.* **2013**, *2*(3), 472-485.
486 <https://doi.org/10.1021/sc400384w>
- 487 10. Desnoyer, A.N.; Fartel, B.; MacLeod, K.C.; Patrick, B.O.; Smith, K.M. Ambient-Temperature Carbon-
488 Oxygen Bond Cleavage of an α -Aryloxy Ketone with Cp₂Ti (BTMSA) and Selective Protonolysis of the
489 Resulting Ti–OR Bonds. *Organometallics* **2012**, *31*(21), 7625-7628. <https://doi.org/10.1021/om300950c>
- 490 11. Tobisu, M.; Chatani, N. Catalytic Hydrogenolysis of C–O Bonds in Aryl Ethers. *ChemCatChem.* **2011**,
491 *3*(9), 1410-1411. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cctc.201100181>
- 492 12. Lu, F.C.; Ralph, J. Solution-state NMR of lignocellulosic biomass. *J. Biobased Mater. Bio.* **2011**, *5*(2),
493 169–180. <https://doi.org/10.1166/jbmb.2011.1131>
- 494 13. Mansfield, S.D.; Kim, H.; Lu, F.; Ralph, J. Whole plant cell wall characterization using solution-state
495 2D NMR. *Nat. Protoc.* **2012**, *7*(9), 1579-1589. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nprot.2012.064>
- 496 14. Pu, Y.Q.; Cao, S.L.; Ragauskas, A.J. Application of quantitative 31P NMR in biomass lignin and biofuel
497 precursors characterization. *Energy Environ. Sci.* **2011**, *4*(9), 3154-3166.
498 <https://doi.org/10.1039/c1ee01201k>
- 499 15. Donohoe, B.S.; Decker, S.R.; Tucker, M.P.; Himmel, M.E.; Vinzant, T.B. Visualizing lignin coalescence
500 and migration through maize cell walls following thermochemical pretreatment. *Biotechnol. Bioeng.*
501 **2008**, *101*(5), 913-925. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bit.21959>
- 502 16. Carpita, N.C. Progress in the biological synthesis of the plant cell wall: new ideas for improving
503 biomass for bioenergy. *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.* **2012**, *23*(3), 330-337.
504 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copbio.2011.12.003>
- 505 17. Fu, C.; Mielenz, J.R.; Xiao, X.; Ge, Y.; Hamilton, C.Y.; Rodriguez, M.; Chen, F.; Foston, M.; Ragauskas,
506 A.; Bouton, J.; Wang, Z.Y.; Dixon, R.A. Genetic manipulation of lignin reduces recalcitrance and
507 improves ethanol production from switchgrass. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **2011**, *108*(9), 3803-3808.
508 www.pnas.org/cgi/doi/10.1073/pnas.110031
- 509 18. Ziebell, A.; Gracom, K.; Katahira, R.; Chen, F.; Pu, Y.Q.; Ragauskas, A.; Dixon, R.A.; Davis, M. Increase
510 in 4-coumaryl alcohol units during lignification in alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*) alters the extractability and
511 molecular weight of lignin. *J. Biol. Chem.* **2010**, *285*, 38961–38968.
512 <https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M110.137315>
- 513 19. Fort, D.A.; Remsing, R.C.; Swatloski, R.P.; Moyna, P.; Moyna, G.; Rogers, R.D. Can ionic liquids
514 dissolve wood? Processing and analysis of lignocellulosic materials with 1-n-butyl-3-
515 methylimidazolium chloride. *Green Chem.* **2007**, *9*(1), 63-69. <https://doi.org/10.1039/B607614A>
- 516 20. Pu, Y.Q.; Jiang, N.; Ragauskas, A.J. Ionic liquid as a green solvent for lignin. *J. Wood Chem. Technol.*
517 **2007**, *27*(1), 23–33. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02773810701282330>
- 518 21. Li, C.L.; Knierim, B.; Manisseri, C.; Arora, R.; Scheller, H.V.; Auer, M.; Vogel, K.P.; Simmons, B.A.;
519 Singh, S. Comparison of dilute acid and ionic liquid pretreatment of switchgrass: Biomass
520 recalcitrance, delignification and enzymatic saccharification. *Bioresour. Technol.* **2010**, *101*(13),
521 4900–4906. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2009.10.066>
- 522 22. Bozell, J.J.; Black, S.K.; Myers, M.; Cahill, D.; Miller, W.P.; Park, S. Solvent fractionation of renewable
523 woody feedstocks: Organosolv generation of biorefinery process streams for the production of bio-
524 based chemicals. *Biomass Bioenergy* **2011**, *35*(10), 4197-4208.
525 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biombioe.2011.07.006>

- 526 23. Bozell, J.J.; O'Lenick, C.J.; Warwick, S. Biomass fractionation for the biorefinery: Heteronuclear
527 multiple quantum coherence–Nuclear magnetic resonance investigation of lignin isolated from solvent
528 fractionation of switchgrass. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2011**, *59*(17), 9232–9242.
529 <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf201850b>
- 530 24. Zhang, Y.H.P.; Ding, S.Y.; Mielenz, J.R.; Cui, J.B.; Elander, R.T.; Laser, M.; Himmel, M.E.; McMillan,
531 J.R.; Lynd, L.R. Fractionating recalcitrant lignocellulose at modest reaction conditions. *Biotechnol.*
532 *Bioeng.* **2007**, *97*(2), 214–223. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bit.21386>
- 533 25. Hergert, H.L. Developments in organosolv pulping. An overview. Wiley, New York, 1998; pp. 5–67.
- 534 26. Sahin, H.T. Base-catalyzed organosolv pulping of jute. *J. Chem. Tech. Biotech.* **2003**, *78*(12), 1267–1273.
535 <https://doi.org/10.1002/jctb.931>
- 536 27. Sarkanen, K.V. Chemistry of solvent pulping. In: Tappi Pulping Conference, Toronto, CA, **1990**; pp.
537 651–654.
- 538 28. Nimz, H.H.; Casten, R. Chemical processing of lignocellulosics. *Euro. J. Wood and Wood Pro.* **1986**, *44*(6),
539 207–212.
- 540 29. Young, R.A.; Davis, J.L.; Wiesmann, E.B. Organic Acid Pulping of Wood-Part II. Acetic Acid Pulping
541 of Aspen. *Holzforchung-Int J. Bio. Chem. Phy. Technol. Wood* **1986**, *40*(2), 99–108.
542 <https://doi.org/10.1515/hfsg.1986.40.2.99>
- 543 30. Davis, J.L.; Young, R.A.; Deodhar, S.S. Organic acid pulping of wood, 3: Acetic acid pulping of spruce.
544 *J. Japan Wood Res. Soc.* **1986**, (Japan).
- 545 31. Dapia, S.; Santos, V.; Parajo, J.C. Study of formic acid as an agent for biomass fractionation. *Biomass*
546 *Bioenergy* **2002**, *22*(3), 213–221. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0961-9534\(01\)00073-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0961-9534(01)00073-3)
- 547 32. Jahan, M.S.; Chowdhury, D.N.; Islam, M.K. Atmospheric formic acid pulping and TCF bleaching of
548 dhaincha (*Sesbania aculeata*), kash (*Saccharum spontaneum*) and banana stem (*Musa Cavendish*). *Ind. Crops*
549 *Prod.* **2007**, *26*(3), 324–331. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2007.03.012>
- 550 33. Lam, H.Q.; Le Bigot, Y.; Delmas, M. Formic acid pulping of rice straw. *Ind. Crops Prod.* **2001**, *14*(1), 65–
551 71. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0926-6690\(00\)00089-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0926-6690(00)00089-3)
- 552 34. Xu, J.; Thomsen, M.H.; Thomsen, A.B. Pretreatment on corn stover with low concentration of formic
553 acid. *J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **2009**, *19*(8), 845–850. <https://doi.org/10.4014/jmb.0809.514>
- 554 35. Ligerio, P.; Villauerde, J.J.; de Vega, A.; Bao, M. Delignification of *Eucalyptus globulus* saplings in two
555 organosolv systems (formic and acetic acid) preliminary analysis of dissolved lignins. *Ind. Crops Prod.*
556 **2008**, *27*(1), 110–117. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2007.08.008>
- 557 36. Zhang, M.; Qi, W.; Liu, R.; Su, R.; Wu, S.; He, Z. Fractionating lignocellulose by formic acid:
558 characterization of major components. *Biomass Bioenergy* **2010**, *34*(4), 525–532.
559 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biombioe.2009.12.018>
- 560 37. Magnuson, J.K.; Lasure, L.L. Organic acid production by filamentous fungi. In: *Adv. Fungal Biotechnol.*
561 *Ind. Agric. Med.* Springer US. **2004**; pp. 307–340. <https://doi.org/10.1.1.536.2925>
- 562 38. Plassard, C.; Fransson, P. Regulation of low-molecular weight organic acid production in fungi. *Fungal*
563 *Biol. Rev.* **2009**, *23*(1), 30–39. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbr.2009.08.002>
- 564 39. Dutton, M.V.; Evans, C.S. Oxalate production by fungi: its role in pathogenicity and ecology in the soil
565 environment. *Can. J. Microbiol.* **1996**, *42*(9), 881–895. <https://doi.org/10.1139/m96-114>
- 566 40. Jones, D.L. Organic acids in the rhizosphere—a critical review. *Plant Soil* **1998**, *205*(1), 25–44.
- 567 41. Green, F.; Highley, T.L. Mechanism of brown-rot decay: paradigm or paradox. *Int. Biodeterior.*
568 *Biodegrad.* **1997**, *39*(2–3), 113–124. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0964-8305\(96\)00063-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0964-8305(96)00063-7)
- 569 42. Shimada, M.; Akamtsu, Y.; Tokimatsu, T.; Mii, K.; Hattori, T. Possible biochemical roles of oxalic acid
570 as a low molecular weight compound involved in brown-rot and white-rot wood decays. *J. Biotechnol.*
571 **1997**, *53*(2), 103–113. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0168-1656\(97\)01679-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0168-1656(97)01679-9)
- 572 43. Tanaka, N.; Akamatsu, Y.; Hattori, T.; Shimada, M. Effect of oxalic acid on the oxidative breakdown of
573 cellulose by the Fenton reaction. *Wood Res. Bull Wood Res. Inst. Kyoto Univ.* **1994**, *81*, 8–10.
- 574 44. Ahonen-Jonnarth, U.; Van Hees, P.A.; Lundstrom, U.S.; Finlay, R.D. Organic acids produced by
575 mycorrhizal *Pinus sylvestris* exposed to elevated aluminium and heavy metal concentrations. *New*
576 *Phytol.* **2000**, *146*(3), 557–567. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1469-8137.2000.00653.x>
- 577 45. Espejo, E.; Agosin, E. Production and degradation of oxalic acid by brown rot fungi. *Appl. Environ.*
578 *Microbiol.* **1991**, *57*(7), 1980–1986.

- 579 46. Hastrup, A.C.S.; Green, F.; Lebow, P.K.; Jensen, B. Enzymatic oxalic acid regulation correlated with
580 wood degradation in four brown-rot fungi. *Int. Biodeterior. Biodegrad.* **2012**, *75*, 109-114.
581 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibiod.2012.05.030>
- 582 47. Makela, M.; Galkin, S.; Hatakka, A.; Lundell, T. Production of organic acids and oxalate decarboxylase
583 in lignin-degrading white rot fungi. *Enzyme Microb. Technol.* **2002**, *30*(4), 542-549.
584 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229\(02\)00012-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229(02)00012-1)
- 585 48. Vanhees, P.; Jones, D.; Jentschke, G.; Godbold, D. Organic acid concentrations in soil solution: effects
586 of young coniferous trees and ectomycorrhizal fungi. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* **2005**, *37*, 771-776.
587 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2004.10.009>
- 588 49. Sauer, M.; Porro, D.; Mattanovich, D.; Branduardi, P. Microbial production of organic acids: expanding
589 the markets. *Trends Biotechnol.* **2008**, *26*(2), 100-108. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tibtech.2007.11.006>
- 590 50. Li, A.; Punt, P. Industrial production of organic acids by fungi. *Appl. Microb. Eng.* **2013**, 52-74
- 591 51. Liaud, N.; Giniés, C.; Navarro, D.; Fabre, N.; Crapart, S.; Herpoël-Gimbert, I.; Sigoillot, J.C. Exploring
592 fungal biodiversity: organic acid production by 66 strains of filamentous fungi. *Fungal Bio. Biotechnol.*
593 **2014**, *1*(1), 1. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40694-014-0001-z>
- 594 52. Chesson, A. Mechanistic models of forage cell wall degradation. Forage cell wall structure and
595 digestibility, (forage cell walls). **1993**, 347-376. <https://doi.org/10.2134/1993>
- 596 53. Kirk, T.K.; Farrell, R.L. Enzymatic 'combustion': The microbial degradation of lignin. *Annu. Rev.*
597 *Microbiol.* **1987**, *41*(1), 465-501. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.mi.41.100187.002341>
- 598 54. McCarthy, A.J. Lignocellulose-degrading actinomycetes. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* **1987**, *46*(2), 145-163.
599 <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6968.1987.tb02456.x>
- 600 55. Hackett, W.F.; Connors, W.J.; Kirk, T.K.; Zeikus, J.G. Microbial decomposition of synthetic ¹⁴C-labeled
601 lignins in nature: lignin biodegradation in a variety of natural materials. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **1977**,
602 *33*(1), 43-51.
- 603 56. Zeikus, J.G.; Wellstein, A.L.; Kirk, T.K. Molecular basis for the biodegradative recalcitrance of lignin in
604 anaerobic environments. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* **1982**, *15*(3), 193-197. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6968.1982.tb00066.x>
- 605 57. Gaillard, B.D.; Richards, G.N. Presence of soluble lignin-carbohydrate complexes in the bovine rumen.
606 *Carbohydr. Res.* **1975**, *42*(1), 135-145.
- 607 58. Chen, W.; Ohmiya, K.; Shimizu, S.; Kawakami, H. Anaerobic degradation of dehydrodiisoeugenol by
608 rumen bacteria. *J. Ferment. Technol.* **1987**, *65*(2), 221-224. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0385-6380\(87\)90168-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0385-6380(87)90168-3)
- 609 59. Chen, W.; Ohmiya, K.; Shimizu, S.; Kawakami, H. Degradation of dehydrodivanillin by anaerobic
610 bacteria from cow rumen fluid. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **1985**, *49*(1), 211-216.
- 611 60. Chen, W.; Supanwong, K.; Ohmiya, K.; Shimizu, S.; Kawakami, H. Anaerobic degradation of
612 veratrylglycerol-beta-guaiacyl ether and guaiacoxycetic acid by mixed rumen bacteria. *Appl. Environ.*
613 *Microbiol.* **1985**, *50*(6), 1451-1456.
- 614 61. Martin, M.M. Invertebrate-microbial interactions: Ingested fungal enzymes in arthropod biology. 1987;
615 Cornell University Press.
- 616 62. Lee, K.E.; Wood, T.G. (1971) Termites and soils. 2001; London, UK, Academic Press.
- 617 63. Martin, M.M. Cellulose digestion in insects. *Comp. Biochem. Physiol. A: Physiol.* **1983**, *75*(3), 313-324.
618 [https://doi.org/10.1016/0300-9629\(83\)90088-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/0300-9629(83)90088-9)
- 619 64. Esenther, G.R.; Kirk, T.K. Catabolism of aspen sapwood in *Reticulitermes flavipes* (Isoptera:
620 Rhinotermitidae). *Annu. Entomol. Soc. Am.* **1974**, *67*(6), 989-991. <https://doi.org/10.1093/aesa/67.6.989>
- 621 65. Wood, T.G. Food and feeding habits of termites. *Pro. ecol. of ants and termi.* **1978**, 55-80.
- 622 66. Adler, E. Lignin chemistry—past, present and future. *Wood Sci. Technol.* **1977**, *11*(3), 169-218.
- 623 67. Abdelaziz, O.Y.; Brink, D.P.; Prothmann, J.; Ravi, K.; Sun, M.; Garcia-Hidalgo, J.; Gorwa-Grauslund,
624 M.F. Biological valorization of low molecular weight lignin. *Biotechnol. Adv.* **2016**, *34*(8), 1318-1346.
625 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2016.10.001>
- 626 68. Chakar, F.S.; Ragauskas, A.J. Review of current and future softwood Kraft lignin process chemistry.
627 *Ind. Crop. Prod.* **2004**, *20*(2), 131-141. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2004.04.016>
- 628 69. Capanema, E.A.; Balakshin, M.Y.; Kadla, J.F. Quantitative characterization of a hardwood milled wood
629 lignin by nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2005**, *53*(25), 9639-9649.
630 <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf0515330>
- 631 70. Higuchi, T. Lignin biochemistry: biosynthesis and biodegradation. *Wood Sci. Technol.* **1990**, *24*(1), 23-63.
632

- 633 71. Lai, Y.Z.; Sarkanen, K.V. Isolation and structural studies. 1971; pp. 165-240.
- 634 72. Freudenberg, K.; Kraft, R.; Heimberger, W. Über den Sinapinalkohol, den Coniferylalkohol und ihre
- 635 Dehydrierungspolymerisate. *Euro. J. Inorg. Chem.* **1951**, *84*(5-6), 472-476.
- 636 <https://doi.org/10.1002/cber.19510840510>
- 637 73. Freudenberg, K. Lignin: its constitution and formation from p-hydroxycinnamyl alcohols. *Sci.* **1965**,
- 638 *148*(3670), 595-600. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.148.3670.595>
- 639 74. Freudenberg, K.; Neish, A.C. Constitution and biosynthesis of lignin. 1968; *Cons. Biosyn. Lignin*.
- 640 75. Sarkanen, K.V. Precursors and their polymerization. In *Lignins: Occurrence, Formation, Structure, and*
- 641 *Reactions*; Sarkanen, KV, Ludwig, CH, Eds.; Wiley-Interscience: New York, NY, USA, 1971; pp. 95-
- 642 163.
- 643 76. Wood, T.G.; Thomas, R.J. The mutualistic association between Macrotermitinae and Termitomyces.
- 644 *Insect-fungi. Interact.* New York: Academic. 1989; pp. 69-92.
- 645 77. Rohrmann, G.F.; Rossman, A.Y. Nutrient strategies of *Macrotermes ukuzii* (Isoptera: Termitidae).
- 646 *Pedobiologia* **1980**, *20*(2), 61-73.
- 647 78. Veivers, P.C.; Muhlemann, R.; Slaytor, M.; Leuthold, R.H.; Bignell, D.E. Digestion, diet and polyethism
- 648 in two fungus-growing termites: *Macrotermes subhyalinus* Rambur and *Macrotermes michaelseni* Sjostedt.
- 649 *J. Insect Physiol.* **1991**, *37*(9), 675-682.
- 650 79. Harwood, C.S.; Parales, R.E. The β -keto adipate pathway and the biology of self-identity. *Ann. Rev.*
- 651 *Microbiol.* **1996**, *50*(1), 553-590.
- 652 80. Hatakka, A. Lignin-modifying enzymes from selected white-rot fungi: production and role from in
- 653 lignin degradation. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* **1994**, *13*(2-3), 125-135. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6976.1994.tb00039.x)
- 654 [6976.1994.tb00039.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6976.1994.tb00039.x)
- 655 81. Tien, M.; Kirk, T.K. Lignin-degrading enzyme from the Hymenomycete *Phanerochaete chrysosporium*
- 656 Burds. *Sci. (Washington)* **1983**, *221*(4611), 661-662. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.221.4611.661>
- 657 82. Viswanath, B.; Rajesh, B.; Janardhan, A.; Kumar, A.P.; Narasimha, G. Fungal laccases and their
- 658 applications in bioremediation. *Enzym. Res.* **2014**, *2014*, 163242. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2014/163242>.
- 659 83. Desai, S.S.; Nityanand, C. Microbial laccases and their applications: a review. *Asian J Biotechnol*, **2011**,
- 660 *3*(2), 98-124. <https://doi.org/10.3923/ajbkr.2011.98.124>
- 661 84. Madhavi, V.; Lele, S.S. Laccase: properties and applications. *BioResour.* **2009**, *4*(4), 1694-1717.
- 662 85. Saparrat, M.C.; Guillen, F.; Arambarri, A.M.; Martinez, A.T.; Martinez, M.J. Induction, isolation, and
- 663 characterization of two laccases from the white rot basidiomycete *Corioloropsis rigida*. *Appl. Environ.*
- 664 *Microbiol.* **2002**, *68*(4), 1534-1540. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.68.4.1534-1540.2002>
- 665 86. Duran, N.; Rosa, M.A.; D'Annibale, A.; Gianfreda, L. Applications of laccases and tyrosinases
- 666 (phenoloxidases) immobilized on different supports: a review. *Enzyme Microbiol. Technol.* **2002**, *31*(7),
- 667 907-931. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229\(02\)00214-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229(02)00214-4)
- 668 87. Kunamneni, A.; Plou, F.J.; Ballesteros, A.; Alcalde, M. Laccases and their applications: a patent review.
- 669 *Rec. Patents on Biotechnol.* **2008**, *2*(1), 10-24. <https://doi.org/10.2174/187220808783330965>
- 670 88. Gianfreda, L.; Xu, F.; Bollag, J.M. Laccases: a useful group of oxidoreductive enzymes. *Bioremed. J.* **1999**,
- 671 *3*(1), 1-26. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10889869991219163>
- 672 89. Endo, K.; Hosono, K.; Beppu, T.; Ueda, K. A novel extracytoplasmic phenol oxidase of *Streptomyces*:
- 673 its possible involvement in the onset of morphogenesis. *Microbiol.* **2002**, *148*(6), 1767-1776.
- 674 <https://doi.org/10.1099/00221287-148-6-1767>
- 675 90. Givaudan, A.; Effosse, A.; Faure, D.; Potier, P.; Bouillant, M.L.; Bally, R. Polyphenol oxidase in
- 676 *Azospirillum lipoferum* isolated from rice rhizosphere: evidence for laccase activity in non-motile strains
- 677 of *Azospirillum lipoferum*. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* **1993**, *108*(2), 205-210. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6968.1993.tb06100.x)
- 678 [6968.1993.tb06100.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6968.1993.tb06100.x)
- 679 91. Hullo, M.F.; Moszer, I.; Danchin, A.; Martin-Verstraete, I. Cot A of *Bacillus subtilis* is a copper-
- 680 dependent laccase. *J. Bacteriol.* **2001**, *183*(18), 5426-5430. [https://doi.org/10.1128/jb.183.18.5426-](https://doi.org/10.1128/jb.183.18.5426-5430.2001)
- 681 [5430.2001](https://doi.org/10.1128/jb.183.18.5426-5430.2001)
- 682 92. Goodell, B.; Yamamoto, K.; Jellison, J.; Nakamura, M.; Fujii, T.; Takabe, K.; Hayashi, N. Laccase
- 683 immunolabelling and microanalytical analysis of wood degraded by *Lentinus edodes*. *Holzforschung-Int*
- 684 *J. Bio. Chem. Phy. Technol. Wood* **1998**, *52*(4), 345-350. <https://doi.org/10.1515/hfsg.1998.52.4.345>

- 685 93. Bourbonnais, R.; Paice, M.G.; Reid, I.D.; Lanthier, P.; Yaguchi, M. Lignin oxidation by laccase isozymes
686 from *Trametes versicolor* and role of the mediator 2, 2'-azinobis (3-ethylbenzthiazoline-6-sulfonate) in
687 kraft lignin depolymerization. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **1995**, *61*(5), 1876-1880.
- 688 94. Kawai, S.; Umezawa, T.; Higuchi, T. Degradation mechanisms of phenolic β -1 lignin substructure
689 model compounds by laccase of *Coriolus versicolor*. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* **1988**, *262*(1), 99-110.
690 [https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-9861\(88\)90172-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-9861(88)90172-5)
- 691 95. Elegir, G.; Daina, S.; Zoia, L.; Bestetti, G.; Orlandi, M. Laccase mediator system: oxidation of recalcitrant
692 lignin model structures present in residual kraft lignin. *Enzyme Microbiol. Technol.* **2005**, *37*(3), 340-346.
693 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enzmictec.2005.02.017>
- 694 96. Morozova, O.V.; Shumakovich, G.P.; Shleev, S.V.; Yaropolov, Y.I. Laccase-mediator systems and their
695 applications: a review. *Appl. Biochem. Microbiol.* **2007**, *43*(5), 523-35.
696 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1134/S0003683807050055>
- 697 97. Rivera-Hoyos, C.M.; Morales-Álvarez, E.D.; Poutou-Piñales, R.A.; Pedroza-Rodríguez, A.M.;
698 Rodríguez-Vázquez, R.; Delgado-Boada, J.M. Fungal laccases. *Fungal Biol Rev.* **2013**, *27*(3-4), 67-82.
699 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fbr.2013.07.001>.
- 700 98. Wong, D.W. Structure and action mechanism of ligninolytic enzymes. *Appl. Biochem. Biotechnol.* **2009**,
701 *157*(2), 174-209. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s12010008-8279-z>
- 702 99. Bourbonnais, R.; Paice, M.G. Oxidation of non-phenolic substrates. An expanded role for laccase in
703 lignin biodegradation. *FEBS Lett.* **1990**, *267*, 99-102.
- 704 100. Jia, S.; Cox, B.J.; Guo, X.; Zhang, Z.C.; Ekerdt, J.G. Hydrolytic cleavage of β -O-4 ether bonds of lignin
705 model compounds in an ionic liquid with metal chlorides. *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* **2010**, *50*(2), 849-855.
706 <https://doi.org/10.1021/ie101884h>
- 707 101. Zakzeski, J.; Bruijninx, P.C.; Jongerius, A.L.; Weckhuysen, B.M. The catalytic valorization of lignin for
708 the production of renewable chemicals. *Chem. Rev.* **2010**, *110*(6), 3552-3599.
709 <https://doi.org/10.1021/cr900354u>
- 710 102. van Bloois, E.; Pazmino, D.E.T.; Winter, R.T.; Fraaije, M.W. A robust and extracellular heme-containing
711 peroxidase from *Thermobifida fusca* as prototype of a bacterial peroxidase superfamily. *Appl. Microbiol.*
712 *Biotech.* **2010**, *86*(5), 1419-1430. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-009-2369-x>
- 713 103. Dunford, H.B.; Stillman, J.S. On the function and mechanism of action of peroxidases. *Coordin. Chem.*
714 *Rev.* **1976**, *19*(3), 187-251. [https://doi.org/10.106/S0010-8545\(00\)80316-1](https://doi.org/10.106/S0010-8545(00)80316-1)
- 715 104. Hammel, K.E.; Moen, M.A. Depolymerization of a synthetic lignin in vitro by lignin peroxidase.
716 *Enzyme Microb. Technol.* **1991**, *13*(1), 15-18. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0141-0229\(91\)90182-A](https://doi.org/10.1016/0141-0229(91)90182-A)
- 717 105. Perez, J.; Jeffries, T.W. Mineralization of ¹⁴C-ring-labeled synthetic lignin correlates with the
718 production of lignin peroxidase, not of manganese peroxidase or laccase. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **1990**,
719 *56*(6), 1806-1812.
- 720 106. Morgenstern, I.; Klopman, S.; Hibbett, D.S. Molecular evolution and diversity of lignin degrading
721 heme peroxidases in the Agaricomycetes. *J. Mol. Evol.* **2008**, *66*(3), 243-257.
- 722 107. Renganathan, V.; Gold, M.H. Spectral characterization of the oxidized states of lignin peroxidase, an
723 extracellular heme enzyme from the white rot basidiomycete *Phanerochaete chrysosporium*. *Biochem.*
724 **1986**, *25*(7), 1626-1631. <https://doi.org/10.1021/bi00355a027>
- 725 108. Glenn, J.K.; Gold, M.H. Purification and characterization of an extracellular Mn(II)-dependent
726 peroxidase from the lignin-degrading basidiomycete, *Phanerochaete chrysosporium*. *Arch. Biochem.*
727 *Biophys.* **1985**, *242*, 329-341.
- 728 109. Hofrichter, M. Lignin conversion by manganese peroxidase (MnP). *Enzyme Microb. Technol.* **2002**, *30*(4),
729 454-466. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229\(01\)00528-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229(01)00528-2)
- 730 110. Moreira, P.R.; Almeida-Vara, E.; Malcata, F.X.; Duarte, J.C. Lignin transformation by a versatile
731 peroxidase from a novel *Bjerkandera* sp. strain. *Int. Biodeterior. Biodegrad.* **2007**, *59*, 234-238.
- 732 111. Camarero, S.; Sarkar, S.; Ruiz-Duenas, F.J.; Martinez, M.J.; Martinez, A.T. Description of a versatile
733 peroxidase involved in the natural degradation of lignin that has both manganese peroxidase and
734 lignin peroxidase substrate interaction sites. *J. Biol. Chem.* **1999**, *274*(15), 10324-10330.
735 <http://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.274.15.10324>
- 736 112. Heinfling, A.; Ruiz-Dueñas, F.J.; Martínez, M.J.; Bergbauer, M.; Szewzyk, U.; Martínez, A.T. A study
737 on reducing substrates of manganese-oxidizing peroxidases from *Pleurotus eryngii* and *Bjerkandera*
738 *adusta*. *FEBS Lett.* **1998**, *428*, 141-146.

- 739 113. Palma, C.; Lloret, L.; Sepúlveda, L.; Contreras, E. Production of versatile peroxidase from *Pleurotus*
740 *eryngii* by solid-state fermentation using agricultural residues and evaluation of its catalytic properties.
741 *Prep. Biochem. Biotechnol.* **2016**, *46*(2), 200-207. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10826068.2015.1084513>
- 742 114. Cohen, R.; Hadar, Y.; Yarden, O. Transcript and activity levels of different *Pleurotus ostreatus*
743 peroxidases are differentially affected by Mn²⁺. *Environ. Microbiol.* **2001**, *3*(5), 312-322. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1462-2920.2001.00197.x)
744 [10.1046/j.1462-2920.2001.00197.x](https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1462-2920.2001.00197.x)
- 745 115. Pollegioni, L.; Tonin, F.; Rosini, E. Lignin-degrading enzymes. *The FEBS J.* **2015**, *282*(7), 1190-1213.
746 <https://doi.org/10.1111/febs.13224>
- 747 116. Li, C.; Zhao, X.; Wang, A.; Huber, G.; W.; Zhang, T. Catalytic transformation of lignin for the
748 production of chemicals and fuels. *Chem. Rev.* **2015**, *115*(21), 11559-11624.
749 <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.chemrev.5b00155>
- 750 117. Kamm, B.; Kamm, M. Principles of biorefineries. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **2004**, *64*(2), 137-145.
751 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-003-1537-7>
- 752 118. Gosselink, R.J.A. Lignin as a renewable aromatic resource for the chemical industry. 2011.
- 753 119. Gary, J.H.; Handwerk, G.E.; Kaiser, M.J. Petroleum refining: technology and economics. 2007, CRC
754 press.
- 755 120. Sannigrahi, P.; Ragauskas, A.J.; Tuskan, G.A. Poplar as a feedstock for biofuels: a review of
756 compositional characteristics. *Biofuels Bioprod. Bioref.* **2010**, *4*(2), 209-226.
757 <https://doi.org/10.1002/bbb.206>
- 758 121. Holladay, J.E.; White, J.F.; Bozell, J.J.; Johnson, D. Top Value Added Chemicals from Biomass-Volume
759 II, Results of Screening for Potential Candidates from Biorefinery Lignin (No. PNNL-16983). Pacific
760 Northwest National Lab. (PNNL), Richland, WA (United States); 2007; National Renewable Energy
761 Laboratory (NREL), Golden, CO (United States). <https://doi.org/10.2172/921839>
- 762 122. Smolarski, N. High-value opportunities for lignin: Unlocking its potential. *Frost Sullivan*, **2012**, 15.
- 763 123. Haveren, J.V.; Scott, E.L.; Sanders, J. Bulk chemicals from biomass. *Biofuels Bioprod. Bioref.* **2008**, *2*(1),
764 41-57. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bbb.43>
- 765 124. Allen, R.H.; Yats, L.D. Kinetics of three-compound equilibrations. V. Concurrent alkylation and
766 isomerization. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1961**, *83*(13), 2799-2805.
767 <http://pubs.acs.org/doi/abs/10.1021/ja01474a003>
- 768 125. Gallezot, P. Catalytic routes from renewables to fine chemicals. *Catalysis today* **2007**, *121*(1), 76-91.
769 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cattod.2006.11.019>
- 770 126. Song, Q.; Wang, F.; Cai, J.; Wang, Y.; Zhang, J.; Yu, W.; Xu, J. Lignin depolymerization (LDP) in alcohol
771 over nickel-based catalysts via a fragmentation–hydrogenolysis process. *Energy Environ. Sci.* **2013**, *6*(3),
772 994-1007. <https://doi.org/10.1039/C2EE23741E>
- 773 127. Saito, T.; Perkins, J.H.; Vautard, F.; Meyer, H.M.; Messman, J.M.; Tolnai, B.; Naskar, A.K. Methanol
774 fractionation of softwood kraft lignin: Impact on the lignin properties. *Chem. Sus.Chem.* **2014**, *7*(1), 221-
775 228. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cssc.201300509>
- 776 128. Kadla, J.F.; Kubo, S.; Venditti, R.A.; Gilbert, R.D.; Compere, A.L.; Griffith, W. Lignin-based carbon
777 fibers for composite fiber applications. *Carbon.* **2002**, *40*(15), 2913-2920. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0008-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0008-6223(02)00248-8)
778 [6223\(02\)00248-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0008-6223(02)00248-8)
- 779 129. Lawoko, A.; Duval, D. A review on lignin-based polymeric, micro- and nanostructured materials.
780 *React. Func. Polym.* **2014**, *85*(SL), 78-96. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.reactfunctpolym.2014.09.017>
- 781 130. Eberle, C.; Webb, D.C.; Albers, T.; Chen, C. Commercialization of New Carbon Fiber Materials Based
782 on Sustainable Resources for Energy Applications, 2013, Oak Ridge National Lab (ORNL).
783 <https://doi.org/10.2172/1072149>
- 784 131. Stern, T.; Schwarzbauer, P. Wood-based lignosulfonate versus synthetic polycarboxylate in concrete
785 admixture systems: the perspective of a traditional pulping by-product competing with an oil-based
786 substitute in a business-to-business market in Central Europe. *Forest Prod. J.* **2008**, *58*(1/2), 81.
- 787 132. Mailvaganam, N.P.; Rixom, M.R. *Chemical admixtures for concrete*. 2002, CRC Press.
- 788 133. Amaral, J.S.; Sepulveda, M.; Cateto, C.A.; Fernandes, I.P.; Rodrigues, A.E.; Belgacem, M.N.; Barreiro,
789 M.F. Fungal degradation of lignin-based rigid polyurethane foams. *Polym. Degrad. Stab.* **2012**, *97*(10),
790 2069-2076. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.polymdegradstab.2012.03.03>

- 791 134. Gnedenkov, S.V.; Opra, D.P.; Sinebryukhov, S.L.; Tsvetnikov, A.K.; Ustinov, A.Y.; Sergienko, V.I.
792 Hydrolysis lignin-based organic electrode material for primary lithium batteries. *J. Solid State*
793 *Electrochem.* **2013**, *17*(10), 2611-2621.
- 794 135. Zhang, R.; Xiao, X.; Tai, Q.; Huang, H.; Yang, J.; Hu, Y. Preparation of lignin-silica hybrids and its
795 application in intumescent flame-retardant poly (lactic acid) system. *High Perform. Polym.* **2012**, *24*(8),
796 738-746. <https://doi.org/10.11177/0954008312451476>
- 797 136. Lima, R.B.; Raza, R.; Qin, H.; Li, J.; Lindstrom, M.E.; Zhu, B. Direct lignin fuel cell for power generation.
798 *RSC Adv.* **2013**, *3*(15), 5083-5089. <https://doi.org/10.1039/C3RA23418E>.
- 799 137. Wang, S.X.; Yang, L.; Stubbs, L.P.; Li, X.; He, C. Lignin-derived fused electrospun carbon fibrous mats
800 as high performance anode materials for lithium ion batteries. *ACS App. Mater. Interfaces.* **2013**, *5*(23),
801 12275-12282. <https://doi.org/10.1021/am4043867>
- 802 138. Tenhaeff, W.E.; Rios, O.; More, K.; McGuire, M.A. Highly Robust Lithium Ion Battery Anodes from
803 Lignin: An Abundant, Renewable, and Low Cost Material. *Adv. Funct. Mater.* **2014**, *24*(1), 86-94.
804 <https://doi.org/10.1002/adfm.201301420>