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# <sup>2</sup> Microbial consortia for saccharification of woody biomass and ethanol fermentation

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- 12 It reports newly isolated Sistotrema brinkmannii and Agaricus arvensis producing high levels of lignocellulase.
- 13 The mixed fungal culture exhibits a higher lignocellulase activity than each monoculture.
- 14 Optimization of saccharification by response surface methodology exhibits the highest saccharification of plant biomasses.
- ▶ The co-culture of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Pichia stipitis* produces more ethanol than that produced by each mono culture.
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## ABSTRACT

Newly isolated *Sistotrema brinkmannii* and *Agaricus arvensis* were co-cultured using rice straw (20 g/L) as a carbon source and yeast extract (10 g/L) as a nitrogen source to produce high levels of cellobiohydrolase (12.6 U/mL),  $\beta$ -glucosidase (21 U/mL), and endoglucanase (16.4 U/mL). The filter paper activity (FPU) of the mixed fungal culture was enhanced (1.61 FPU/mL) compared to that of *S. brinkmannii* (0.3 FPU/mL) or *A. arvensis* (0.5 FPU/mL) monoculture. Enzyme loading, substrate concentration, pH, and temperature were optimized by response surface methodology (RSM) to improve the saccharification yield of alkalipretreated plant biomasses. The highest enzymatic hydrolysis (76.7%) was obtained from *Pinus densiflora* under the following conditions: crude enzyme loading 22.5 FPU/g-substrate, substrate 3.75%, temperature 35 °C, and pH 5. The enzymatic hydrolyzate of pretreated *P. densiflora* was used for ethanol production using *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Pichia stipitis*, and a co-culture of both the strains. The co-culture of *S. cerevisiae* and *P. stipitis* produced 23% more ethanol than that produced by *P. stipitis* alone. This study shows the potential of exploiting a microbial consortium for the cost-effective production of cellulases for bioethanol processes.

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## 50 1. Introduction

51 Lignocellulosic biomass is an abundant, renewable source of carbohydrates for microbial conversion to chemicals and fuels. 52 Due to the heterogeneity and complexity of lignocelluosic biomass, 53 54 bioconversion requires multiple enzyme activities [1]. Cellulases are the key enzymes recruited for the bioconversion of lignocellu-55 losic biomass to useful products. They consist of three major com-56 57 ponents: endoglucanase (EG; EC 3.2.1.4), exoglucanase (EC 3.2.1.91), and cellobiase or  $\beta$ -glucosidase (BGL; EC 3.2.1.21), which 58 59 act synergistically to convert the complex carbohydrates present in 60 a lignocellulosic biomass into glucose [2]. Due to a diverse range of 61 applications, cellulases play a pivotal role in the commercialization

0016-2361/\$ - see front matter @ 2013 Published by Elsevier Ltd. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2013.01.037 of industrial enzymes [3]. However, the cost of cellulase enzymes remains a major concern for the commercialization of lignocellulosic biomass ethanol processes. Significant work to reduce the cost of cellulases has focused on improving the efficiency of known cellulases, identifying new, more active cellulases, creating multicomponent cellulase systems optimized for selected pretreated substrates, and minimizing the costs of cellulase production [4,5]. In spite of these efforts, the bioconversion of lignocellulosic biomass continues to be challenged by its low conversion efficiency.

A variety of microorganisms, including fungi and bacteria, degrade cellulosic biomass to glucose monomers. Most bacteria, however, cannot degrade crystalline cellulose because their cellulase systems are incomplete [1]. However, fungi are well known cellulase producers that can utilize inexpensive and surplus lignocellulosic raw materials as the chief carbon source under various conditions [6], and thus are useful in the saccharification 78

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2.2. Identification of microorganisms

79 of renewable, pretreated lignocellulosic materials. Many fungal 80 species, such as Trichoderma, Penicillium, and Aspergillus, are able 81 to produce large amounts of extracellular cellulases [7]. Tricho-82 derma reesei is the most widely employed fungus for the produc-83 tion of cellulolytic enzymes, and it has been extensively studied. 84 However, research showed that a single component cellulase or a 85 cellulase from pure cultures could not convert a highly ordered 86 polymer into a monomer efficiently [8,9]. The improvement of 87 microbial and enzymatic processes in lignocellulosic biomass conversion is thus an important area of research in sustainable 88 "green" biotechnology. Microbial consortium, or the mixing of 89 90 several types of enzymes that act cooperatively, has been proposed as an efficient approach for the production of antibiotics and 91 several types of fermented food and for the bioconversion of apple 92 93 distillery waste and domestic wastewater sludge [10]. Mixed 94 fungal cultures have many advantages compared to monocultures, 95 including improved productivity, adaptability, and substrate 96 utilization [7]. In a previous study, co-culturing improved the 97 fungal cellulolytic activity of T. reesei and A. niger [11]. The cellulases from T. reesei usually have high levels of endo- and exo-98 99 glucanase components but lower BGL levels, whereas A. niger has 100 high BGL activity but lower endoglucanase levels, and hence it has limited efficiency in cellulose hydrolysis. Therefore, it is appro-101 102 priate to mix cellulolytic cocktails derived from different sources in 103 order to obtain satisfactory yields of sugars after enzymatic 104 hydrolysis.

Glucose and xylose are the two dominant sugars in lignocellu-105 106 losic hydrolyzates. Both need to be fermented efficiently for 107 economic ethanol production [12]. Current approaches are ineffi-108 cient, since no native microorganism can convert all sugars into 109 ethanol at a high yield [13]. Therefore, microorganisms that can 110 efficiently convert both hexoses and pentoses to ethanol would be more useful. Saccharomyces cerevisiae is the most applied and 111 112 traditional microorganism for ethanol production. It has a high 113 ethanol tolerance, as well as high yields and rates of fermentation. 114 However, its inability to ferment xylose, the second most abundant 115 sugar in nature, limits its use in biofuel production. Candida sheha-116 tae. Pachysolen tannophilus, and Pichia stipitis are capable of fer-117 menting xylose [12–14]. By co-culturing S. cerevisiae with one of 118 these microorganisms in an appropriate ratio, it could be possible 119 to obtain the desired yield of ethanol from lignocellulosic hydroly-120 zates. The objective of this study was to construct an efficient cellulolytic enzymes-producing consortium and to evaluate statistical 121 122 methods with which to optimize the enzymatic hydrolysis of an alkali-pretreated Pinus densiflora biomass, following ethanol produc-123 124 tion by co-culture of yeast.

## 125 **2. Materials and methods**

#### 126 2.1. Isolation of microorganisms

127 Soil samples collected from Sorak Mountain (South Korea) by the capillary tube method were diluted in sterile dilution solution 128 (0.9% saline). Aliquots were spread on potato dextrose agar (PDA) 129 plates, and the plates were incubated for 13 days. The initial 130 screening of cellulase producing fungi was carried out in agar 131 plates containing 0.5% carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC). Based on 132 the zone of clearance observed by Congo red staining, strains 133 134 were selected to analyze cellobiohydrolase (CBH), BGL, and EG 135 activity. The different colonies were inoculated into 50 mL of 136 growth medium containing 8 g/L peptone, 2 g/L yeast extract, 5 g/L KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 5 g/L K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 3 g/L MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.005 g/L thia-137 138 mine HCl, and 20 g/L microcrystalline cellulose (Sigma). The colo-139 nies were cultivated at 30 °C with agitation at 180 rpm for 140 10 days.

The fatty acid composition was analyzed by performing gas 142 chromatography (Agilent 6890N, CA, USA), and the identity of 143 the isolated strain was determined using the MIDI database. For 144 sequence analysis, the ITS1-5.8 S-ITS2 rDNA region of the fungus 145 was amplified by performing PCR using the primer set pITS1 146 (5'-TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCCG-3') and pITS4 (5'-TCCTCCGCTTATT-147 GATATGC-3') [15]. The 604 bp and 566 bp amplicons thus obtained 148 were cloned and sequenced. The sequences were submitted to 149 GenBank with accession numbers HM004552 (Agaricus arvensis) 150 and HQ717718 (Sistotrema brinkmannii). Pairwise evolutionary 151 distances and a phylogenetic tree were constructed using the 152 MEGA 4 software [16]. 153

#### 2.3. Growth conditions and production of enzyme

The fungal strains were routinely sub-cultured after 4 weeks and stored at 4 °C on PDA plates. A 500 mL flask containing 50 mL of potato dextrose broth (PDB) was used for seeding the culture. For enzyme production, *A. arvensis* and *S. brinkmannii* were inoculated at a ratio of 5:1 into above mentioned growth medium (20% v/v). The effects of the carbon or nitrogen sources on cellulase production and filter paper unit (FPU) activity were investigated after 7 days of cultivation in flasks (25 °C and 180 rpm) containing medium composed of 20 g/L of the carbon sources (cellulose, rice straw, avicel, cellobiose, CMC, maltose, sucrose, lactose, and glucose) and 10 g/L of various nitrogen sources (peptone yeast extract, corn steep powder, tryptone, ammonium sulfate, ammonium chloride, urea, and potassium nitrate).

The effects of temperature and pH on enzyme production were analyzed in a 7-L fermenter by varying the growth temperatures  $(20-40 \,^{\circ}C)$  and pH values (3.5-7.0). For fermenter culture, the mycelia of *A. arvensis* and *S. brinkmannii* were inoculated into 100 mL of potato dextrose broth separately. Pre-cultures  $(20\% \, v/ \, v)$  were inoculated into 3 L of medium in a 7-L fermenter at a ratio of 5:1 (*A. arvensis:S. brinkmannii*) in final production medium.

#### 2.4. Pretreatment of the biomass and hydrolysis conditions

The biomass samples were procured from Phygen Co. Ltd. 176 (Daejeon, Korea). Five different selected lignocellulosic biomasses 177 (Catalpa ovata, Populus nigra, P. densiflora, Populus tomentiglandulos, 178 and Pinus radiata) were used as the substrates for hydrolysis. The 179 wood chips were milled using a laboratory hammer mill. Milled 180 material was further separated (size reduced to approximately 181 2-50 mm) using a portable sieve shaker. The wood chips were 182 screened to remove all the particles greater than 35 mm and less 183 than 6 mm in length to ensure smooth operation in disk milling. 184 The thickness of the accepted chips ranged from 2 mm to 6 mm. 185 The biomass was dried in an oven at 70 °C until the weight was 186 constant. Then the biomass was stored in an airtight container at 187 room temperature. Ten grams of biomass sample and 40 mL of 188 NaOH (2.0 wt.%) solution were added to 200 mL Erlenmeyer flasks 189 with a solid to liquid ratio of 1:4. Sodium hydroxide pretreatment 190 was performed in an autoclave at 121 °C for 60 min. Pretreated 191 biomass was recovered by filtration and washed with deionized 192 water to remove excess alkali and dissolved byproducts that might 193 inhibit enzymes in the subsequent hydrolysis. Then the pretreated 194 biomass was dried in an oven at 70 °C until constant weight was 195 observed. The pretreated biomass was either used immediately 196 for hydrolysis experiments or stored in airtight containers at 4 °C 197 until use. A typical hydrolysis mixture, which consisted of 0.2 g 198 of substrate, 10 FPU of enzyme, and 10 mL of sodium acetate buffer 199 (pH 5.0), was supplemented with the antibiotics tetracycline 200  $(40 \,\mu g/mL)$  and cycloheximide  $(30 \,\mu g/mL)$  to prevent any 201

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