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Characterization of D-ribose biosynthesis in *Bacillus subtilis* JY200 deficient in transketolase gene

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Abstract

D-Ribose is a functional five-carbon sugar, which has been used for the commercial production of riboflavin. Mechanisms of D-ribose biosynthesis from xylose were investigated in the genetically engineered *Bacillus subtilis* JY200 with a deficiency in transketolase. A transketolase gene (*tkt*) disruption cassette in plasmid pUNKC was introduced into the chromosomal *tkt* gene in the wild type *B. subtilis* 168. Analysis of culture broth by thin layer chromatography confirmed that the disruption of *tkt* allowed *B. subtilis* JY200 to produce D-ribose. In a batch culture of *B. subtilis* JY200, a loss of cell viability was observed after glucose depletion. Fed-batch cultivation by feeding 400 g l⁻¹ glucose solution as a co-substrate was carried out to supply energy to xylose metabolism and to maintain cell viability throughout cultivation. Fed-batch cultivation of *B. subtilis* JY200 in a complex medium containing 11 g l⁻¹ xylose and 5 g l⁻¹ glucose initially gave the best result of 10.1 g l⁻¹ D-ribose concentration, 0.24 g g⁻¹ D-ribose yield and 0.29 g l⁻¹ h⁻¹ productivity, corresponding to 40-, 5- and 12-fold increases compared with those in the batch culture. A kinetic study of D-ribose production in fed-batch cultivations of *B. subtilis* JY200 suggested that xylose uptake might be critical to maximize D-ribose biosynthesis from xylose.

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1. Introduction

D-Ribose is an important aldo-pentose present as the ribosyl residue of biomolecules such as ATP, RNA, NAD, NADP, FAD and coenzyme A. In the context of commercial applications, D-ribose has long served as a starting material for the chemical synthesis of riboflavin, which can be used not only for pharmaceuticals but also for animal feed additives, cosmetics and foods (Park et al., 2004). D-Ribose itself has a cardioprotective effect on the adenine nucleotide metabolism

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in the heart muscle of rat (Zimmer, 1983). Supplementation of D-ribose increased the skeletal muscle adenine salvage rate during recovery from the intense contraction (Zarzeczny et al., 2001).

Biological production of D-ribose was mediated by the dephosphorylation of D-ribose-5-phosphate, which could accumulate by the deficiency of transketolase activity in the pentose phosphate pathway (Park and Seo, 2004). Transketolase deficient strains derived from several microorganisms were screened. An Escherichia coli mutant needed aromatic amino acids and several ring-type vitamins or shikimic acid to grow on a minimal medium (Josephson and Frankel, 1969). An E. coli mutant deficient in two isoenzymes (TktA and TktB) required pyridoxine (Vitamin B6) for growth (Zhao and Winkler, 1994). But the accumulation of D-ribose was not detected either intracellularly or extracellularly. A transketolase-negative mutant of Salmonella typhimurium and a double deletion mutant of two transketolase genes (TKL1 and TKL2) in Saccharomyces cerevisiae had the same auxotrophic characteristics as other organisms (Eidels and Osborn, 1971; Schaaff-gerstenschläger et al., 1993) but the production of D-ribose was not reported. A transketolase mutant of Corynebacterium glutamicum produced 2 g l⁻¹ D-ribulose, but D-ribose synthesis was not observed (Ikeda et al., 1998). Inosine-producing Bacillus species characterized as transketolase mutants could secrete D-ribose into culture broth (Sasajima and Yoneda, 1971). Chemical mutation of transketolase in Bacillus subtilis, B. pumilus, Brevibacterium thiogenitalis, B. ammoniagenes, Arthrobacter globiformis, Aerobacter aerogenes and Micrococcus denitrificans revealed that only *Bacillus* species could accumulate D-ribose (Sasajima and Yoneda, 1989; De Wulf and Vandamme, 1997). Many attempts using the transketolase deficient mutants of Bacillus species have been made to develop the process of D-ribose mass production. B. subtilis ATCC 21915 produced D-ribose from glucose with 48% yield (De Wulf and Vandamme, 1997). Various carbon sources (glucose, sorbitol, mannitol and maltose) were useful for D-ribose biosynthesis and corn steep liquor was effective for large-scale production (Sasajima and Yoneda, 1971). Supplementation of aromatic amino acids increased the yield of D-ribose synthesis and suppressed the formation of gluconic acid (Kishimoto et al., 1990). When a Dribose producing mutant was grown on glucose plus a second substrate (D-gluconate, D-xylose, L-arabinose and xylitol), catabolite repression on the utilization of the second substrate was not found (De Wulf and Vandamme, 1997). Our group isolated a transketolase deficient *B. subtilis* strain, which was able to produce 23 g l⁻¹ D-ribose from xylose, and optimized a biological process of D-ribose production in batch and fed-batch cultivations (Park and Seo, 2004; Park et al., 2004).

This study aimed to develop a transketolase negative system by genetic engineering of the wild type *B. subtilis* 168 strain and to characterize the modified *B. subtilis* JY200 system for D-ribose production from xylose in batch and fed-batch cultivations.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Bacterial strains and plasmids

All bacterial strains and plasmids used and constructed in this study are described in Table 1. *E. coli* DH5α was used as a host strain for cloning and *B. subtilis* 168 (ATCC 23857) was purchased from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassas, U.S.A.) and used as a parental strain to construct the transketolase negative system.

2.2. Culture conditions

E. coli and B. subtilis strains were grown in LB medium $(10 g l^{-1} Bacto-tryptone (BD, Sparks,$ MD, U.S.A.), $5 g l^{-1}$ yeast extract (BD, U.S.A.), 10 g l⁻¹ NaCl) at 37 °C. Transformants were selected against 50 mg l^{-1} ampicillin for *E. coli* or 50 mg l^{-1} kanamycin for B. subtilis. MY medium containing $10 \,\mathrm{g}\,\mathrm{l}^{-1}$ yeast extract, $5.0 \,\mathrm{g}\,\mathrm{l}^{-1}$ (NH₄)₂SO₄, $6.4\,\mathrm{g}\,\mathrm{l}^{-1}\,\mathrm{KH_2PO_4},\ 0.5\,\mathrm{g}\,\mathrm{l}^{-1}\,\mathrm{MgSO_4\cdot7H_2O},\ 0.1\,\mathrm{g}\,\mathrm{l}^{-1}$ citric acid, $5\,\mathrm{mg}\,\mathrm{l}^{-1}$ thiamine HCl, $40\,\mathrm{mg}\,\mathrm{l}^{-1}$ tryptophan, $10\,\mathrm{ml}\,\mathrm{l}^{-1}$ trace element solution ($5\,\mathrm{g}\,\mathrm{l}^{-1}$ $FeCl_3 \cdot 6H_2O$, $0.55 g l^{-1}$ $CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$, $0.4 g l^{-1}$ $MnCl_2 \cdot 4H_2O$, $0.25 g l^{-1} ZnCl_2$, $0.3 g l^{-1} H_3BO_4$, $0.25 \text{ g l}^{-1} \text{ Na}_2 \text{MoO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}, \ 0.25 \text{ g l}^{-1} \text{ CoCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O},$ $0.15 \text{ g l}^{-1} \text{ CuCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $0.84 \text{ g l}^{-1} \text{ EDTA} \cdot \text{disodium}$ salt-2H2O) and carbon sources (xylose and glucose) were used for D-ribose production. Batch culture was carried out in a 3.71 jar bioreactor (Type ALF, Bioengineering AG, Switzerland) with 11 of MY medium

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