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1	Enhancing the value of nitrogen from rapeseed meal for microbial oil
2	production.
3	
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24	Abstract

25	Rapeseed meal, a major byproduct of biodiesel production, has been used as a low-cost raw
26	material for the production of a generic microbial feedstock through a consolidated
27	bioconversion process. Various strategies were tested for the production of a novel
28	fermentation medium, rich in Free Amino Nitrogen (FAN): commercial enzymes (2.7 mg \cdot g ⁻¹
29	dry meal), liquid state fungal pre-treatment using Aspergillus oryzae (4.6 mg·g ⁻¹), liquid state
30	fungal pre-treatment followed by fungal autolysis (9.13 mg \cdot g ⁻¹), liquid state pre-treatment
31	using fungal enzymatic broth (2.1 mg \cdot g ⁻¹), but the best strategy was a solid state fungal pre-
32	treatment followed by fungal autolysis (34.5 mg \cdot g ⁻¹).
33	The bioavailability of the nitrogen sources in the novel medium was confirmed in fed-batch
34	bioreactor studies, in which 82.3 g dry cell.L ⁻¹ of the oleaginous yeast <i>Rhodosporidum</i>
35	toruloides Y4 was obtained with a lipid content of 48%. The dry cell weight obtained was
36	higher than that obtained using conventional yeast extract, due to a higher total nitrogen
37	content in the novel biomedium. The Fatty Acid Methyl Esters (FAMEs) obtained from the
38	microbial oil were similar to those derived from rapeseed oil.
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49 Keywords: rapeseed meal; fermentation; solid state fermentation; free amino nitrogen;
50 *Rhodosporidium toruloides*, microbial oil.

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53 **1. Introduction**

54 The production and use of biodiesel has dramatically increased in recent years to cope with 55 the increasing demand for fuel. It represents a promising alternative for use in compression-56 ignition (diesel) engines. It has some advantages over petroleum derived fuels since it is 57 produced from renewable sources; it is biodegradable and less toxic [1]. Biodiesel production 58 is performed after the oil extraction from various oil seeds. For this purpose, rapeseed is 59 frequently used in Europe because of its high oil content, low-cost and abundance. In the 60 biodiesel process from rapeseed, a protein rich solid by-product (rapeseed meal) is generated 61 which is usually sold as animal feed [2, 3]. However, it is not an ideal animal feed and, because of the growth of the biodiesel industry, the amounts of this low value rapeseed meal 62 are expected to increase significantly in the near future. Global rapeseed production was 47 63 64 million tons in 2010 [4], and over 25 million tons of rapeseed meal was produced. There is 65 therefore considerable incentive to find and develop new uses for this by-product, which fit 66 with an integrated and sustainable approach to biodiesel production.

67

Another by-product of the biodiesel industry, glycerol, has been shown in numerous
publications to be a suitable carbon source in fermentation media for the production of
various bioproducts such as succinic acid [5], microbial oil [6] and biodegradable plastics [7]
or value-added metabolic products [8] and this list is far from exhaustive. However, these
studies have generally relied on the use of yeast extract as a nitrogen source, which would be
too expensive to use in a large biorefinery. The development of an integrated biorefinery

concept based on rapeseed requires a suitable nitrogen and nutrient source for the production
of a wide range of specialty chemicals or biofuels by microbial fermentation. In this
biorefinery approach it is proposed to use both by-products, glycerol and rapeseed meal, in
the production of a complete generic microbial medium.

78

Rapeseed meal is generally used as organic fertilizer and animal feed because of its high protein content. However, the utilization of rapeseed meal in food and feed industries is limited because it contains some anti-nutritional constituents such as phytic acid, erucic acid and fibre and precursors of toxic compounds such as glucosinolate and phenol [9-11]. Moreover, rapeseed meal proteins are not easily digestible compared to other protein rich waste materials such as fish meal or soy bean meal rendering them less valuable [12].

85

Rapeseed meal might be used as a nutrient for fermentation processes due to its high protein, carbohydrate and mineral contents. However, microorganisms generally cannot assimilate directly these nutrients without a form of pretreatment [13]. If the rapeseed meal proteins are made accessible, many valuable products could be developed from this inexpensive and abundant waste via fermentation processes. Usual nitrogen sources for fermentation include yeast extract, peptone or inorganic nitrogen such as ammonium sulfate, but significant savings could be obtained if nitrogen was obtained from an inexpensive source.

93

94 The objective of this study was to improve the accessibility of rapeseed meal proteins by 95 biological pre-treatments. For this purpose, enzymatic hydrolysis and fungal fermentations 96 were conducted to convert rapeseed meal proteins into digestible components. The capacity of 97 a lipid producing yeast to metabolize these accessible nitrogen sources was then investigated

98	to determine	whether	microbial	oil	production	(to	enhance	biodiesel	production)	might	be
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99 feasible.

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101 **2. Materials and methods**

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103	2.1.	Rapeseed	meal

- 104 Rapeseed meal was kindly supplied by the Oilseeds Processing Division of Cargill Plc,
- 105 Liverpool, England. Its composition for relevant components was reported in a previous

106 publication [13]. The rapeseed meal was kept in air-tight plastic containers and stored at room

107 temperature.

108

- 109 2.2. Rapeseed meal pretreatments
- 110 Each pretreatment is described in Figure 1 and in the following paragraphs.
- 111

112 2.2.1. Commercial enzyme pretreatment (CE)

- 113 Commercial protease (P4860, Protease from *Bacillus licheniformis*) was purchased from
- 114 Sigma-Aldrich. This protease is stable over the range of pH 6.0 to 10.0 and in the
- temperature range of 50 of 60°C. Protease activity was determined as 49 U/mL in pH 7
- 116 phosphate buffer at 55°C. An enzyme loading of 5.10^{-3} U protease.g⁻¹ meal was used to
- 117 hydrolyze 10 g rapeseed meal (on a dry basis) in 100 mL pH 7 phosphate buffer. Experiments
- 118 were performed on autoclaved and non-autoclaved rapeseed meal.

- 120 2.2.2. Liquid state fungal pretreatment (LSF)
- 121 Liquid state fermentation tests were performed using 10 g rapeseed meal in 250 mL
- 122 Erlenmeyer flasks with 100 mL liquid volume. The flasks were autoclaved and then

inoculated aseptically with 10⁶ spores of *Aspergillus oryzae*.g⁻¹ rapeseed meal. The isolation,
purification, and proliferation of the fungus have been reported previously [13]. Fungal
growth was carried out at 30°C for 72 hours.

126

127 2.2.3. Liquid state fungal pretreatment followed by fungal autolysis (LSFA)

This pre-treatment was carried out according to the previous strategy followed by autolysis of the fungus for 72 hours at 55°C. Briefly, the autolysis can be defined as the decomposition of the fungus and the release of nutrients. This step is also characterized by a higher protease activity due to the higher temperature which promotes the hydrolysis of the remaining meal components [13].

133

134 2.2.4. Liquid state pretreatment using enzymatic broth (EB)

This pretreatment was carried out according to the liquid state fungal pretreatment described above followed by filtration of the broth through a qualitative filter (Whatmann 1). Ten mL of filtrate containing the active enzymes or the so-called 'enzymatic broth' was mixed with 90 mL of distilled water and 10 g of fresh rapeseed meal at 55°C in order to increase further the FAN content of the solution. This method was investigated because the fungal growth is relatively slow and recycle of the enzymatic stream for further hydrolysis would be an advantage.

142

143 2.2.5. Solid state fungal pretreatment followed by fungal autolysis (SSFA)

Firstly, a certain amount of rapeseed meal was moistened with the required amount of tap water to obtain 65 % moisture content in a 1 L bottle then sterilized at 121°C for 45 min. The meal was allowed to cool to room temperature before inoculating with approximately 10^6 spores of *A. oryzae*·g⁻¹ rapeseed meal. The content was mixed by stirring with a sterile aluminum rod and vigorous shaking. After mixing well, approximately 10-13 g of content was
distributed into each 9-cm Petri dish and incubated at 30°C for 3 days.

150 Autolysis of fermented solids was subsequently conducted by mixing the required amount of

151 distilled water with fermented solid to obtain approximately 55-60 g·L⁻¹ solid concentration.

152 The content was blended using a kitchen blender then incubated at 55°C for 3 days in a tightly

153 capped bottle. Samples were taken periodically to measure free amino nitrogen concentration.

154

155 2.3. Bio-oil production using the nitrogen-rich media

156 The oleaginous yeast *Rhodosporidium toruloides* Y4, which has previously been shown by Li

157 et al. [14] to be capable of high cell density culture was used throughout this study. Bio-oil

158 production with *R. toruloides* Y4 was carried out using nutrient solutions obtained from

159 different pretreatments to compare the yeast growth and bio-oil production yield.

160

161 2.3.1. Flasks experiments

162 For inoculum preparation, the yeast was grown for 3 days in 100 mL liquid medium

163 composed of: 3 g.L^{-1} malt extract, 10 g.L^{-1} yeast extract, 10 g.L^{-1} peptone, 10 g.L^{-1} NaCl and

164 20 g.L⁻¹ glucose. For experiments in 500 mL Erlenmeyer flasks, the fermentation medium

165 (100 mL) was prepared using 90 mL filtered nutrients solution obtained after the various pre-

166 treatments and glucose was added to obtain a concentration of 50 $g.L^{-1}$. The flasks were

167 autoclaved at 121°C for 20 minutes, and then inoculated aseptically with 10 mL of inoculum.

168 A control with yeast extract powder (Sigma) was also carried out in parallel. Fermentations

169 were carried out at 30° C on a 200 rpm rotary shaker.

170

171 2.3.2. Bioreactor experiments

172	For bioreactor experiments, the fermentation medium (1 L) was prepared using 900 mL
173	filtered nutrients solution obtained after the various pretreatments and diluted such that an
174	initial FAN concentration 300 mg.L ⁻¹ was obtained. The medium was supplemented with 0.4
175	$g.L^{-1}$ KH ₂ PO ₄ , 1.5 $g.L^{-1}$ MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O. The stock glucose solution (1000 $g.L^{-1}$) was
176	autoclaved separately, and added at the beginning of the fermentation to obtain a
177	concentration of 50 g.L ⁻¹ . The inoculum (100 mL) was transferred aseptically and the
178	fermentation was performed at pH 6, 30°C and a stirring speed of 1200 rpm (Electrolab).
179	Samples were taken at regular intervals to follow the yeast growth, glucose concentration and
180	FAN consumption. In order to maintain a high C/N ratio, the required amount of glucose was
181	supplemented to the medium every 24 hours.
182	
183	2.4. Analytical methods
184	Free Amino Nitrogen concentration was analyzed by the ninhydrin colorimetric method [15].
185	It is a convenient method to analyze the amino nitrogen that is readily assimilated by many
186	microorganisms. Protease activity was quantified by the formation of FAN by hydrolyzing a
187	15 g.L ⁻¹ casein solution (Sigma) at 55°C in 200 mM, pH 7 phosphate buffer. One unit activity
188	(U) was defined as the protease required for the production of 1 g FAN in one minute.
189	Protease activity was determined in triplicate. Glucose concentration was measured in
190	triplicate using an Analox GL6 analyser (Analox, England). Populations of fungal spores and
191	yeast cells were microscopically quantified using a haemacytometer (Improved Neubauer,
192	Weber England, Depth 0.1mm, $1/400$ mm ²). For dry cell biomass determination, 5 mL
193	fermentation broth was filtered through a 0.2 μ m filter and dried at 60°C overnight. Oil
194	content of dried yeast cells was determined by chloroform:methanol (1:1 v/v) extraction in a
195	Soxtec-HT6 system (Höganäs, Sweden). The extraction time was 2 hours at 140°C, followed
196	by 20 minutes of rinsing. The oil content was determined in triplicate.

198	Fatty acid analysis of lipids was conducted by gas chromatography (GC). For this, 1 mg of
199	lipid was subjected for 30 min to methanolysis at 60°C in the presence of 15% (vol/vol)
200	methanolic-sulfuric acid. The resulting fatty acid methyl esters were analysed on a Varian CP-
201	3800 gas chromatograph equipped with a DB-23 capillary column (60 m x 0.25 mm; film
202	thickness of 150 nm) and a flame ionization detector (Agilent Technologies). A 2 ml portion
203	of the organic phase was analysed after split injection (1:50); helium (constant flow of 0.2 ml
204	min-1) was used as a carrier gas. The temperatures of the injector and detector were 250°C.
205	The following temperature program was applied: 50°C for 1 min, increase of 25°C min ⁻¹ to
206	175°C, increase of 4°C min ⁻¹ to 230°C, and 230°C for 5 min. Substances were identified by
207	comparison of their retention times with those of a standard of fatty acid methyl esters (Sigma
208	18919-1AMP).
209	
210	3. Results and discussion
211	
212	3.1. Free Amino Nitrogen production
213	FAN production during various pretreatments was compared as shown in Figure 2:
213 214	FAN production during various pretreatments was compared as shown in Figure 2: commercial enzyme (CE) hydrolysis with and without autoclaving, liquid state fungal pre-
213214215	FAN production during various pretreatments was compared as shown in Figure 2: commercial enzyme (CE) hydrolysis with and without autoclaving, liquid state fungal pre- treatment (LSF), liquid state fungal pre-treatment followed by fungal autolysis (LSFA),
213214215216	 FAN production during various pretreatments was compared as shown in Figure 2: commercial enzyme (CE) hydrolysis with and without autoclaving, liquid state fungal pre-treatment (LSF), liquid state fungal pre-treatment followed by fungal autolysis (LSFA), liquid state pre-treatment using enzymatic broth (EB) and solid state fermentation followed by
 213 214 215 216 217 	FAN production during various pretreatments was compared as shown in Figure 2: commercial enzyme (CE) hydrolysis with and without autoclaving, liquid state fungal pre- treatment (LSF), liquid state fungal pre-treatment followed by fungal autolysis (LSFA), liquid state pre-treatment using enzymatic broth (EB) and solid state fermentation followed by fungal autolysis (SSFA).
 213 214 215 216 217 218 	 FAN production during various pretreatments was compared as shown in Figure 2: commercial enzyme (CE) hydrolysis with and without autoclaving, liquid state fungal pre-treatment (LSF), liquid state fungal pre-treatment followed by fungal autolysis (LSFA), liquid state pre-treatment using enzymatic broth (EB) and solid state fermentation followed by fungal autolysis (SSFA). During commercial enzyme pre-treatment, the rate of FAN production was linear up to 8
 213 214 215 216 217 218 219 	 FAN production during various pretreatments was compared as shown in Figure 2: commercial enzyme (CE) hydrolysis with and without autoclaving, liquid state fungal pre-treatment (LSF), liquid state fungal pre-treatment followed by fungal autolysis (LSFA), liquid state pre-treatment using enzymatic broth (EB) and solid state fermentation followed by fungal autolysis (SSFA). During commercial enzyme pre-treatment, the rate of FAN production was linear up to 8 hours reaching 2.2 mg FAN.g⁻¹ rapeseed meal, but it then reached a steady-state. Under the
 213 214 215 216 217 218 219 220 	 FAN production during various pretreatments was compared as shown in Figure 2: commercial enzyme (CE) hydrolysis with and without autoclaving, liquid state fungal pre-treatment (LSF), liquid state fungal pre-treatment followed by fungal autolysis (LSFA), liquid state pre-treatment using enzymatic broth (EB) and solid state fermentation followed by fungal autolysis (SSFA). During commercial enzyme pre-treatment, the rate of FAN production was linear up to 8 hours reaching 2.2 mg FAN.g⁻¹ rapeseed meal, but it then reached a steady-state. Under the studied conditions incubation periods longer than 8 hours did not increase further the yield.
 213 214 215 216 217 218 219 220 221 	 FAN production during various pretreatments was compared as shown in Figure 2: commercial enzyme (CE) hydrolysis with and without autoclaving, liquid state fungal pre-treatment (LSF), liquid state fungal pre-treatment followed by fungal autolysis (LSFA), liquid state pre-treatment using enzymatic broth (EB) and solid state fermentation followed by fungal autolysis (SSFA). During commercial enzyme pre-treatment, the rate of FAN production was linear up to 8 hours reaching 2.2 mg FAN.g⁻¹ rapeseed meal, but it then reached a steady-state. Under the studied conditions incubation periods longer than 8 hours did not increase further the yield. When rapeseed meal was autoclaved prior to commercial enzyme pretreatment, FAN

production was lower. Rapeseed might contain some natural proteases, and when autoclaving
was applied, these proteases may have been denatured, resulting in lower yields. Another
possible cause is the release of inhibitory substances during heat pre-treatment that affect
protease activity. The FAN yield obtained with liquid state pre-treatment using enzymatic
broth (EB) was similar to that obtained with commercial enzyme.

227

The fungal pretreatment (LSF) gave better results and after 48 hours the highest FAN yield 228 became 4.5 mg.g⁻¹ rapeseed meal due the growth of the fungus and the release of specific 229 230 enzymes for this type of substrate. Aspergillus oryzae is known to be an excellent protease producer [16]. It does not only produce protease that hydrolyze proteins into peptides and 231 232 amino acids, but also phytase [17], xylanase [18], β -galactosidase [19], cellulase and 233 amylolactic enzyme [20] which results in the release of phosphate and the production of 234 simple sugars to be used as carbon source for the growth of microorganisms [13]. Using 235 fungal pre-treatment followed by fungal autolysis (LSFA), intracellular enzymes were released from the cells resulting in a FAN production reaching 9.13 mg.g⁻¹ rapeseed meal 236 237 after 120 hours which demonstrated a significant advantage of performing an autolysis step. 238

239 The production of FAN from rapeseed meal was carried out by stepwise solid-state 240 fermentation followed by autolysis (SSFA) of fermented solids in order to break down 241 proteins contained in the meal. During the SSFA an increased protease activity was observed 242 after the germination period and the activity of the enzyme increased rapidly until the fungus 243 entered the stationary phase of growth (data not shown). This resulted in the production of 15.3 mg FAN·g⁻¹ rapeseed meal together with a protease activity of 118.5 U·g⁻¹ rapeseed meal 244 245 after 72 hours. Subsequent autolysis of fermented solid boosted the production of FAN. The 246 incubation at 55°C encouraged the activity of protease to further degrade proteins which

247 resulted in higher production of FAN. However, enzymatic hydrolysis was not the only 248 reaction occurring during autolysis. Blending the fermented solid also resulted in 249 fragmentation of fungal mycelia which prevented further fungal fermentation. Moreover, the 250 limited dissolved oxygen in the medium led to the autolysis of the fungus which encouraged 251 the regeneration of microbial nutrients from fungal biomass [21]. FAN production after 72 hours of incubation was increased to 34.5 $mg \cdot g^{-1}$ which is equivalent to a 55 % conversion 252 253 from the total nitrogen in the rapeseed meal. The remaining nitrogen may be intact proteins or 254 peptide chains that do not react with the reagent in the ninhydrin colorimetric method. In 255 order to assess the bioavailability of the nitrogen sources and to verify that no inhibitory 256 substances are generated during the pretreatments, fermentations were carried using the 257 oleaginous yeast, Rhodosporidium toruloides Y4 for bio-oil production. 258

259 3.3 Fermentation using the novel nitrogen-rich medium

260

261 3.3.1 Flask experiments

262 In this section, the yeast R. toruloides Y4 was used to assess the possibility of growing 263 microorganisms on the novel fermentation medium containing FAN produced from the 264 various pretreatments of rapeseed meal as described above. FAN was a convenient method to 265 compare the amino nitrogen that can be readily assimilated by the yeast. Glucose was used as carbon source at a concentration of 50 g.L⁻¹. Figure 3A shows the growth profiles of 266 267 *R. toruloides* Y4 in flasks. Yeast growth was observed in each condition indicating that amino 268 acids produced during the pretreatments were bioavailable for the yeast metabolism. 269 However, the growth was sluggish when commercial enzyme(CE), liquid state fungal pre-270 treatment (LSF) and fungal enzymatic broth (EB) were used.

272 Using liquid state fungal pretreatment followed by fungal autolysis (LSFA) a dry cell weight of 7.9 g.L⁻¹ was obtained which is similar to the value found by Wang et al. [13] with 273 Saccharomyces cerevisiae growing on this type of fermentation medium. Interestingly, using 274 the SSFA pretreatment, a final cell yield of 10.1 g.L⁻¹ was obtained which was more than that 275 obtained using yeast extract powder (9.1 $g.L^{-1}$). This shows that our novel N-rich medium was 276 277 at least as good as conventional yeast extract for supporting the growth of this oleaginous 278 yeast. The better growth of the yeast on the SSFA medium was correlated by a greater 279 consumption of FAN compared to the other media (Figure 3B) showing that the autolysis 280 process enhanced the bioavailability of the nitrogen sources for the yeast. 281 At the end of the fermentation period it can be seen that the FAN concentrations remained relatively high for each condition (> 80 mg FAN.L^{-1}). It is not clear whether this residual 282 283 FAN was bioavailable for the yeast or whether it was not consumed because of insufficient 284 dissolved oxygen levels. To investigate this further and to confirm bioavailability of the 285 nitrogen sources in the novel fermentation medium these experiments were scaled-up to 1 L 286 bioreactors.

287

288 3.3.2. 1 L bioreactor experiments

289 In order to improve the growth conditions, fed-batch fermentations were carried out in a 1L 290 bioreactor using high agitation speed to ensure high dissolved oxygen. The aim of the fed-291 batch process was to avoid substrate inhibition and enhance the production of lipids by 292 feeding additional glucose. The culture with an initial volume of 1 L was first operated in batch mode with an initial glucose concentration of 50 $g.L^{-1}$. Then a specific volume of 293 glucose stock solution (1000 g.L⁻¹) was added every 24 hours up to 120 hours of fermentation 294 295 to maintain a C/N ratio in the range 70-90. Dry biomass yields increased markedly using this 296 fed-batch technique as shown in Figure 4A. This is in accordance with several authors who

have reported that biomass yield and lipid content increase when fed-batch cultures are applied. The highest dry biomass yield (82.3 g.L⁻¹) was obtained using solid state fermentation followed by fungal autolysis (SSFA) confirming the results obtained in flasks. Throughout the 120 hours fermentation period, the biomass concentrations using SSFA were higher than those using conventional yeast extract (YE) powder as the nitrogen source (80.3 g.L⁻¹). To our knowledge this is the first report where an alternative to yeast extract and ammonium sulfate is used as nitrogen source for the growth of *R. toruloides* Y4.

Moreover, the remaining FAN concentrations were lower than 50 mg.L⁻¹ in the bioreactors after 72 hours (Figure 4B), which meant that FAN consumption and therefore growth were enhanced in the oxygen rich medium. The rate of FAN uptake was higher in the bioreactor than in flasks with more than 80% of the FAN being consumed within 24 hours for each nitrogen source.

310

The amount of biomass produced using solid state fermentation followed by fungal autolysis (SSFA) and liquid state fungal pre-treatment followed by fungal autolysis (LSFA) and commercial enzymes(CE) pretreatments were significantly higher than those produced by liquid state fungal pre-treatment (LSF) or liquid state pre-treatment using enzymatic broth (EB). In order to shed more light on these differences, total nitrogen in each medium was measured.

317

318 3.4. FAN and Total Nitrogen (TN) content of fermentation media

319 The initial FAN concentrations from each pretreatment were adjusted before the fermentation

320 to be equal and it was observed that the FAN consumption rates were similar to each other.

321 However, the initial total nitrogen concentrations from solid state fermentation autolysis

322 pretreatment (SSFA), fungal autolysis pretreatment (LSFA) and commercial protease(CE) pretreatment were 1747, 1675 and 1604 mg.L⁻¹, respectively, giving rise to an initial C/N ratio 323 324 of approximately 15. TN concentrations of the solutions coming from fungal enzyme broth (EB) and liquid state fungal (LSF) pretreatments were only 762 and 730 mg.L⁻¹, respectively 325 326 (Figure 5), corresponding to an initial C/N ratio of approximately 32. The difference in 327 growth profile in flasks and bioreactor was therefore due to the difference of TN in these two 328 latter media. This shows that the yeast requires not only amino acids, but that the growth was 329 significantly enhanced when other sources of nitrogen were also present, such as inorganic 330 nitrogen, peptides or proteins. The results have demonstrated that the media from SSFA and 331 LSFA have a good balance of amino nitrogen, organic and inorganic nitrogen for the growth 332 of the yeast compared to the media from LSF and EB. Figure 5 also shows that the autolysis 333 step carried out for the SSFA and LSFA media was essential for the release of these beneficial 334 nitrogen sources. The high amount of nitrogen was beneficial for the rapid growth of R. 335 toruloides Y4.

336

337 *3.5 Lipid content and composition*

In order to investigate the production of lipids in *R. toruloides* Y4 growing in these nitrogenrich fermentation media, lipid content and composition of the fatty acids were analyzed.

340

At the end of the 120-hours-long fed-batch fermentation in the 1L bioreactor, dry cell biomass reached 82.3 g.L⁻¹, while intracellular lipid content was 48.1% (w/w) using the SSFA medium (Table 1). The dry cell biomass and lipid content from the YE medium was 80.3 g.L⁻¹ and 65%, respectively. It should be borne in mind that the lipids start to accumulate within the cells when the nitrogen source is exhausted. Since the TN content in YE was lower than that in the media from LSFA and SSFA it is possible that the yeast started to accumulate lipids sooner, which is why their lipid content was slightly higher. However, the total dry cell
weight was lower in the YE medium. This shows that there is a trade-off between the number
of cells, which depends on the initial nitrogen content, and the lipid content that these cells
can accumulate given the final assimilable nitrogen and carbon content, i.e. the C/N ratio.

351

There are several publications describing fed-batch cultivation for microbial lipid production using yeast extract, peptone, nitrate or ammonium sulphate. A rich medium containing yeast extract and/or peptone is generally used to grow the inoculum, while the production medium generally contains an inorganic source because it is much cheaper [22]. However, it has been found that *R. toruloides* Y4 accumulated more lipids when an organic nitrogen source was employed [23]. Organic nitrogen improves both cell growth and lipid accumulation, while inorganic nitrogen is more beneficial in biomass accumulation [24].

359

Pan et al. [25] used a feeding medium containing glucose (600 g.L⁻¹) and yeast extract (20 360 g.L⁻¹) and obtained a final lipid content of 40%. In another study, an initial medium of glucose 361 (32.5 g.L^{-1}) and ammonium sulphate (6.1 g.L^{-1}) was used in a fed-batch process using 362 *Cryptococcus curvatus* and a cell density of 70 g.L⁻¹ and a lipid content of 53% were obtained 363 364 after 172 hours fermentation. Zhu et al. [26] used a fed-batch technique to grow Mortierella *alpina* with an initial medium containing 50 g.L⁻¹ glucose and 3 g.L⁻¹ nitrate and achieved a 365 cell density and lipid content of 35.6 g.L⁻¹ and 35%, respectively. Some of these fed-batch 366 367 processes simultaneously introduced a carbon and nitrogen source, which may not provide an 368 optimal C/N ratio for lipid accumulation.

369

Li et al. [14] obtained a cell density and lipid content of 106.5 g.L⁻¹ and 67.5% (w/w),

371 respectively, over a 134-h fermentation using *R. toruloides* Y4 in a 15 L-bioreactor. They

used a synthetic medium consisting of glucose (60 g.L⁻¹) and a very high initial concentration of peptone (15.7 g.L⁻¹) and yeast extract (15.7 g.L⁻¹) which explains why their cell density was so high. In our study a relatively high cell density of 82.3 g.L⁻¹ was obtained with only 1.7 g TN. L⁻¹ in the initial SSFA medium. Our cell density was similar to that obtained by Zhang et al [22] who cultivated *Cryptococcus curvatus* in fed-batch mode with an initial medium of glucose (60 g.L⁻¹), peptone (10 g.L⁻¹) and yeast extract (10 g.L⁻¹).

378 Fakas et al. [27] have used agro-industrial wastes containing organic nitrogen such as tomato 379 waste, corn gluten, corn steep liquor or whey concentrate to grow Cunninghamella echinulata 380 while synthetic glucose was supplemented for lipid accumulation. They observed that organic 381 nitrogen favoured glucose uptake and lipid accumulation. However, an acid hydrolysis step 382 and a neutralisation step were required to make the organic nitrogen from tomato waste 383 assimilable. The authors pointed out that an essential condition for lipid accumulation in 384 oleaginous micro-organisms was the use of nitrogen sources in limiting concentrations or the 385 use of nitrogen sources having low availability [28]. The medium derived from rapeseed 386 seems to be an ideal nitrogen source because it contains assimilable FAN required for growth 387 and also complex organic nitrogen sources. Further growth depends on the ability of the 388 microorganism to break down these sources, so as to release assimilable nitrogen. This 389 process allows for keeping a high C/N ratio for lipid production.

390

Fatty acid compositional analysis revealed that three major constituent fatty acids were palmitic acid, oleic acid and linoleic acid. Individual fatty acid distribution varied slightly according to the nitrogen sources (Table 2). The oleic acid content was above 60% when a medium derived from rapeseed meal was used, except with the CE medium, while with yeast extract the oleic acid content was 56 %. A higher palmitic acid content was obtained when YE was used compared to content in the range 14-16 % with the other media. It can be seen from

Table 2 that the composition is close to that of rapeseed oil. Based on the fatty acid analysis
data, FAMEs made from microbial oil by using rapeseed meal as N source have therefore
good potential for enhancing overall rapeseed biodiesel production.

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401 To our knowledge this is the first time that such high cell densities with high lipid content are 402 reported with the yeast R. toruloides Y4 growing on a nitrogen source derived from rapeseed 403 meal. This shows that the rapeseed meal produced in high quantities each year from biodiesel 404 plants around the world could be used to grow an oleaginous microorganism for the 405 production of oil. This could be a more sustainable option and will offer a cheaper alternative 406 than expensive nitrogen source for microbial cultivation to be cost-efficient. The use of waste 407 glycerol, another by-product from biodiesel production, would reduce further the fermentation 408 costs and could increase the overall biodiesel production from rapeseed. 409 410 In conclusion, the accessibility of the N source was improved via biological pre-treatments in 411 this study. The best strategy consisted in hydrolyzing rapeseed meal using A. oryzae followed 412 by fungal autolysis. When this novel nitrogen rich fermentation medium was used in a fed-413 batch process for lipid production using Rhodosporidium toruloides Y4, high microbial lipid

414 concentrations were obtained with a potential for biodiesel production.

415

416 **5. Acknowledgements**

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420 **6. References**

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Highlights

- Solid state fermentation and autolysis were used to obtain FAN from rapeseed meal.
- The novel fermentation medium was at least as good as conventional yeast extract.
- The Fatty Acid Methyl Esters (FAMEs) were similar to those derived from rapeseed.



Figure 1. Pretreatments used in this study to improve the accessibility of nitrogen from rapeseed

meal.



Figure 2. Effect of various pretreatments on the FAN yield from rapeseed meal.



Figure 3. (A) *R. toruloides* Y4 growth in flasks using FAN produced during various pretreatments. Data points show the averages from triplicate fermentations. (B) FAN concentration during the fermentation using N rich solutions from various pretreatments. Data points show the averages from triplicate fermentations.



Figure 4. (A) *R. toruloides* Y4 growth profiles in bioreactors using FAN produced by different pre-treatments. Data points show the averages from duplicate fermentations. (B) FAN concentration during the fermentation using N rich solutions from various pretreatments. Data points show the averages from triplicate analyses.



Figure 5. FAN and total nitrogen concentrations of N sources which were obtained from different pretreatments. Data points show the averages from at least duplicate measurement.

Table 1. Dry biomass, lipid content (% of dry biomass) and lipid yield (g lipid/g glucose consumed) obtained at the end of the fermentation in a 1 L bioreactor with different nitrogen sources.

	Dry biomass	Lipid content (%)	Lipid yield	Lipid yield		
	(g biomass/L)	(g lipid/g biomass)	(g lipid/L)	(g lipid/g glucose)		
CE	62.2±3.0	18.3±0.2	29.4±0.1	0.29		
LSF	34.8±1.7	44.2±7.0	15.4±2.4	0.15		
LSFA	77.7±3.9	54.4±3.7	42.3±2.9	0.30		
EB	31.2±3.1	41.3±5.5	12.9±1.7	0.13		
SSFA	82.3±4.3	48.1±2.5	39.6±2.1	0.28		
YE	80.3±4.0	65.5±1.6	52.5±1.3	0.24		

	Content (%, w/w)						
	CE	LSF	LSFA	EB	SSFA	YE	Rapeseed oil [29]
Myristic acid (C14:0)	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.7	1.1	0.0
Palmitic acid (C16:0)	14.8	14.7	16.2	14.0	15.8	18.3	4.2
Palmitoleic acid (C16:1)	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.1
Stearic acid (C18:0)	12.9	10.0	9.8	10.8	9.7	9.1	1.6
Oleic acid (C18:1)	56.4	63.3	62.1	64.2	61.6	59.9	59.5
Linoleic acid (C18:2)	12.1	8.1	8.7	8.1	9.3	8.8	21.5
Linolenic acid (C18:3)	2.6	2.0	1.7	2.0	1.7	1.9	8.4
Arachidic acid (C20)	-	0.4	0.2	-	0.1	0.3	0.4
Behenic acid (C22)	-	0.4	-	-	0.2	-	0.3
Lignoceric acid (C24)	-	0.4	-	-	0.4	-	0.1

Table 2. Fatty acids composition of FAME derived from lipids of *R. toruloides* Y4 using glucose

 and novel nitrogen rich media derived from rapeseed meal.