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Article

Beyond the Surface: A Methodological Exploration of Enzyme Impact along the Cellulose Fiber Cross-Section

Irina Sulaeva, Fredrik Gjerstad Støpamo, Ivan Melikhov, David Budischowsky, Jenni L. Rahikainen, Anna Borisova, Kaisa Marjamaa, Kristiina Kruus, Vincent G. H. Eijsink, Anikó Várnai, and Antje Potthast*



fluorescence detection. The analysis of these fractions allowed for the recording of the changes in the chemical structure across the layers, resulting in a detailed cross-sectional profile of the different functionalities and molecular weight distributions. The method was optimized and tested in practice with LPMO (lytic polysaccharide monooxygenase)-treated cotton fibers, where it revealed the depth of fiber modification by the enzyme.

INTRODUCTION

In the transition to a more sustainable future, which is now a priority goal for countries around the world, cellulose is seen as a key polymer for green, biobased development. As part of biomass, cellulose is a renewable source of biobased polymers and helps to reduce the consumption of fossil resources.¹ In its polymeric form, cellulose is today mainly used in pulp, paper, and textile production. Efforts are being made worldwide to further develop biobased processes that will enable cellulose to be used on a much larger scale.

Despite its abundance, some challenges restrict the utilization of cellulose as an industrial feedstock. Its complex hierarchical structure often renders it resistant to mild chemical and mechanical treatments. To reduce the consumption of harsh chemicals and ensure the environmental compatibility of cellulose processing, an enzymatic treatment is frequently implemented. Efficient enzymatic cocktails-mixtures of cellobiohydrolases and endoglucanases in combination with a variety of hemicellulases and auxiliary enzymes-are already extensively utilized in biorefinery processes for the complete hydrolysis of lignocellulosic biomass for production of biofuels.² One of the more recent developments in this field concerns the discovery of lytic polysaccharide monooxygenases (EC 1.14.99.53–56, LPMOs), which can break internal

glycosidic linkages even within the most recalcitrant crystalline parts of cellulose, introducing oxidized sites. These enzymes are considered key enzymes that increase the efficiency of cellulose-hydrolyzing enzymes in biomass degradation,³ while also offering possibilities for cellulose modification.⁴ LPMOcatalyzed oxidation occurs at the C1 and/or C4 carbon of the anhydro glucose units in a cellulose substrate and requires the presence of an external electron donor and an oxygen species. LPMOs show broad catalytic versatility, acting on multiple soluble and insoluble substrates.⁵

Despite the obvious and unique potential of LPMO enzymes in cellulose modification, they have been underexplored for controlled fiber treatment.⁶ In contrast to total saccharification, the use of enzymes in fiber engineering requires targeted surface-only modifications as unrestricted treatment by an enzyme is known to weaken the fibers due to cellulose depolymerization. As the mechanism and impact of LPMO

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action on the cellulose surface are still not well understood, it is challenging to predict the effects of LPMO treatment, for example, whether it results in surface-only modification of cellulosic fibers without deep penetration to the fiber core or in extensive cellulose degradation with effects on deeper layers.

LPMOs are known to feature a flat, sometimes slightly grooved substrate binding surface with an exposed coppercontaining active site.^{7,8} However, the exact amino acid residues on the binding surface responsible for substrate recognition and oxidative regioselectivity of LPMOs are still poorly understood.^{9,10} In addition to a catalytic module, some LPMOs possess a carbohydrate-binding module (CBM type 1) connected via a flexible linker to the C-terminus,¹¹ which influences their enzymatic activity due to the effects on substrate binding.^{11,12} The effects of CBMs on LPMO activity are complex, as the affinity for the substrate helps to prevent autocatalytic inactivation of the enzyme under turnover conditions,¹³ as discussed below. Real-time imaging of the molecular interactions of a CBM-containing LPMO (TrAA9A from Trichoderma reesei) with bacterial microcrystalline cellulose performed using high-speed atomic force microscopy has shown that TrAA9A molecules exhibit a "stop-and-go" behavior in all three dimensions, including movement along one cellulose microfibril, across it, or from one microfibril to another. Moreover, enzyme molecules have been shown to penetrate inside the microfibril structure.¹⁴

For the successful optimization of the fiber processing parameters, it is critical to gain a better in-depth understanding of the underlying mechanisms, including enzyme-fiber interaction and enzymatic fiber penetration. In this respect, it would be helpful to have access to methods that allow monitoring cellulose properties along the cross-section of the fiber or for successive thin fiber layers, including properties such as molar mass distribution and occurrence of functional groups like carbonyls or carboxyls. The concept of performing cross-sectional fiber characterization is not novel. Subsequent fiber layer analysis has been explored previously to gain insights on the cross-sectional variation of specific parameters, such as chemical composition, including the distribution of lignin¹⁵⁻¹⁷ and carbohydrates,^{16,18-20} as well as changes in molar mass.^{20,21} Various techniques can be applied to isolate individual fiber layers, including mechanical peeling,^{15–17,22} enzymatic peeling,^{18,19'} and chemical peeling.²⁰ However, most of the developed, mechanical, and enzymatic peeling approaches are not suitable for analyzing LPMO-fiber interactions because they rely on cellulose degradation during peeling and thus fail to provide valuable information about the degree of cellulose chain cleavages induced by LPMO. Chemical peeling involves derivatization (acetylation) of carbohydrates at the fiber surface and their subsequent extraction by organic solvents. This technique has never become widely applied because of challenges, such as poor reproducibility and time inefficiency. Moreover, derivatization reactions during chemical peeling introduce changes to the molar mass, restricting further analysis of original molar mass parameters for isolated fractions. Alternatively, gradual elimination of cellulose fiber layers was performed upon short-time dissolution in the most commonly used solvent system for cellulose, N,N-dimethylacetamide (DMAc) with LiCl (9% w/v).²¹ Among the available techniques for stepwise elimination of fiber layers, dissolution in DMAc/LiCl is the most suitable method for the intended purpose, as it preserves cellulose molar mass in the collected fractions. Moreover,

fractions in DMAc can be directly analyzed by size-exclusion chromatography (SEC) to observe radial changes of molar masses introduced by LPMO in cellulose fibers. For a more comprehensive characterization, changes in carbonyl group content for each fiber layer can be recorded using a recently described protocol.²³

This study evaluates a method for simultaneous analysis of changes in molar mass and carbonyl groups in cellulose fibers across all fiber layers from the surface to the core. The complete protocol includes labeling of cellulose samples with the carbonyl-selective fluorescent marker carbazole-9-carboxylic acid [2-(2-aminooxyethoxy)ethoxy]amide (CCOA), gradual peeling of fiber layers using DMAc/LiCl, followed by SEC analysis combining multi angle light scattering (MALS), fluorescence (FL), and refractive index (RI) detection. This new method was used to analyze LPMO-treated fibers in order to enhance our understanding of how LPMOs affect fiber properties. To get a better insight into the role of CBMs, two LPMOs belonging to the fungal AA9 family²⁴ C1/C4-oxidizing TrAA9A from Trichoderma reesei and C4-oxidizing NcAA9C from Neurospora crassa, were studied in their native form and in a truncated form lacking the CBM. Thus, this study sheds light on how LPMOs and their CBM modify cellulose fibers. The cross-sectional analysis developed here represents a general-purpose tool that can be further exploited for the analysis of different layered cellulose structures.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Enzyme Production. TrAA9A from T. reesei (UniProt ID, G0R6T8)²⁴ was produced and purified as described in Kont et al.² The truncated form of TrAA9A, i.e., lacking the native CBM1, was produced by papain cleavage of the linker as follows: 53 mg of purified TrAA9A (3.5 mg/mL) was treated with papain (0.3 mg/mL) in 0.1 M sodium acetate buffer, pH 5.0, at 37 °C for 23.5 h. The digested protein sample was changed to 10 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.0, with a PD10 desalting column (Cytiva, Marlborough, Massachusetts). The TrAA9A catalytic domain was purified with anion exchange chromatography using a 5 mL DEAE Sepharose column (Cytiva, Marlborough, MA, USA) and a kta Protein purification system (Cytiva, Marlborough, MA, USA). The protein was eluted by applying a 0-150 mM sodium chloride gradient in 10 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.0, over 15 column volumes. The fractions were analyzed with SDS-PAGE (BioRad Criterion Stain Free Gel Imaging System; Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., Hercules, CA, USA), and fractions containing pure protein with the correct molar mass were pooled and concentrated with VivaSpin Turbo ultrafiltration tubes (cut off 5 kDa) (Sartorius, Goettingen, Germany) and changed to 25 mM sodium acetate buffer, pH 5.0, using a PD10 column. The purified enzymes were stored frozen (-20 °C). Prior to use, the purified catalytic domain of TrAA9A (TrAA9A-N) was saturated with copper by changing the buffer to 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, with a PD10 column, followed by incubation with a 3-fold molar concentration of CuSO₄ for 30 min at room temperature. After this, the excess copper sulfate was removed and the enzyme was changed back to 25 mM sodium acetate buffer, pH 5.0, with a PD10 desalting column. Protein concentrations were analyzed by measuring absorbance at 280 nm and converting these to molar concentrations using the theoretical molar extinction coefficient 54360 M^{-1} ·cm⁻¹ for TrAA9A and 48150 M⁻¹·cm⁻¹ for TrAA9A-N.

NcAA9C from N. crassa (UniProt ID, Q7SHI8) was produced and purified as reported by Kittl et al.²⁶ The truncated, CBM-free version of NcAA9C (NcAA9C-N) was cloned, produced and purified as reported by Borisova et al.²⁷

The cellobiohydrolase TrCel7A from Trichoderma reesei (UniProt ID, G0RVK1) was produced and purified as reported by Ståhlberg et al.²⁸ The cellobiose dehydrogenase MtCDH from *Myriococcum*

Stepwise dissolution: general Approach I



Stepwise dissolution Approach I: implementation to TrAA9A treated samples

N (number of samples)		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
X (dissolution time)	Before dissolution	10 min	30 min	1h	2 h	4 h	12 h	24 h
Fibre schematic representation	0	<u> </u>	0	0				Fully dissolved fibres
Sample		Samuel 1	Sample 2	Sample 3	Sample	Sample 5	Samples	5anne1

Figure 1. Schematic representation of stepwise dissolution Approach I and the details of its implementation to the analysis of *Tr*AA9A-treated samples.

thermophilum (UniProt ID, A9XK88) was produced and purified as reported by Zámocký et al. 29

Cellulose Treatment with LPMO. Whatman No. 1 filter paper sheets purchased from GE Healthcare (production site China) were cold disintegrated and washed to obtain the sodium form as described by Marjamaa et al.³⁰ For treatment with TrAA9A and TrAA9A-N, the wet cellulosic fibers were treated with 1.6 μ M enzyme at 2.5% (w/v; dry matter) fiber concentration (0.064 μ mol of enzyme/g of dry fiber) in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.0, containing 1 mM gallic acid (GA) as reductant. The reactions were carried out in 100 mL glass bottles covered with pierced aluminum foil at 45 °C for 6 h with mixing at 170 rpm using an Infors HT Ecotron incubator shaker (Infors AG, Bottmingen, Switzerland). Each reaction contained 0.5 g (dry matter) fibers in a 20 mL liquid volume. After the reaction, the bottles were placed in an ice bath, and the liquid was collected by filtration through a 60 μ m mesh cloth. The filtrate was poured onto the fibers on the mesh cloth, and the filtration was repeated. The filtrate was then collected and stored at -20 °C. The LPMO-treated fibers were further washed with 100 mL of Milli-Q water by filtration. The washed fiber samples were then stored at 4 °C. Control reactions were set up, with one lacking the enzyme and another lacking GA.

For treatment with NcAA9C and NcAA9C-N, the wet cellulosic fibers were treated with 0.5 μ M enzyme at 1% (w/v; dry matter) fiber concentration (0.05 μ mol of enzyme/g of dry fiber) in 50 mM Bis-Tris/HCl buffer, pH 6.5, containing 1 mM GA as reductant. The reactions were carried out in 50 mL falcon tubes at 30 °C for 24 h with mixing at 250 rpm horizontal shaking using an Infors HT Multitron Standard incubator shaker (Infors AG). Each reaction contained 50 mg (dry matter) fibers in a 5 mL liquid volume. The reactions were terminated by incubating at 99 °C for 5 min, and the solids were separated from the liquid fraction by centrifugation at 5000g and 4 °C for 20 min and removing the supernatant by pipetting. Subsequently, 200 μ L of the supernatant was filtered through a 0.2 μ m PES membrane using a 96-well filter plate and a vacuum manifold (Merck Millipore; Burlington, MA, USA) for analysis of the soluble LPMO products. Control reactions were set up, with one lacking the enzyme and another lacking GA.

To remove residual proteins after LPMO treatment, the recovered fiber fractions (ca. 50 mg dry material each) were immediately resuspended in 5 mL of 1% (w/v) sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) solution and boiled for 5 min, then washed three times with 5 mL 75% (w/v) EtOH and once with 5 mL Milli-Q water, and then resuspended with 15 mL 75% (v/w) EtOH prior to fiber analysis,

with centrifuging (at 5000g and 4 °C for 20 min) and then removing the supernatant by pipetting after each round.

Analysis of Soluble Products. Soluble LPMO products were analyzed using high-performance anion exchange chromatography with pulsed amperometric detection (HPAEC-PAD) using a Dionex ICS-5000 system (Thermo Scientific, Sunnyvale, CA, USA) equipped with a CarboPac PA200 analytical $(3 \times 250 \text{ mm})$ and guard $(3 \times 50 \text{ mm})$ mm) column, using a 26 min gradient protocol reported earlier.³¹ Before analysis, the samples were treated with 1 μ M TrCel7A in 20 mM Na-acetate buffer, pH 5.5, overnight at 37 °C, to convert oligomeric oxidized products to a mixture of Glc4gemGlc, Glc4gem-(Glc)2, GlcGlc1A, (Glc)2Glc1A, and (Glc)3Glc1A. C1-oxidized standards (GlcGlc1A, (Glc)2Glc1A, and (Glc)3Glc1A) were produced by treating cellobiose, cellotriose, or cellotetraose (1.25 mM) with cellobiose dehydrogenase MtCDH (2 µM) in 50 mM sodium acetate buffer, pH 5.0, at 40 °C for 24 h. We synthesized C4oxidized standards, Glc4gem(Glc)2 and Glc4gemGlc, by treating cello-1,4-β-D-pentaose (Megazyme International, Ireland) with C4oxidizing NcAA9C, as described previously.

Cellulose Carbonyl Group Labeling with CCOA. Cellulose labeling with CCOA was performed according to a procedure described before.³³ In short, 100 mg of pulp was suspended in 10 mL of a 20 mM zinc acetate buffer (pH 4.0) containing 12.5 mg CCOA and incubated for 7 days at 40 °C. The labeled pulp was isolated by filtration, washed with EtOH and DMAc, and subjected to dissolution using the methods described below.

Stepwise Dissolution. Approach *l*. A sample (approximately 50 mg corresponding to air-dry weight) was placed into a 15 mL vial, and DMAc/LiCl (9% w/v, 7 mL) was added to the sample. The vial was vortexed for 5 min and kept in a shaker. Samples (1 mL each) were taken from the vial after defined time intervals (10 min, 30 min, 1, 2, 4, 12, and 24 h), as shown in Figure 1. Each sample was diluted with pure DMAc (1:1, v/v) and filtered through a 0.45 μ m syringe filter prior to SEC analysis. With this approach, the subsequent samples contain an increasing fraction, i.e., an increasingly thicker part of the outer layer) of the fibers.

Approach II. A sample (approximately 50 mg corresponding to airdry weight) was placed into a 15 mL vial, and DMAc/LiCl (9% w/v, 1 mL) was added. The sample was first vortexed for 5 min and then kept in a shaker. After certain time intervals, the sample was diluted with 1 mL of pure DMAc to stop the dissolution reaction. The diluted sample was filtered on a Büchner funnel connected to a 25 mL flask. The permeate containing the dissolved outer layer of the cellulose

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Stepwise dissolution: general Approach II



Stepwise dissolution Approach II: implementation to TrAA9A treated samples

N (number of dissolution cycles)		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
X (dissolution time)	Before dissolution	10 min	10 – 30 min	30 – 60 min	1 – 2 h	2 – 4 h	4 – 8 h	8 – 24 h
Fibre schematic representation	0		0					Fully dissolved fibres
Sample		Sample 1	Sample 2	Sample 3	Sample 4	Sample 5	Sample 6	Sample 7

Figure 2. Schematic representation of stepwise dissolution Approach II and the details of its implementation to the analysis of *Tr*AA9A-treated samples.

fibrils was collected, filtered through a syringe filter, and subjected to SEC analysis. The retentate-containing fibers without the now removed outer layer were flushed with pure DMAc, carefully collected from the filter, and placed in a 15 mL vial for further dissolution. After the next addition of 1 mL of DMAc/LiCl (9% w/v), the sample was stirred for a defined period of time, after which the filtering procedure was repeated. This dissolution/filtration cycle was repeated a few times, as shown in Figure 2, to collect samples with total dissolution times of 10 min, 30 min, 1, 4, 8, and 24 h. In contrast to the first stepwise dissolution approach, the samples collected using this method contain fractions belonging to a specific time interval and, thus, a specific depth interval of the fiber.

SEC Analysis. SEC system components: G1312B HPLC pump (Agilent Technologies, Waldbronn, Germany); G1367B autosampler (Agilent Technologies, Waldbronn, Germany); TSP FL2000 fluorescence detector (excitation: 290 nm, emission: 340 nm); Wyatt Dawn DSP MALS detector with a laser diode ($\lambda = 488$ nm) (Wyatt Technology, Santa Barbara, US); Shodex RI-71 refraction index (RI) detector (Showa Denko Europe GmbH, Munich, Germany). DMAc/LiCl (0.9%, w/v), filtered through a 0.02 μ m filter, was used as the eluent. The following parameters were used in SEC: Flow: 1.00 mL/min; columns: four Agilent MIXED-ALS columns, 20 μ m, 7.5 mm \times 300 mm (Agilent Technologies, Waldbronn, Germany); Injection volume: 100 µL; Run time: 45 min. Data were evaluated with the Astra 4.73, Grams 7, Access, and OriginPro 2020 software packages. The experimental uncertainties were validated from multiple analyses (ten different batches) of untreated reference material and calculation of relative standard deviations (RSD) for M_{n} , $M_{w'}$ and $M_{z'}$; The detailed results of RSD analysis for these parameters are given in Table S1 and Figure S1. The RSD value for total carbonyl numbers (2.88%) was taken from the original paper of Röhrling et al.³

Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM). A benchtop scanning electron microscope (JEOL JCM-6000, JEOL Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) was used to investigate the fiber morphology. Fibers were fixed to the sample holder using conductive carbon stickers (Agar Scientific Ltd., Essex, UK). The samples were gold-coated in an argon atmosphere using a fine coater (JEOL JFC-1200, JEOL Ltd.). SEM micrographs were collected at various magnifications from numerous sites in each sample.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Dissolution of Cellulose Fibers. The structural integrity of cellulose, caused by a particularly strong hydrogen bond network, is one of the reasons for limited cellulose solubility in the most common solvents. In SEC analysis of cellulose, which requires the fully dissolved state, the DMAc/LiCl solvent system is one of the most used, as it dissolves celluloses of different molar masses without the need for derivatization, does not cause degradation, and results in a stable solution under ambient conditions. Moreover, the dissolution mechanism of cellulose fibers in DMAc/LiCl has been thoroughly studied,^{34,35} and changes in fiber morphology upon dissolution can be predicted depending on the pulp type.^{21,36,37} For example, it has been shown that in most pulps from annual plants, the readily accessible outer regions (i.e., fiber surface), which contain both low molar mass hemicellulose and cellulose, are dissolved first, followed by the slower dissolution of more structured cellulose layers.²¹ Cotton fiber from Whatman No. 1 filter paper, which has been used in the present study, does not contain considerable amounts of hemicelluloses.³⁸ Thus, their dissolution is primarily influenced by the cellulose fiber morphology. The gradual dissolution of cotton fibers in DMAc/LiCl was visualized using SEM (Figure 3).

The SEM images show that the dissolution starts by exfoliation of readily accessible fibrils that disappear from the fiber surface already after 10 min of dissolution. The elimination of accessible fibrils from the outer layers continues with time. As dissolution progresses, fine cracks appear on the fiber primary wall (P-layer) and further at the first layer of the secondary wall (S1-layer), facilitating penetration of the solvent. Diffusion of solvent through the cracks in the P/S1 layer opens the fiber and makes the next part of the fibril accessible for dissolution, as can be seen after 180 min of continued dissolution. This correlates with previous findings where molar mass distribution curves recorded during the



Figure 3. SEM pictures of Whatman No. 1 cotton fibers during dissolution in DMAc/LiCl (9% w/v). The pictures, taken at different time points after starting the dissolution and show the gradual elimination of fiber layers from the surface. Cracks in the fiber primary wall and at the first layer of the secondary wall (P/S1 layer) are visible within the white frames.

progressive dissolution of Whatman fibers have shown gradual solubilization of outer layers caused by progressive penetration of the solvent to the fiber core.²¹ In this work, this layer-by-layer dissolution mechanism is enhanced further by isolating the entire dissolved fraction after each dissolution step, thereby generating solubilized fractions corresponding to specific layers of the cellulose fibril. Characterization of such fractions, covering the cellulose fibril from surface to core, could potentially provide insight into how external factors, for example, the action of an enzyme such as LPMO, affect the cellulose fibril.

Comparison of Two Gradual Dissolution Approaches Using LPMO-Treated Cellulose. The initial time intervals (10 min to 4 h) applied for the dissolution of cellulose fibers were generally designed to be short enough to avoid complete fiber dissolution. In the first gradual dissolution approach (**Approach I**), the fractions collected after short dissolution times contained exclusively the outer layers of cellulosic fibers. The consecutive fractions will contain increasing amounts of material derived from layers that are further away from the fiber surface and closer to the fiber core, and comparative analysis of consecutive fractions will thus show how fiber properties change when moving from surface to core (Figure 1). To assess this method, cellulose fibers were treated with full-length TrAA9A or with a truncated variant of the LPMO lacking the CBM. The CCOA/SEC/MALS analyses of the resulting cellulose fractions, subjected to this gradual dissolution **Approach I**, are presented in Table S2.

Regarding the reference cellulose (untreated Whatman No. 1), only the shortest dissolution times yield a cellulose fraction with clearly shorter chains compared to those of the other fractions (Figure 4a). After the first 1 h of dissolution, lower molar mass material became less abundant, and the molar mass distribution in the subsequent samples (i.e., longer dissolution times) did not change significantly anymore. This indicates that a short chain fraction is present in a narrow outer layer of the untreated sample and makes up only a small part of the fiber mass, while the bulk material is rather homogeneous regarding the molar mass distribution. The molar mass distribution of the fully dissolved reference sample (after 24 h dissolution) features the narrow monomodal profile that is typical for cotton linters.

Compared to the untreated cellulose, the molar mass distributions of both LPMO-treated celluloses showed a noticeable shift toward the lower molar mass range, indicative of the expected depolymerization of cellulose upon LPMO treatment (Figure 4b,c). The outer layers were affected more severely, as the shift was more prominent for shorter dissolution times (Figure S2 shows the corresponding molar mass distributions). On average, treatment of cellulose with both TrAA9A variants, with and without CBM, resulted in a significant reduction in molar masses (M_{μ} reduction for outer fiber layers exceeded 40% from the original value; the exact molar mass values for all fiber layers are given in Table S2) and in a 20-fold increase in the total amount of carbonyls in the outer fiber layers (Table S2). A closer look at the data for all dissolution times (Table S2) showed that, as expected, the average molar mass increases while the number of carbonyl groups decreases as the dissolution progresses and inner layers are also dissolved. Interestingly, while the LPMO-treated fibers had the same total carbonyl content (see 24 h dissolution samples depicted in Figure 5b), a closer look at the other dissolution fractions showed that the outermost layer of the TrAA9A-treated fiber contained 50% more carbonyl groups as the outermost layer of the fiber treated with the truncated enzyme, TrAA9A-N (Table S2). This indicates a CBMdependent difference in fiber penetration and the mode of



Figure 4. Molar mass distribution of LPMO-treated Whatman No. 1 fibers subjected to sequential dissolution in **Approach I**. The graphs show data for fibers solubilized after 10 min to 24 h of dissolution for untreated cellulose (a), cellulose treated with full-length *Tr*AA9A (b), and cellulose treated with truncated *Tr*AA9A-N (c). The dashed line in panels b and c equals the 24 h curve in panel (a). The LPMO reactions contained 500 mg of fibers, 0.064 μ mol of LPMO per 1 g of dry fiber, and 1 mM GA in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.0, in 20 mL of liquid volume and were incubated for 6 h at 45 °C. Note that the molar mass distributions are normalized to the same peak area and do not reflect the exact amount of material in each fraction.



Figure 5. Properties of fibers dissolved with **Approach I**, after 24 h of dissolution. The graphs show the calculated statistical moments M_n (a), M_w (b), and M_z (c) including experimental uncertainties for fibers generated in the reactions depicted in Figure 4, after dissolving these fibers for 24 h in **Approach I**. Validation data for experimental uncertainties are available in Table S1 and Figure S1. The middle graph additionally presents the carbonyl content (red dots) after dissolving the fibers for 24 h in **Approach I**, utilizing an RSD of 2.88% for C=O values based on Röhrling et al.³³ The analyzed fractions contained both the outer and inner fiber layers. The graphs show an overall decrease of (a) M_n (b) M_w and (c) M_z for the fibers treated with *Tr*AA9A and *Tr*AA9A-N compared to the nontreated material. Data for all dissolution times are listed in Table S2.



Figure 6. Molar mass distribution of LPMO-treated Whatman No. 1 fibers subjected to sequential dissolution of **Approach II**. The graphs show data for fibers solubilized after 10 min to 24 h of dissolution for untreated cellulose (a), cellulose treated with full-length *Tr*AA9A (b), and cellulose treated with truncated *Tr*AA9A-N (c). The dashed line in panels b and c equals the 24 h curve in panel (a). The LPMO reactions contained 500 mg of fibers, 0.064 μ mol of LPMO per 1 g of dry fiber, and 1 mM GA in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.0, in 20 mL liquid volume; and were incubated for 6 h at 45 °C. Note that the molar mass distributions are normalized to the same peak area and do not reflect the exact amount of material in each fraction.



Figure 7. Properties of fibers dissolved with **Approach II**, after 24 h of dissolution. The graphs show the calculated statistical moments M_n (a), M_w (b), and M_z (c) including experimental uncertainties for fibers generated in the reactions depicted in Figure 6, after dissolving these fibers for 24 h in **Approach II**. Validation data for experimental uncertainties are available in Table S1 and Figure S1. The middle graph additionally presents the carbonyl content (red dots) after dissolving the fibers for 24 h in **Approach II**, utilizing an RSD of 2.88% for C=O values based on Röhrling et al.³³ The analyzed fractions exclusively contained inner fiber layers. The graphs show an overall decrease of (a) M_n , (b) M_w , and (c) M_z for the fibers treated with *Tr*AA9A and *Tr*AA9A-N compared to the nontreated material. Data for all dissolution times are listed in Table S3.

action of the LPMO. For example, this may suggest higher activity of *Tr*AA9A at the fiber surface while a greater tendency of *Tr*AA9A-N to penetrate deeper into the fiber core, as discussed in more detail in the next section.

The second dissolution approach (**Approach II**) is based on the complete isolation of the dissolved fraction from the nondissolved fibers after each dissolution period. Thus, **Approach II** allows for the characterization of distinct cellulose layers that are free from the (previously dissolved and removed) outer layers and from the not-yet-dissolved inner layers of the fibers (Figure 2). Although this approach is more tedious and time-consuming, it may provide additional information, for example, when evaluating the impact of an enzymatic treatment.

Similarly to the stepwise dissolution with **Approach I**, the dissolution with filtration (**Approach II**) illustrates the presence of short-chain cellulosic molecules in the thin outermost fiber layer of untreated Whatman No. 1 fibers

(Figure 6a). Subsequent samples corresponding to more inward layers of the cellulose yielded similar molar mass distribution profiles after 1-24 h, indicating a uniform molar mass distribution within the fibers. On the other hand, LPMO treatment of the cellulose led to a clear reduction in molar masses in fractions recovered after up to 4 h of dissolution with both TrAA9A variants (Figure 6 b,c; Table S3) and to a prominent increase in the total number of carbonyl groups in nearly all fiber fractions (Table S3). As expected and as also shown by the results obtained with Approach I (Table S2), the outermost fiber layers were more affected than the underlying layers. In contrast to Approach I, the 24 h dissolution fraction for Approach II would contain only inner layers that are less likely to have been affected by the enzyme treatment. Accordingly, calculations of statistical moments for the 24 h fraction obtained with Approach II, showed no or only very minor effects of the enzyme treatment (Figure 7; note the contrast with Figure 5).

Importantly, the removal of the most affected outer fractions before further dissolution (**Approach II**) allowed us to observe a subtle enzyme-dependent variation in the innermost layers of the fiber. A slight decrease in molar mass data (M_n decreased from 221.7 to 207.5 kDa) and an overall increase in carbonyl groups (from 0.28 to 0.46 μ mol/g) were only visible for the fibers treated with *Tr*AA9A-N (Figure 7), suggesting that this CBM-free enzyme was able to penetrate deeper toward the fiber core than the nontruncated *Tr*AA9A enzyme. Additional data show a similar trend for the other "late" dissolution times (4, 8 h; Table S3).

Comparing the two stepwise dissolution approaches, the less tedious Approach I can satisfactorily address the changes in molar mass and in total carbonyl content for the bulk sample and also provides insight how these parameters differ between the fiber surface and the fiber core. Collecting just two samples-at an early dissolution time point, corresponding to the outmost layers exclusively (i), and after completely dissolving the cellulose fibers, corresponding to the bulk sample including all fiber layers (ii)-would already provide valuable additional information on the fiber structure, compared to conventional single-step dissolution. In cases where higher resolution is desirable, for example, when assessing enzyme penetration into the fiber, Approach II is more suitable as it can reveal subtle changes in molar mass parameters for each fiber layer. Moreover, Approach II provides a detailed distribution of functional groups along the fiber cross-section. Whether these methods can provide the same level of information in the cross-sectional analysis of man-made fibers remains to be demonstrated, as the structure of rayon or lyocell fibers is very different from that of cotton. Nevertheless, both stepwise dissolution approaches should be capable of assessing basic surface-to-bulk differences in manmade fibers as well.

Influence of the CBM on LPMO Action. The impact of CBMs on cellulose depolymerization has been studied extensively for cellulases, whereas less research has been done for LPMOs, as reviewed recently by Østby et al.³⁹ It is universally acknowledged that CBMs enhance an enzyme's binding affinity toward the substrate, and this has been shown convincingly several times for LPMOs as well.^{9,11,12} Some studies suggest that CBMs in cellulases may play a role in the amorphization of cellulose via the nonhydrolytic disruption of the hydrogen bonding in the crystalline areas.^{40–42} Such effects have not been described for CBMs appended to LPMOs and

our present data, showing that the CBM containing LPMO penetrates less deeply into the fiber seem not compatible with a substrate-disrupting effect of the CBM. Regarding the catalytic performance of LPMOs, including oxidative regiose-lectivity, turnover rates, and redox stability, the impact of CBM1 is also not clear. This is due to a multitude of interwoven factors¹³ including (i) By affecting substrate affinity, the CBM also affects the resistance of the LPMO toward autocatalytic inactivation; (ii) In most studies, only soluble LPMO products are analyzed, whereas major, and potentially varying fraction, of oxidized sites (i.e., LPMO products) remains attached to the insoluble fiber.

Since it is generally not possible to unravel all these factors and since researchers perform their experiments in different ways, existing data for the impact of CBMs on LPMO action do not provide a clear and consistent picture. As an example, Chalak et al. reported an increase in the solubilization of C1oxidized products for the CBM-free variant of C1/C4oxidizing PaLPMO9H from Podospora anserina, indicating an apparent change in regioselectivity after deleting the CBM.¹² However, such a change in regioselectivity has not been reported for C1/C4-oxidizing TrAA9A (also called *Hj*LPMO9A),¹⁰ a C1/C4-oxidizing bacterial LPMO,⁴³ nor strictly C1- or C4-oxidizing LPMOs.^{9,11} As another example, several studies have reported that LPMO efficiency decreases after removal of the CBM,44-46 based on the detection of soluble oxidized products only and partly neglecting possible variation in LPMO autoinactivation. A more extended study by Courtade et al., who analyzed LPMO products in the soluble and insoluble fractions, has demonstrated that, similarly to cellulases,47 the impact of a CBM on the performance of LPMOs depends very much on the substrate concentration.¹¹ Courtade et al. showed that the substrate concentration affects the CBM's impact on overall substrate conversion, the ratio between soluble and insoluble oxidized products, and the resistance of the enzyme against oxidative damage, underpinning the complexity of the matter. In another study, Koskela et al. have shown that the naturally CBM-free NcLPMO9F generates more carboxyl groups on the fibers and less solubilized oligosaccharides than CBM-containing NcLPMO9E from N. crassa,48 much in line with the findings of Courtade et al.¹¹ Both studies conclude that the anchoring of the LPMO to the substrate by a CBM leads to more localized oxidation (i.e., more cuts in the same region), increasing the chances of the same chain being cleaved twice, which is what is needed to release a soluble (= short) product. On the other hand, a CBM-free LPMO would cleave more randomly since it moves freely along the surface in between catalytic events. This conclusion is supported by a recent study that visualized oxidations on the fiber surface.49

The present results provide further insight into these matters. Analysis of fiber layers recovered by stepwise dissolution analysis consistently showed that fiber treatment with TrAA9A (containing a CBM) leads to a more pronounced reduction in the M_n value than treatment with TrAA9A-N without a CBM (Tables S1 and S2, Figure 5). On the other hand, TrAA9A-N (lacking a CBM) reduced M_w and M_z to the same, or sometimes even higher extent compared to the full-length enzyme (Tables S1 and S2, Figure 5). The lower M_n value and higher M_w and M_z values for the fiber fractions obtained with the CBM-carrying LPMO variant are compatible with a mode of action in which multiple oxidations happen close to each other on the fiber surface, leading to the

production of relatively large amounts of water-soluble oligomeric fragments. Indeed, analysis of the soluble oxidized products showed that these were more abundantly produced by full-length *Tr*AA9A (Figure 8). Random cleavages at different positions on the surface affect predominantly the M_w and M_z values, as seen for the CBM-free variant.



Figure 8. Generation of soluble oxidized products upon degradation of Whatman No. 1 fibers with full-length or truncated *Tr*AA9A. The LPMO reactions contained 500 mg of fibers, 0.064 μ mol of LPMO per 1 g of dry fiber, and 1 mM GA in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.0, in 20 mL liquid volume and were incubated for 6 h at 45 °C. Both C1- and C4-oxidized products were quantified after first reducing the complexity of the product mixture by treatment with a cellulase, as described in the Materials and Methods section.

Considering the ability of the LPMO variants to penetrate cellulose fibers and the extent of penetration, CBM-free LPMO variants are expected to be more capable of penetrating the fiber, because of their smaller size and higher mobility due to the lack of CBM-assisted substrate binding. The results obtained with **Approach II** (Figure 7, and Table S3) show that this indeed is the case: the statistical moments and carbonyl contents of the deeper fiber layers, i.e., samples after

4, 8, or 24 h dissolution consistently show that the material treated with TrAA9A-N has a lower average mass and higher carbonyl content compared to the material treated with the full-length TrAA9A. Apparently, the CBM-free variant was able to reach the fiber core through the cracks in the outer fiber layer, although its overall impact on the fiber interior remained low.

To obtain additional insight into these CBM effects and to further validate the newly developed sequential dissolution methods, Whatman No. 1 fibers were treated with C4oxidizing NcAA9C and its truncated, CBM-free variant, NcAA9C-N. The 24 h dissolution samples (Figure 9), show the same trends as seen with TrAA9A (Figures 5 and 7): the truncated enzyme has a bigger effect on the inner layers of the fiber, with a relatively higher reduction in molar mass and higher insertion of carbonyl groups. Figure 9 also nicely illustrates a key difference between the two sample dissolution approaches: Approach I yields similar carbonyl contents for the two LPMO treatments in the 24 h dissolution sample, which is not surprising since with this method the 24 h dissolution sample contains all fibers (Figure 9a). On the other hand, Approach II shows a distinct difference in the carbonyl content of the innermost layer for the two LPMO forms, underpinning the different mechanisms of action of the two NcAA9C variants (Figure 9b). Taken together, the data for TrAA9A and NcAA9C show that the CBM-free LPMO has a stronger effect on the deeper layers of the cellulose fiber.

CONCLUSIONS

Evaluating how enzymatic or chemical treatments affect fiber structure and whether these changes are limited to the surface or impact the entire fiber is crucial for assessing treatment efficiency and the extent of modification in cellulose engineering. In this study, we compared two stepwise dissolution approaches that enabled us to assess modifications throughout the entire depth of the cellulose fiber. The first approach (**Approach I**), which does not require sample filtration and thus is easier to implement, addresses the changes in molar mass distribution and total carbonyl content between the outer



Figure 9. Changes in Whatman No. 1 fibers upon treatment with *Nc*AA9C or *Nc*AA9C–N. The figure shows the calculated average molar masses and carbonyl content including experimental uncertainties for the last sample (24 h) obtained after gradual dissolution, using (a) **Approach I** or (b) **Approach II**. When using these approaches, the 24 h dissolution samples represent the bulk material, including all fiber layers and the innermost fiber core fraction, respectively. The LPMO reactions contained 50 mg of fibers, 0.05 μ mol of LPMO per 1 g of dry fiber, and 1 mM GA in 50 mM Bis-Tris/HCl buffer, pH 6.5, in 5 mL liquid volume and were incubated for 24 h at 30 °C. Estimations of experimental uncertainties are provided in Table S1 and Figure S1.

fiber layer(s) and the bulk material. The second approach (**Approach II**), although more tedious and time-consuming due to the separation of the dissolved fractions by filtration after each dissolution step, provides better insight into the characteristics of a few distinct fiber layers including the distribution of functional groups and changes in molar mass parameters along the cross-section.

Here, we demonstrate the applicability of these stepwise dissolution methods for analyzing Whatman No. 1 cellulose with LPMO enzymes. The stepwise dissolution approach revealed the depth of enzymatic activity within the fibers and highlighted the different mechanisms at play for CBM-carrying and CBM-free LPMOs. Furthermore, our findings underscore the significance of characterizing cellulose properties in conjunction with the detection of soluble products to estimate the efficiency of LPMOs. Importantly, the cross-sectional fiber analyses established here are not limited to a specific fiber type or to enzyme-driven modifications and will be expanded for examining other fiber modifications, where spatial resolution is a key factor in future research.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.biomac.4c00152.

Calculation and statistical evaluation of experimental uncertainties for molar mass parameters determined by size exclusion chromatography; calculated statistical moments for Whatman No. 1 fibers before and after treatment with *Tr*AA9A (with CBM) and *Tr*AA9A-N (without CBM) obtained using stepwise dissolution with **Approach I** and **Approach II**; molar mass distribution of outer layers of Whatman No. 1 fibers solubilized after 10 min of dissolution before and after treatment with *Tr*AA9A (with CBM) and *Tr*AA9A-N (without CBM), showing degradation of the outer fiber layers after enzymatic treatment (PDF)

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Notes

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