

Cellulose factories: advancing bioenergy production from forest trees

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Summary

Fast-growing, short-rotation forest trees such as *Populus* and *Eucalyptus* produce large amounts of cellulose-rich biomass that could be utilized for bioenergy and biopolymer production. Major obstacles need to be overcome prior to deploying these genera as energy crops, including the effective removal of lignin and subsequent liberation of carbohydrate constituents from wood cell walls. However, significant opportunities exist to both select for and engineer the structure and interaction of cell wall biopolymers, which could afford a means to improve processing and product development. The molecular underpinnings and regulation of cell wall carbohydrate biosynthesis are rapidly being elucidated, and are providing tools to strategically develop and guide the targeted modification required to adapt forest trees for the emerging bioeconomy. Much insight has already been gained from the perturbation of individual genes and pathways, but it is not known to what extent natural variation in the sequence and expression of these same genes underlie the inherent variation in wood properties of field-grown trees. Integration of data from next-generation genomic technologies applied in natural and experimental populations will enable a systems genetics approach to study cell wall carbohydrate production in trees, and should advance the development of future woody bioenergy and biopolymer crops.

Keywords: cellulose, hemicellulose, sucrose, bioenergy, *Eucalyptus*, *Populus*, systems genetics

Introduction

With the growing need for alternative sources of energy and raw materials, fast-growing plantation tree species such as *Populus* and *Eucalyptus* are important candidates for renewable sources of lignocellulosic biomass (for recent reviews on the feasibility of bioenergy production from wood biomass refer to Carroll & Somerville, 2009; Hinchee *et al.*, 2009; Mansfield, 2009; Richard, 2010; Somerville *et al.*, 2010; Séguin, 2011). These two genera, broadly representing the Northern and Southern hemisphere, respectively, produce large amounts of woody biomass (>50 m³/ha/year for eucalypts in highly productive areas such as Brazil) in relatively short rotation times, and in general, do not infringe on land dedicated to food crop production. In addition, contrary to agriculture-derived biomass, tree-derived lignocellulosics can be harvested year-round to ensure a stable, predictable and constant supply of raw material for bioenergy or biofuel production. Establishment costs and carbon footprints of multiyear forest plantations are also lower than that of annually planted crops, especially for coppicing eucalypt species, which can be grown on marginal lands (Hinchee *et al.*, 2009). Well-established industrial breeding programmes already exploit the substantial inherent genetic variation available in these genera, which can be (and has been) expanded with interspecific hybridization, and ultimately captured in clonal plantations (Grattapaglia *et al.*, 2009). The processing of wood fibre, and especially cellulose, from woody biomass has been improved and optimized for decades providing a technology base from which to develop processing plants for biofuels and biomaterials. One major consideration that is often overlooked when forecasting bioenergy feedstocks is that this bioenergy end-use will have to compete with the high value products derived from chemical cellulose and its derivatives (Figure 1), and the desired traits for many bioenergy applications are common to those desired for chemical cellulose production. Thus, the

objective of improving feedstock characteristics in trees is complementary to current tree breeding programs directed at traditional forest-reliant industries.

Cellulose-rich biomass derived from fast-growing tree species offers many advantages over agricultural feedstocks for bioenergy production, but the removal of lignin to facilitate the effective and efficient extraction of cell wall carbohydrates remains one of the primary hurdles (Studer *et al.*, 2011). To efficiently deconstruct lignocellulosic biomass, a detailed understanding of how wood cell walls are synthesized, deposited and modified *in planta* is required (Mansfield, 2009). Recent research has mainly focused on the modification of lignin, the most abundant natural biopolymer after cellulose (Vanholme *et al.*, 2008), but much remains to be learned about the possibilities for modifying and regulating the synthesis of cellulose, ultimately impacting the overall chemistry and ultrastructure of wood cell walls. While major advances have been made in understanding the biosynthesis of cellulose itself (Joshi & Mansfield, 2007), the underlying cellular and biochemical processes that influence cellulose properties in wood cell walls have not yet been fully dissected.

Most of our current knowledge of cellulose biosynthesis stems from studies in model herbaceous plants such as *Arabidopsis thaliana* and to some extent, extension of this knowledge to woody plant genera such as *Populus* (Joshi *et al.*, 2011). The poplar genome sequence (Tuskan *et al.*, 2006) has been available for five years, and as of 2011, the genome sequence of *Eucalyptus grandis* (Myburg *et al.*, in preparation) is also publically available (<http://www.phytozome.net>). These two landmark achievements open up new avenues for exploiting genetic variation in forest trees, and strategically improving the physicochemical properties of woody biomass. The availability of a genome sequence is particularly important for *Eucalyptus*, the most widely grown hardwood crop in the world (~ 20 million ha). With advances in next generation sequencing technologies, comparative genomics can now be applied to rapidly adopt the information learned from herbaceous models and other woody

plants such as poplars to accelerate *Eucalyptus* improvement. However, with so many candidate genes known to influence xylogenesis, how does one prioritize targets when considering forest trees as bioenergy crops? How can one expand the fundamental understanding of the biology and biosynthesis of cellulose and its interaction with other wood cell wall polymers?

Here, we provide a current summary of the general understanding of the molecular biology of cellulose production in plants and discuss how the integration of emerging functional genomics technologies with the wealth of fundamental information on wood properties in tree breeding programmes, could be used to accelerate the improvement of cellulose and bioenergy potential in trees.

An integrated view of proteins involved in cellulose biosynthesis and deposition

Historically, the biosynthesis of cellulose has focussed on the plasma membrane-located cellulose synthase (CESA) proteins that constitute the active synthesising complex (CSC; cellulose synthase complex), which is ultimately responsible for producing the polymeric glucan chains that coalesce to form cellulose microfibrils in primary and secondary cell walls of plants (Delmer, 1999; Doblin *et al.*, 2002; Saxena & Brown Jr, 2005; Somerville, 2006; Bessueille & Bulone, 2008; Taylor, 2008; Guerriero *et al.*, 2010). Building on these solid foundations, our current understanding requires an integrated view that incorporates a diverse set of proteins and regulatory mechanisms to fully understand this intricate biological process. Such a view should take into consideration the variety of cellular processes and metabolic fluxes that could, and do, influence the synthesis, deposition and physical properties of cellulose in the two distinctly different cell walls. This holistic view should also

include the inherent and tightly regulated interactions of cellulose with other cell wall biopolymers, such as lignin and hemicellulose. For example, the biosynthesis and deposition of xylan, a major constituent of the dicot secondary cell wall (Scheller & Ulvskov, 2010) is closely coordinated with the deposition of cellulose (Hertzberg *et al.*, 2001; Schrader *et al.*, 2004). Thus, to advance our fundamental understanding, and further the biotechnological objectives of improving cellulose-rich resources, research areas to be explored should focus on the transcriptional regulation of xylem forming genes; as well as post-translational modification, protein folding and protein-complex assembly; substrate (metabolite) production, transport and availability; the transport of proteins and/or polysaccharides between organelles and to the plasma membrane; and, signalling and feedback between the extracellular environment and the cytoplasm, organelles and nucleus.

Using *Arabidopsis* as the primary model, the current architecture of proteins and cellular processes thought to be involved in, or influence the biosynthesis and deposition of cellulose and xylan is illustrated in Figure 2. At the level of transcriptional regulation, several transcription factors have been shown to directly regulate secondary cell wall *CesA* genes in *Arabidopsis* (Zhong *et al.*, 2008; Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2010; Xie *et al.*, 2011). Three of these - SND2, SND3 and MYB103 - appear to specifically regulate secondary cell wall *CesA* genes but not xylan or lignin genes (Zhong *et al.*, 2008). These transcription factors are part of a complex transcriptional network regulating various aspects of xylogenesis, the extent of which is still being resolved in *Arabidopsis* (Kubo *et al.*, 2005; Zhong *et al.*, 2006; Demura & Fukuda, 2007; Zhong *et al.*, 2007; Zhong *et al.*, 2008), as well as more recently in *Populus* (McCarthy *et al.*, 2010; Zhong *et al.*, 2010; Zhong & Ye, 2010; Zhong *et al.*, 2011).

CESA proteins are synthesized and assembled into complexes in the ER (Rudolph, 1987) and, with the help of chaperones, packaged and delivered to the Golgi (Haigler & Brown Jr, 1986). The Golgi (Figure 2) is also the site for xylan biosynthesis (Bolwell & Northcote,

1983), which can be divided, simplistically, into primer synthesis (PARVUS), chain elongation (IRX9, 10 and 14) and side chain modifications by IRX7, IRX8, PGSIP1, DUF579- and/or DUF231-containing proteins (Brown *et al.*, 2007; Lee *et al.*, 2007; York & O'Neill, 2008; Brown *et al.*, 2009; Wu *et al.*, 2009; Wu *et al.*, 2010; Brown *et al.*, 2011; Jensen *et al.*, 2011). Once the cellulose synthase complexes (CSCs) are assembled, they are transported from the Golgi to the plasma membrane via the trans-Golgi network in specialized microtubule-associated compartments (MASCs; Crowell *et al.*, 2009) that interact with actin through MYOSIN (Wightman & Turner, 2008; Szymanski, 2009). At the plasma membrane, MASCs interact with cortical microtubules, possibly but not conclusively via KINESIN, and bud vesicles containing CSCs that fuse with and become embedded in the plasma membrane (Giddings Jr *et al.*, 1980; Szymanski, 2009; Crowell *et al.*, 2010).

On the cytoplasmic face (Figure 2), the CSCs associate with cortical microtubules, putatively through kinesin-like proteins such as FRA1 (Zhong *et al.*, 2002), CSI1 (Gu *et al.*, 2010), and other microtubule associated proteins (MAPs). It is therefore apparent that cortical microtubule organization is extremely important in regulating and depositing cellulose, and the structure and orientation of said cortical microtubules is influenced by a variety of factors. From the assembly of α - and β -TUB at microtubule assembly sites containing γ -TUB and Gamma-complex proteins (Pastuglia & Bouchez, 2007; Cai, 2010), growth and modification of the microtubules is influenced by strong association with actin via KCH and MAP190 (Cai, 2010), association with other microtubules via MAP65-1, MAP 200, TBMP 200 and/or MOR1 (Cai, 2010), and association with the plasma membrane via proteins such as EB1 (Morrison, 2007), P-161 (Cai *et al.*, 2005), ATK5 (Ambrose & Cyr, 2007; Pastuglia & Bouchez, 2007), SPR1 (Nakajima *et al.*, 2004; Sedbrook *et al.*, 2004; Nakajima *et al.*, 2006), CLIPs and CLASPs (Galjart, 2005; Ambrose & Wasteneys, 2008), and PHOSPHOLIPASE-D (Cai, 2010). Microtubule length and organization is also modified by KATANIN (McNally

& Vale, 1993; Burk *et al.*, 2001; Stoppin-Mellet *et al.*, 2006; Sharma *et al.*, 2007), and therefore can impact the quality and quantity of cellulose. Transamination, tyrosylation or acetylation of microtubules can influence the binding of KINESIN proteins, while glutamination or glycylation of microtubules has been shown to influence KATANIN activity (Cai, 2010). These, and other as yet unidentified proteins, could all potentially have direct or indirect effects on cellulose deposition, via their influence on cortical microtubule dynamics.

Movement of the CSC along the membrane is believed to be driven by the force of cellulose microfibril synthesis itself against the cell wall matrix (Diotallevi & Mulder, 2007), and is guided by the cortical microtubules (Paredes *et al.*, 2006), with membrane-associated sucrose synthase (SUSY) providing UDP-glucose as substrate for the CSC (Figure 2). Towards the cell wall side, KORRIGAN (KOR - Lane *et al.*, 2001) and possibly other glycosyl hydrolases edit elongating cellulose chains as they are synthesized, while COBRA/COBL and possibly other GPI-anchored proteins, as well as the fasciclin-like arabinogalactan (FLA) proteins and/or other arabinogalactan proteins (AGPs) are thought to interact with cellulose as it is deposited, and concurrently relay signals back to the cytoplasm to regulate its synthesis (Zhang *et al.*, 2003; Seifert & Roberts, 2007; MacMillan *et al.*, 2010).

The mediation of cell wall feedback signalling is carried out by a number of pathways, and recently the Rop/Rac GTPases (Figure 2), which are regulated by RIC and Rop-GEF, have been highlighted as playing an important role in cell wall signalling, along with IQD and CTL proteins, and wall-associated kinases (WAKs) such as LRR-receptor kinases (Oikawa *et al.*, 2010). The LRR-receptor kinases include, amongst others, THESEUS (Hématy *et al.*, 2007) and KOBITO/ELD1 (Pagant *et al.*, 2002; Lertpiriyapong & Sung, 2003) both of which have been shown to impact cell wall properties. In the secondary cell wall, laccases (LAC) and other peroxidases oxidize monolignols, leading to the random coupling of lignin monomers and resulting in the synthesis of the macromolecule lignin polymer (Boerjan *et al.*,

2003; Ralph *et al.*, 2004; Mattinen *et al.*, 2008), while other as yet unidentified glycosyl hydrolases (GH) and carbohydrate binding module (CBM)-containing proteins appear to be involved in mediating cellulose-cellulose, cellulose-xylan, xylan-xylan or xylan-lignin interactions as the different biopolymers are synthesized, deposited and arranged.

In addition to the cellular processes and specific proteins involved in cellulose deposition itself, it is important to consider the metabolic flux and channelling to the various biochemical pathways that lead to the synthesis of cellulose and xylan. For example, a key metabolite is uridine diphosphate- (UDP)-glucose, which is the immediate pre-cursor for cellulose biosynthesis by CESA proteins. In addition, UDP-glucose can be readily converted to UDP-xylose for xylan biosynthesis (Figure 3). UDP-glucose is produced directly via the hydrolysis of sucrose by sucrose SUSY or indirectly by invertase (Barratt *et al.*, 2009; Kleczkowski *et al.*, 2010), which cleaves sucrose to monomeric glucose and fructose. Monomeric glucose is then converted to UDP-glucose via phosphorylation of the 6' position (HEXOKINASE/GLUCOKINASE), followed by the substitution of the phosphate to the 1' position (PHOSPHOGLUCOMUTASE) and the subsequent substitution of the phosphate group with UDP by UTP-glucose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase (UGP). UDP-glucose can be directly employed by CESA proteins for cellulose biosynthesis, or converted to UDP-xylose via conversion to UDP-D-glucuronate by UDP-glucose 6-dehydrogenase (UGHD), followed by the removal of CO₂ by uridine-diphosphoglucuronate decarboxylase (UXS). UDP-xylose is then utilized as the backbone for xylan biosynthesis, with the addition of glucuronic acid (GlcA) and acetyl groups to the backbone or side chains to form heteroxylan.

Studies have shown that alteration in the metabolic flux of UDP-glucose can indeed affect the relative abundance and structure of cell wall polysaccharides. For example, upregulation of *SUSY* in poplar trees resulted in an increase in cell wall thickness of fibres, and production of more cellulose that displayed enhanced crystallinity (Coleman *et al.*, 2009). The combination

of *SUSY* and *UGP* overexpression in tobacco also resulted in a synergistic increase in plant height and biomass (Coleman *et al.*, 2006). It should be noted that the overall phenotypic effect of increased *SUSY* or *UGP* levels would be dependent on source and sink sugars and other metabolites (Haigler *et al.*, 2001; Coleman *et al.*, 2009; Meng *et al.*, 2009), which will vary in different plant species, and under an array of physiological conditions. These studies demonstrate that changes in metabolite levels, through intra and inter-cellular transport or enzymatic activity, could greatly influence the resulting abundance and/or structure of cell wall polysaccharides.

Towards systems genetics of cellulose production in trees

The scale of cellulose biosynthesis and biomass production in fast-growing plantation trees is vastly different from that in herbaceous models. There is an emphasis on large-scale cambial cell differentiation, cell elongation, secondary cell wall deposition and programmed cell death. The tremendous strength of the sink tissue means that the tree as a system must prioritize channelling carbon flow towards the synthesis of xylem biopolymers. Therefore, information cannot always be directly extended from herbaceous models to trees - good examples of this are the different outcomes that resulted from overexpressing *SUSY* in tobacco plants (Coleman *et al.*, 2006) as opposed to poplar (Coleman *et al.*, 2009), or the fact that for *Arabidopsis*, *INVERTASE* is necessary and sufficient for normal growth whereas direct UDP-glucose production through *SUSY* is not (Barratt *et al.*, 2009). Recent findings also suggest that the transcriptional network regulating cell wall biopolymer synthesis in woody plants may be more complex and comprise novel transcription factors not previously linked to secondary cell wall formation in *Arabidopsis* (Zhong *et al.*, 2011). This implies the need to independently study the functions of secondary cell wall related genes in trees. Some practical considerations are that very few commercial species and clonal genotypes have

optimized transformation protocols; mature wood properties take several years to acquire; and wood properties are complex traits affected by large numbers of genes. Rigorous greenhouse studies and field trials are required for each candidate, and these carry significant economical, ecological and regulatory burdens (for recent reviews on this issue see Ahuja, 2011; Harfouche *et al.*, 2011; Strauss *et al.*, 2009). What is required is an approach that would prioritize genes or pathways that underlie variation in wood properties in mature, field grown trees.

At our disposal is a rich history of tree breeding, resulting in large, structured populations, and large amounts of genetic diversity in these populations (Sederoff *et al.*, 2009; Neale & Kremer, 2011). These resources have been exploited through the application of molecular marker technologies and forward genetics approaches in multiple forest tree pedigrees where high linkage disequilibrium (LD) has allowed the efficient identification of quantitative trait loci (QTL -Grattapaglia & Kirst, 2008), as well as in large association populations where low LD has allowed the association of single genes with wood properties (Groover, 2007; Neale & Ingvarsson, 2008). Single gene associations detected in *Eucalyptus* and *Populus* (Thumma *et al.*, 2005; Thumma *et al.*, 2009; Wegrzyn *et al.*, 2010) have not always been intuitive - for example the association between a lignin gene (*cinnamoyl CoA reductase*, *CCR*) and a physical cellulose property (microfibril angle) in *Eucalyptus* (Thumma *et al.*, 2005). This illustrates that our understanding of the causal relationship of genes and complex traits is still incomplete.

Phenotypic variation in tree breeding populations is influenced by a variety of intrinsic (and measurable) biological processes, mainly those of transcriptional and translational regulation of various biochemical pathways (Du & Groover, 2010), as well as the flux of metabolic intermediates in these pathways (Mansfield, 2009). In addition, these biological processes are strongly impacted by environmental cues and seasonal variation over the lifetime of these

long-lived organisms (Groover, 2007). A more holistic research approach encompassing genetic, biochemical and environmental variation must therefore be adopted to understand and improve wood property traits in trees.

Systems genetics (Figure 4) connects the intermediate components of a complex phenotype (e.g. transcript, protein and metabolite levels) in related individuals to measurable phenotypic traits such as wood properties or bioenergy potential, in the context of the underlying genetic variation in populations (MacKay *et al.*, 2009; Nadeau & Dudley, 2011). An extension of genetical genomics (Jansen & Nap, 2001), systems genetics is a network approach that explores the interconnectedness of the component levels of biological variation. It has been successfully applied in model organisms such as *Drosophila* (Ayroles *et al.*, 2009; Morozova *et al.*, 2009; Jumbo-Lucioni *et al.*, 2010) and mouse (Farber *et al.*, 2011). It has also been applied in humans (Plaisier *et al.*, 2009; Romanoski *et al.*, 2010), and importantly in animal breeding (Kadarmideen *et al.*, 2006; Kadarmideen & Janss, 2007; Kadarmideen & Janss, 2009), which has many similarities to plant breeding. The power of systems genetics is that it reveals emergent properties of the system, providing insight into novel gene-gene, gene-trait and trait-trait relationships that would not be detected at the level of the individual. This often allows reconstruction of complex directional gene regulatory networks and metabolic pathways (Kadarmideen *et al.*, 2006; Keurentjes *et al.*, 2007), adding insight to previously identified single gene associations and the molecular basis of QTLs. Systems genetics could also explain the biology underlying complex phenomena such as $G \times E$ interactions, epigenetic control, biotic and abiotic interactions and hybrid vigour (heterosis), which are key themes to be addressed in tree improvement in the near future.

Tree breeding programmes already make use of structured pedigrees and populations replicated across environments, and therefore present an ideal starting place for systems

genetics. Variation in transcriptomes have already been studied at the population level in *Eucalyptus* (Kirst *et al.*, 2005; Grattapaglia & Kirst, 2008) and *Populus* (Drost *et al.*, 2010). Transcriptome, proteome and metabolome profiling at the population level will allow integrated modelling of biomass production in trees. Systems genetics is complementary to fundamental biological investigations performed in model organisms and will also complement association genetics approaches and genomic selection strategies that are being implemented in forest tree breeding programs (Grattapaglia & Resende, 2011). Moreover, systems genetics will allow the identification and prioritization of candidate genes for functional genetic testing in greenhouse and field trials of forest trees.

Conclusion

Understanding how cellulose is deposited during xylogenesis in wood fibre cells has important implications for our ability to manipulate and select for bioenergy traits in trees. We also need to understand the complex genetic relationships and biochemical interactions that underlie wood property variation in tree populations. Application of next-generation DNA and RNA sequencing (Mizrachi *et al.*, 2010), and the adoption of high throughput proteomics and metabolomics technologies in trees (Abril *et al.*, 2011; Dauwe *et al.*, 2011; Robinson and Mansfield, 2011) will allow integrated approaches to study complex relationships of genes, metabolites and wood (bio)chemistry traits at the population level. A systems genetics approach, which also includes the measurement of bioenergy potential, is a viable and increasingly cost effective method to dissect complex phenotypes in trees and will complement genomic selection efforts. It will also permit one to address the fundamental question whether the same genes linked to cell wall biosynthesis by functional genetic studies in individual genotypes are also influencing cell wall properties in natural or experimental populations. Additionally, the diversity of applications of next-generation DNA sequencing

will enable investigation of other types of regulation such as allele-specific expression, splice site variation, gene regulation by endogenous small RNAs, or epigenetic modification that may impact the bioenergy potential of forest trees. Finally, the completion of additional tree genome sequences will permit comparative genomics approaches to dissect vital biosynthetic pathways important to industrial trait development, which should form the foundations of the emerging bio-based economy.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Examples of the diversity of currently produced, high-value derivatives of wood-derived cellulose. The structure of the repeating unit of cellulose - cellobiose - is shown in the middle, with a "head-to-tail" arrangement of two glucose molecules bound via beta 1—4 linkage. The side-chain substitution of the hydroxyl groups from C₂, C₃ and/or C₆ (highlighted in red) result in the production of a variety of unique physicochemical derivatives, all of which comprise diverse industrial and commercial products (top). Pure crystalline cellulose can also be broken up into microcrystalline cellulose (bottom) by chemical disruption of the non-crystalline regions, or alternatively the entire polymer can be separated into nanocellulose crystals.

Figure 2. An integrated view of currently known proteins and some cellular processes involved in cellulose and xylan biosynthesis. Proteins are indicated as coloured circles in the cell areas they are associated with, and classes of proteins are coloured as indicated by the legend on the bottom left. Note that proximity of proteins in the figure does not imply interaction. Actin (blue beads) and microtubules (red and orange tubes) are also shown. References for the inclusion of specific proteins and full protein names can be found in the text.

Figure 3. Metabolic pathways and processes leading to cellulose and xylan biosynthesis, based on the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG,

<http://www.genome.jp/kegg/>), as well as recent literature revealing putative biosynthetic enzymes involved in xylan biosynthesis (Brown *et al.*, 2007; York & O'Neill, 2008; Brown *et al.*, 2009; Oikawa *et al.*, 2010). Metabolites are represented as circles, and enzymatic processes or known enzymes of interest as boxes. BGL - beta-glucosidase; CESA - cellulose synthase; SPS - sucrose phosphate synthase; SPP - sucrose phosphate phosphatase.

Figure 4. A systems genetics approach to understanding the molecular basis of complex phenotypic traits in forest trees. Left: Systems genetics allows the molecular dissection of polygenic traits by relating phenotypic and genetic variation in experimental populations to measurable component traits (in developing cells, tissues and organs of trees) segregating in the same populations. Right: Conceptual network resulting from integrating the covariation of complex and component traits, revealing novel correlations among genes, expression modules, metabolites and complex wood phenotypes that would not be observed at the level of the individual.

Figure 1

Esterification

Etherification

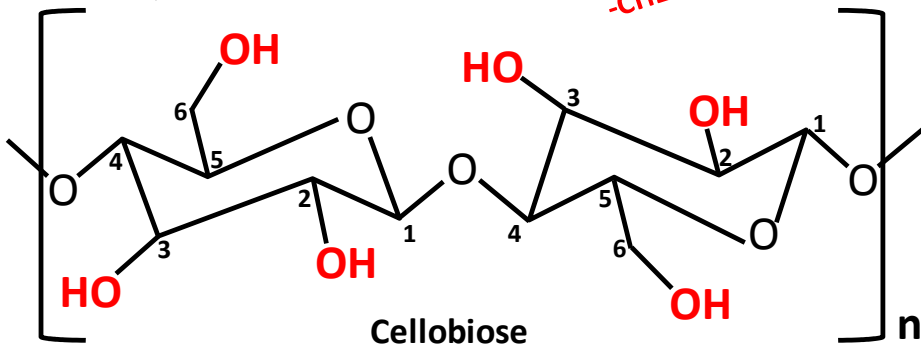
Cellulose Acetate

Nitrocellulose

Carboxymethyl-cellulose (CMC)

Ethylcellulose (EC)

Hydroxypropyl-methylcellulose (HPMC)



Cellulose

n

Acid

10-90 μm

<100 nm

Ultrafine grinding and high-pressure homogenation

Micro-crystalline cellulose (MCC)

Nanocellulose

Figure 2

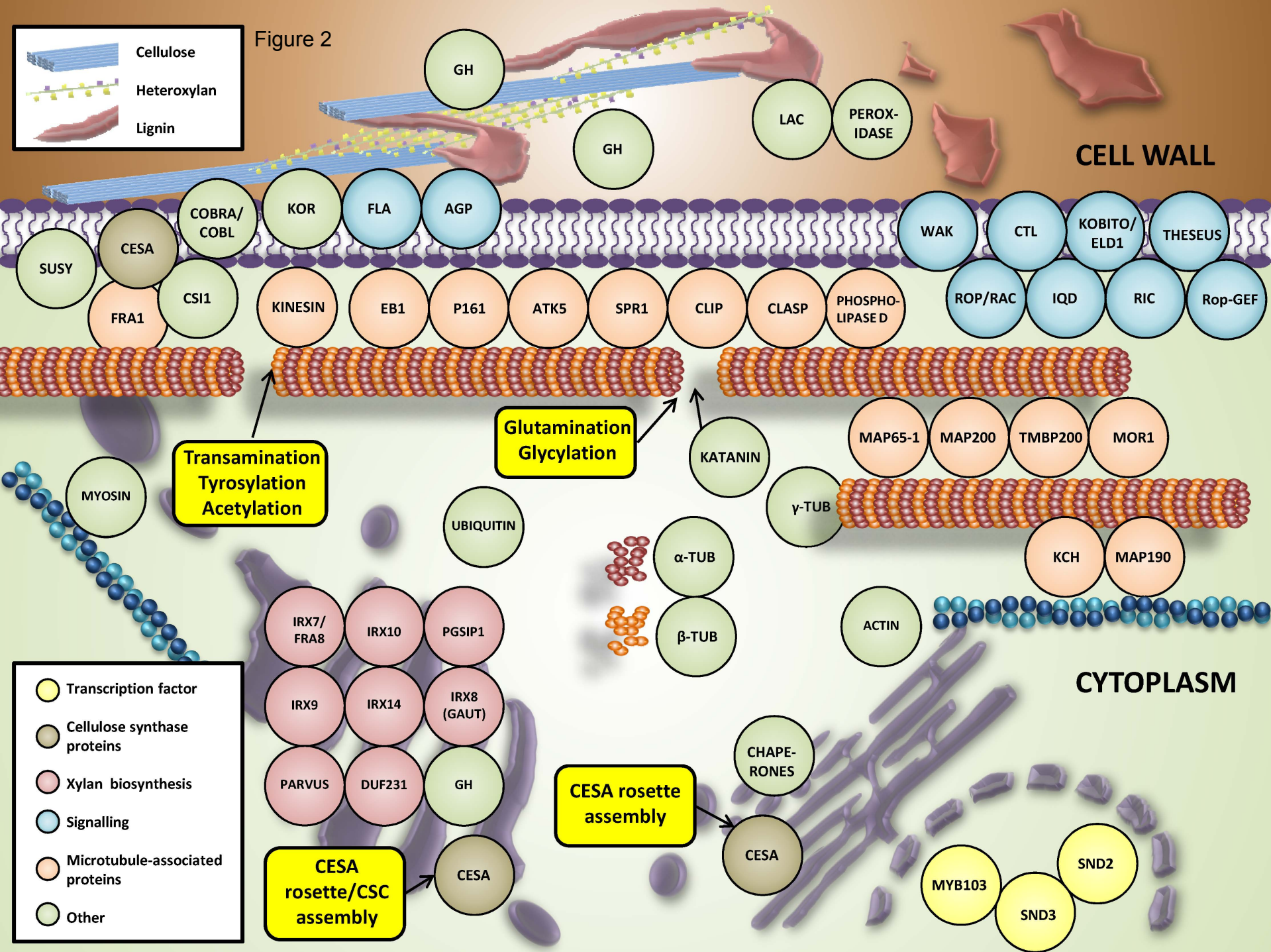


Figure 3

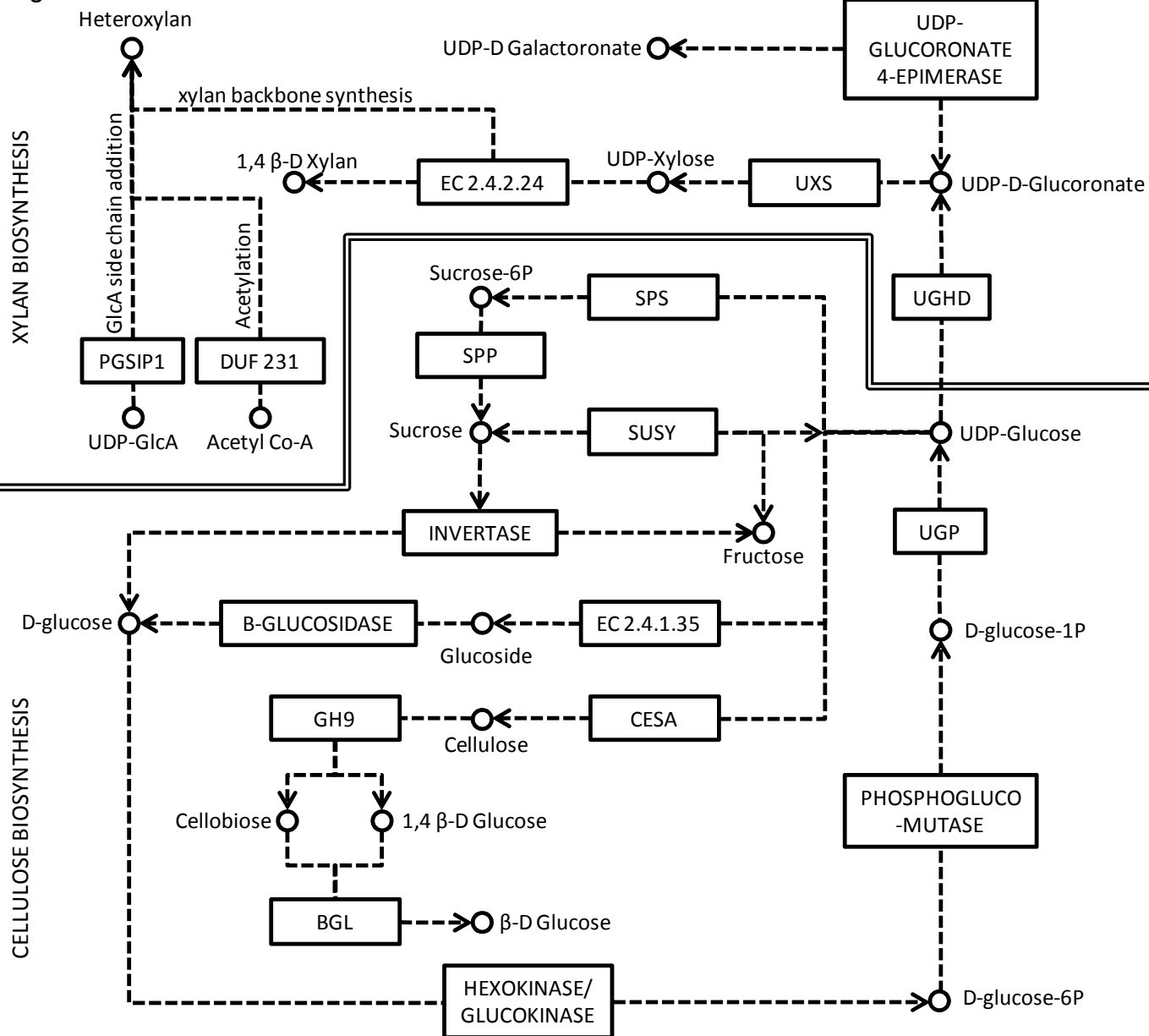


Figure 4

