CELLULASE AND XYLANASE-PRODUCING Trichoderma asperellum AND Rhizopus oryzae FOR EFFECTIVE SACCHARIFICATION OF OIL PALM FROND LEAVES BY SOLID-STATE FERMENTATION

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#### ABSTRACT

Cellulase, xylanase and pectinase contribute almost 20% to the world enzyme market. The growing demand for cellulases and xylanases in lignocellulosic degradation and reutilization has instigated the need for their improved production at a low cost. This study, therefore, evaluated oil palm frond leaves (OPFL) as a cheap and sustainable growth substrate for two novel fungi species to produce cellulase and xylanase under solid-state fermentation (SSF). Morphology, 18S rRNA, phylogeny and BIOLOG® analyses identified the cellulase and xylanase-producing fungal strains as Trichoderma asperellum UC1 and *Rhizopus oryzae* UC2. While UC2 is robust and fast-growing, its enzyme production rate is slower and sustained; in contrast, strain UC1 showed a higher production rate of the same enzymes. Using the one variable at a time (OVAT) method, optimised fermentation parameters for strain UC1 (30 °C, 60-80 % moisture content,  $2.5 \times 10^6$ spores/g inoculum size, 6.0-12.0 pH) and strain UC2 (30 °C, 40 % moisture content, 2.0  $\times 10^8$  spores/g inoculum size, 6.0-12.0 pH) resulted in a corresponding 2.7, 2.6, 1.1, 1.7 (strain UC1) and a 2.3, 3.3, 1.2 and 1.0 (UC2)-fold increase in CMCase, FPase, βglucosidase and xylanase maximum activities. Cellulases and xylanase were produced within a broad pH range between pH 4.0-12.0. Proteome analysis using SDS-PAGE, of the enzyme complexes from *in situ* hydrolysis of raw OPFL under SSF by strain UC1 and UC2 revealed existence of four endo- $\beta$ -1,4-xylanases and endoglucanases, as well as one exoglucanase and  $\beta$ -glucosidase each for strain UC1 and one endo- $\beta$ -1,4-xylanase, endoglucanase, exoglucanase as well as three  $\beta$ -glucosidases for strain UC2. Compositional and structural analysis (FESEM) of OPFL before and after in situ hydrolysis confirmed their degradation, that resulted in 31.16 % and 75.5 % hydrolysis efficiency for strain UC1 and UC2 enzymes. Furthermore, the enzyme complexes from both strains showed thermophilic and acidophilic characteristics at 50-60 °C and pH 3.0-5.0. Glucose (16.87 and 26.74 mg/g) and fructose (18.09 and 50.83 mg/g) were among the dominant fermentable sugar products from the hydrolysis of OPFL, aside from cellobiose (105.92 and 58.31mg/g) and xylose (1.08 and 1.44 mg/g), by strain UC1 and UC2 respectively. Thermal and pH stability tests for their enzyme cocktails revealed halflives for UC1 CMCase, FPase,  $\beta$ -glucosidase and xylanase to be 15.18, 4.06, 17.47, 15.16 h at 60 °C, as well as 64.59, 25.14, 68.59 and 19.20 h at pH 4.0; UC2 - 5.13, 1.48, 18.81, 9.23 h when incubated at 60 °C and 27.55, 12.23, 18.26, 4.43 h at pH 4.0. Optimisation using response surface methodology resulted in maximum activities of CMCase (126.87 U/g), FPase (85.53 U/g) and xylanase (215.42 U/g) under optimised SSF conditions (30 °C,  $2.0 \times 10^7$  spores/g, 75 % moisture content, pH 6.0) and  $\beta$ -glucosidase (131.76 U/g) at 32 °C,  $2.0 \times 10^7$  spores/g, 50 % moisture content at pH 12.0. Enzymatic saccharification on ultrasonicated OPFL yielded 1240 mg/g of total reducing sugar as well as 56.21, 72.68 and 43.83 mg/g of glucose, xylose and cellobiose. The enzymes also enhanced the clarification of orange juice and rising of dough by 82–88 % and 1.7–2.0-fold. Based on the findings, it was apparent that T. asperellum UC1 and R. oryzae UC2 are robust producers of cellulolytic and xylanolytic enzymes using OPFL as the main SSF substrate for the production of large quantities of reducing sugars.

#### ABSTRAK

Selulase, xilanase dan pektinase menyumbang hampir 20% kepada pasaran enzim dunia. Permintaan yang tinggi terhadap selulase dan xilanase dalam degradasi dan pengggunaan semula lignoselulosa telah mendorong kepada keperluan bagi penghasilannya yang lebih baik pada kos yang rendah. Oleh itu, kajian ini telah mengenalpasti daun pelepah kelapa sawit (OPFL) sebagai substrat pertumbuhan yang murah dan mudah didapati untuk dua spesies kulat bagi menghasilkan selulase dan xilanase di bawah fermentasi bentuk pepejal (SSF). Analisa morfologi, 18S rRNA, filogeni dan BIOLOG® mengenalpasti strain kulat penghasil selulase dan xilanase sebagai Trichoderma asperellum UC1 dan Rhizopus oryzae UC2. Walaupun UC2 merupakan strain yang lasak dan tumbuh cepat, kadar pengeluaran enzimnya lebih lambat dan lama; sebaliknya, strain UC1 menunjukkan pengeluaran yang lebih tinggi untuk enzim yang sama. Menggunakan kaedah satu pemboleh ubah pada satu waktu (OVAT), parameter fermentasi yang optimum untuk strain UC1 (30 °C, 60–80 %, kadar kelembapan,  $2.5 \times$ 10<sup>6</sup> spora/g berat inokulum, pH 6.0–12.0) dan strain UC2 (30 °C, 40 % kadar kelembapan,  $2.0 \times 10^8$  spora/g berat inokulum, pH 6.0-12.0) menghasilkan 2.7, 2.6, 1.1, 1.7 (strain UC1) dan masing-masing 2.3, 3.3, 1.2, dan 1.0 (UC2) kali ganda peningkatan aktiviti maksimum CMCase, FPase,  $\beta$ -glukosidase dan xilanase. Selain itu, selulase dan xilanase dihasilkan dalam sela pH yang luas iaitu antara pH 4.0-12.0. Analisis protein SDS-PAGE ke atas kompleks enzim mendapati dari hidrolisis in situ OPFL mentah oleh strain UC1 dan UC2 di bawah SSF menunjukkan kehadiran empat endo-\beta-1,4-xilanase dan endoglukanase, serta satu exoglukanase dan β-glukosidase untuk strain UC1 dan satu endo- $\beta$ -1,4-xylanase, endoglukanase, exoglukanase serta tiga  $\beta$ -glukosidase untuk strain UC2. Analisis komposisi dan struktur (FESEM) OPFL sebelum dan selepas hidrolisis in situ mengesahkan degradasi tersebut menghasilkan 31.16 % dan 75.5 % efisiensi hidrolisis untuk strain UC1 dan UC2. Selain itu, kompleks enzim dari kedua-dua strain menunjukkan ciri-ciri termofilik dan asidofilik pada suhu 50-60 °C dan pH 3.0-5.0. Glukosa (16.87 dan 26.74 mg/g) dan fruktosa (18.09 dan 50.83 mg/g) adalah di antara produk gula fermentasi dominan dari hidrolisis OPFL, selain dari selobiosa (105.92 dan 58.31 mg/g) dan xylosa (1.08 dan 1.44 mg/g) oleh strain UC1 dan UC2. Ujian stabiliti termal dan pH untuk koktail enzim mendedahkan separuh-hayat untuk UC1 CMCase, FPase,  $\beta$ -glukosidase dan xilanase adalah 15.18, 4.06, 17.47, 15.16 jam pada 60 °C, serta 64.59, 25.14, 68.59 dan 19.20 jam pada pH 4.0; UC2 - 5.13, 1.48, 18.81, 9.23 jam apabila dieram pada 60 °C dan 27.55, 12.23, 18.26, 4.43 jam pada pH 4.0. Pengoptimuman menggunakan kaedah respon permukaan menghasilkan aktiviti maksimum CMCase (126.87 U/g), FPase (85.53 U/g) dan xilanase (215.42 U/g) di bawah keadaan SSF optimum (30 °C,  $2.0 \times 10^7$  spora/g, 75 % kadar kelembapan, pH 6.0) dan  $\beta$ -glukosidase (131.76 U/g) pada 32 °C, 2.0 × 10<sup>7</sup> spora/g, 50 % kadar kelembapan pada pH 12.0. Sakarifikasi enzimatik ke atas OPFL ultrasonikasi menghasilkan 1240 mg/g jumlah gula penurunan serta 56.21, 72.68 dan 43.83 mg/g glukosa, xilosa dan selobiosa. Enzim-enzim turut meningkatkan klarifikasi jus oren dan kenaikan doh sebanyak 82-88 % dan 1.7-2.0 kali ganda. Berdasarkan penemuan tersebut, jelas menunjukkan T. asperellum UC1 and R. oryzae UC2 adalah pengeluar enzim selulolitik dan xilanolitik yang kuat dengan menggunakan OPFL sebagai substrat utama SSF bagi menghasilkan gula penurunan dalam jumlah yang besar.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

## TITLE

DEC	LARATION	ii
DED	ICATION	iii
ACK	NOWLEDGEMENT	iv
ABST	ГКАСТ	v
ABS	ГКАК	vi
TAB	LE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST	OF TABLES	xiii
LIST	OF FIGURES	XV
LIST	<b>OF ABBREVIATIONS</b>	xxi
LIST	<b>OF SYMBOLS</b>	xxiii
LIST	OF APPENDICES	XXV
CHAPTER 1	INTRODUCTION	1
1.1	Background of Study	1
1.2	Problem Statement	4
1.3	Aim of Research	5
1.4	Research Objectives	5
1.5	Scopes of Study	6
1.6	Significance of Study	8
CHAPTER 2	LITERATURE REVIEW	9
2.0	Introduction	9
2.1	Lignocellulosic Biomass (LCB) and its Availability	9
2.2	Oil Palm Biomass (OPB)	10
2.3	Brief History of Oil Palm in Malaysia	11
2.4	Availability of the Oil Palm Biomass (OPB) in Malaysia	11
2.5	Structural Organization of Lignocellulosic Biomass	14

2.6	Major Constituents of the Lignocellulosic Biomass in OPFL	2
	2.6.1 Cellulose	2
	2.6.2 Hemicellulose	3
2.7	Lignocellulose-degrading Organisms	5
2.8	Enzymatic Hydrolysis of Cellulose	10
	2.8.1 Carbohydrate-Binding Module	13
	2.8.2 Cellulosomes-Multienzyme Complexes	15
2.9	Enzymatic Hydrolysis of Hemicellulose (Xylan)	16
2.10	Solid State Fermentation (SSF)	19
	2.10.1 Trend of Fungal Growth on Substrate under SSF 21	
2.11	Pretreatment of Lignocellulose	22
2.12	SSF Process Parameters that Influence the Production of Cellulolytic and Xylanolytic Enzymes	27
	2.12.1 Moisture Content	27
	2.12.2 Incubation Time	28
	2.12.3 Incubation Temperature	28
	2.12.4 Incubation pH	29
2.13	Assay of Cellulolytic and Xylanolytic Fungi	42
	2.13.1 Qualitative Assay	42
	2.13.2 Quantitative Assay	42
2.14	Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)	43
2.15	Field Emission Electron Scanning Microscopy (FESEM)	44
2.16	Response Surface Methodology (RSM)	44
	2.16.1 Box-Behnken Design (BBD	46
2.17	Applications of cellulases and xylanase in various industries	48
	2.17.1 Pulp and Paper Industry	48
	2.17.2 Wine and Brewery Industry	49
	2.17.3 Agricultural Industries	49
	2.17.4 Food Industry	50
	2.17.5 Textile Industry	50

	2.17.6 Environmental/Waste Management	51
2.18	Summary	51
CHAPTER 3	<b>RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b>	53
3.1	Introduction	53
3.2	Research Flow Chart	54
3.3	Sampling	55
3.4	Isolation and Maintenance of Organisms	55
3.5	Qualitative Determination of Cellulase and Xylanase Activity	56
3.6	Macro and Microscopic Characterisation	57
3.7	Growth Profiling using Mycelia Dry Weight Measurement	57
3.8	Genomic DNA Extraction, PCR Amplification, Sequencing and Analysis of ITS Gene	58
3.9	Phylogenetic Analysis of 18S rRNA Gene and BIOLOG <sup>TM</sup> GEN III Micro Plate Identification	58
3.10	Characterisation of OPFL	59
	3.10.1 Production of Cellulolytic and Xylanolytic Enzymes by Solid State Fermentation using OPFL as Substrate	60
3.11	Extraction of Crude Cellulases and Xylanase and Determination of Cellulase and Xylanase Activity	61
	3.11.1 Endoglucanase Activity Assay	62
	3.11.2 Xylanase Activity Assay	62
	3.11.3 Exoglucanase Activity Assay	63
	3.11.4 B-glucosidase Activity Assay	63
	3.11.5 Protein assay	63
3.12	Optimisation of SSF Parameters for Cellulase and Xylanase Production and <i>in situ</i> Hydrolysis of Raw OPFL	64
	3.12.1 Total Reducing Sugar (TRS) and total Soluble Protein (TSP) Assay	64
	3.12.2 High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) 65	
	3.12.3 Sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE)	65

	3.12.4 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy FESEM on Fermented OPFL	66
3.13	Assay for Physicochemical Properties of Enzymes	66
	3.13.1 Optimum pH and pH Stability	66
	3.13.2 Optimum Temperature and Temperature Stability 67	
3.14	Statistical Analysis	67
3.15	Statistical Optimisation of Cellulase and Xylanase Production by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 and <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2	67
3.16	Applications of Cellulase and Xylanase	70
	3.16.1 Enzyme Saccharification of Ultra-Sonicated OPFL 70	
	3.16.2 Clarification of Orange Juice	70
	3.16.3 Dough Rising	71
CHAPTER 4	<b>RESULTS AND DISCUSSION</b>	72
4.1	Macro and Microscopic Characterisation of Fungal Isolates	72
4.2	Identification of Fungal Isolates by 18S rRNA, Phylogenetic Tree and BIOLOG GEN III Micro Plate	76
4.3	Qualitative Determination of Cellulase and Xylanase Activity	84
4.4	Cellulase and Xylanase Production Profile	87
4.5	Growth Monitoring Using Mycelia Dry Weight Measurement	90
4.6	Optimisation of SSF Conditions for Cellulase and Xylanase Production by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 and <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 using OPFL as Substrate.	91
	4.6.1 Effect of Incubation Temperature	91
	4.6.2 Effect of Inoculums Size	94
	4.6.3 Effect of Initial Fermentation Moisture Content	
		98
	4.6.4 Effect of Initial Fermentation pH	104
4.7	Assessing the Time Profile of Enzyme Production	108
4.8	Parameters Affecting Activity and Stability of Crude Enzyme Cocktails	112
	4.8.1 Effect of Temperature	113

	4.8.2	Thermostability of Cellulase and Xylanase Produced by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 and <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2	114
	4.8.3	Effect of pH	119
	4.8.4	pH stability of Cellulase and Xylanase Produced by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 and <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2	121
4.9	Qualit	ative Proteome Analysis	127
4.10	Relati Total	onship between Fungal Biomass Production and Reducing Sugar Generation	129
4.11	Asses situ H	sment of Specific Generated Sugars from the <i>In</i> ydrolysis of OPFL under SSF	131
4.12	Comp Before	ositional and Structural Analysis of OPFL e and after SSF	133
	4.12.1	Hydrolysis Efficiency of OPFL Biomass	133
	4.12.2	2 Surface Morphology (FESEM)	135
	4.12.3	Relationship Between Cellulase and Xylanase Activity Profile and Total Reducing Sugar Generation	138
4.13	RSM Produ	Optimization of Cellulase and Xylanase ction	140
4.14	Effect Xylan	of Experimental Variables on CMCase, FPase, ase and $\beta$ -glucosidase Activity	147
4.15	Intera xylana	ctive Effects of Variables on the CMCase, FPase, ase and $\beta$ -Glucosidase Activity	147
	4.15.1	CMCase Activity	147
	4.15.2	2 FPase Activity	149
	4.15.3	Xylanase Activity	151
	4.15.4	β-glucosidase Activity	156
4.16	Mode	l Validation	161
4.17	Sugar	Profile from OPFL Enzymatic Hydrolysis	163
4.18	Effect of Ora	s of Cellulase and Xylanase in the Clarification ange Juice	166
4.19	Effect	of Xylanase on Dough Rising	169
4.20	Summ	nary of Findings	170

# CHAPTER 5 GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORKS 173

5.1	Conclusion	173
5.2	Recommendations for Future Works	174
REFERENCES		176

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS	228
	220

## LIST OF TABLES

TABLE NO.	TITLE	PAGE
Table 2.1	Comparison of Chemical Composition of Oil Palm Fibres with Other Agricultural Wastes.	1
Table 2.2	Cellulolytic and xylanolytic microorganisms (Gilbert & Hazlewood, 1993; Juturu & Wu, 2012; Saini, <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	7
Table 2.3	Major differences between bacteria and fungi cellulase systems (Howard <i>et al.</i> , 2003).	9
Table 2.4	Cellulases, functions and their corresponding glycosyl hydrolase enzyme families	12
Table 2.5	Xylanases, functions and their corresponding glycosyl hydrolase and carbohydrate esterase enzyme families (Collins et al., 2005; Polizeli et al., 2005)	17
Table 2.6	Common Lignocellulosic Pre-treatment Methods	24
Table 2.7	Water Requirements of Some Fungi (Kach, 2008)	28
Table 2.8	Recent reports on cellulase and xylanase production by fungal strains, with details of substrates and fermentation parameters used	30
Table 2.9	Coded levels for independent variables in Box-Behnken designs for an optimisation experiment involving three-level four variables.	47
Table 3.1	Actual and coded independent variables for CMCase, FPase, xylanase and $\beta$ -glucosidase production under SSF	69
Table 4.1	Extensive biochemical characterization of strain $T$ . asperellum UC1 on its carbon source utilisation using BIOLOG <sup>TM</sup> GEN III Micro- plate	80
Table 4 .2	Biochemical characterisation of strain <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 on its carbon source utilisation using BIOLOG <sup>TM</sup> GEN III Microplate	82
Table 4.3	Profile of cellulase and xylanase activity at various initial moisture content (%) produced by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 under SSF	100

Table 4.4	Profile of cellulase and xylanase activity at various initial moisture content (%) produced by <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 under SSF	101
Table 4.5	Comparison of cellulase and xylanase productions by Trichoderma asperellum UC1 and <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 with other fungi under SSF	110
Table 4.6	Cost economics for the production of 3 L of crude cellulase and xylanase using OPFL as substrate under SSF.	112
Table 4.7	pH stability of crude CMCase, FPase and $\beta$ -glucosidase produced by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 under optimal SSF conditions	124
Table 4.8	pH stability of crude CMCase, FPase and $\beta$ -glucosidase produced by <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 under optimal SSF conditions	125
Table 4.9	pH stability of crude xylanase produced by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 and <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 under optimal SSF conditions	126
Table 4.10	Total reducing sugar (TRS) and total soluble protein (TSP) concentrations of <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 crude enzyme cocktail cultivated on OPFL under SSF	130
Table 4.11	Total reducing sugar (TRS) and total soluble protein (TSP) concentrations of <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 crude enzyme cocktail cultivated on OPFL under SSF	130
Table 4.12	Cellulase, xylanase activities and total reducing sugar concentrations produced by <i>Trichoderma asperellum</i> UC1 under SSF	139
Table 4.13	Cellulase, xylanase activities and total reducing sugar concentrations produced by <i>Rhizopus oryzae</i> UC2 under SSF	139
Table 4.14	Experimental and predicted values of CMCase, FPase and xylanase produced by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 using the BBD	141
Table 4.15	Experimental and predicted values of $\beta$ -glucosidase produced by <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 using the BBD	143
Table 4.16	ANOVA for the quadratic polynomial models and coefficient values of the BBD for CMCase, FPase, xylanase activity by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 and $\beta$ -glucosidase activity by <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 under SSF	146
Table 4.17	Validation of the models for optimum SSF conditions for CMCase, FPase, xylanase and $\beta$ -glucosidase production	162

## LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE NO	. TITLE	PAGE
Figure 2.1	Availability of Oil Palm Biomass (Adapted from Abdullah, 2015).	13
Figure 2.2	A schematic diagram of the oil palm tree illustrating the different parts and highlighting the component parts that make up the oil palm frond.	13
Figure 2.3	Structural arrangement of the lignocellulosic biomass (adapted from Kumar et al., 2009).	14
Figure 2.4	The cellulose polymer.	2
Figure 2.5	The hemicellulose polymer.	4
Figure 2.6	Lignin polymer.	5
Figure 2.7	Enzymatic cellulose degradation model (Dutta & Wu, 2014).	11
Figure 2.8	Mechanism of cellulose breakdown by cellulase.	13
Figure 2.9	General schematic diagram of the cellulosome and structural units. Abbreviations: CD, catalytic domain; Dock I, dockerin type I; Coh I, cohesin type I, Dock II, Dockerin type II; Coh II, cohesin type II.	15
Figure 2.10	(a) Diagram of the xylan polymer and the sites of attack by xylanolytic enzymes. The backbone of the substrate is made up of $\beta$ -(1,4)-linked xylose residues. (b) Hydrolysis of xylooligosaccharide by $\beta$ -xylosidase. $\alpha$ -araf. = ( $\alpha$ – arabinofuranose); Ac. = (Acetyl group); pcou. = (p-coumaric acid); $\alpha$ -4-O-Me-GlcUA = ( $\alpha$ -4-O-methylglucuronic acid); fer. = (ferulic acid); 1 = endo-1,4- $\beta$ -xylanase, 2 = $\beta$ -D-xylosidase, 3 = $\alpha$ –L-arabinofuranosidase, 4 = $\alpha$ -D-glucuronidase, 5 = acetylxylan esterase, 6 = p-coumaric acid or ferulic acid esterase. Adapted from Collins et al. (2005).	19
Figure 2.11	Fungal growth on SSF substrate and their relationship between substrate and hyphae, moisture phase and gas phase (Mitchell, 2006).	22
Figure 2.12	Structure of glucose, a reducing sugar, showing the free carbonyl group.	43
Figure 2.13	Graphical representations of BBD for the optimization SSF	46

Figure 3.1	Research operational flowchart	54
Figure 3.2	Decaying oil palm empty fruit bunch sample	55
Figure 3.3	Isolation of fungi from OPEFB using PDA (a) and (b).	56
Figure 3.4	Sterile substrates (ground OPFL) mixed with the production media before inoculation with fungal spores.	61
Figure 4.1	(a) Plate images of <i>Trichoderma asperellum</i> UC1 and (b) <i>Rhizopus oryzae</i> UC2, showing their macroscopic features after 24, 48, 72, 96 and 120 h of incubation at 30 °C.	74
Figure 4.2	SEM of <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 (a, b, c) and <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 (d, e, f) with 'Topological' description of spore ornamentation patterns at magnifications a $\times$ 5000, b, c, e $\times$ 2500, d $\times$ 10,000, f $\times$ 150. The distribution of three regions are indicated: valleys (V), ridges (R), and polar areas (P).	75
Figure 4.3	(a) Phylogenetic tree of 18S rRNA sequence obtained for <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 (MF774876) using sequences of other <i>Trichoderma</i> species from GenBank database, with <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 strain (MF767597) as outgroup; (b) Phylogenetic tree of 18S rDNA sequence obtained for <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 (MF767597) using sequences of other <i>Rhizopus</i> species and an outgroup ( <i>Smittium culisetae</i> strain MF767597) from GenBank database. Scale bar represents 0.05 substitutions per site.	78
Figure 4.4	Qualitative assay for a(i) cellulase activity of <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 on CMC–agar plates with Gram's iodine staining; a(ii) xylanase activity of <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 on xylan–agar plates with Congo red staining; b(i) cellulase activity of <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 on CMC– agar plates with Gram's iodine staining; b(ii) xylanase activity of <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 on xylan–agar plates with Congo red staining; c(i) control for cellulase activity, c(ii) control for xylanase activity.	86
Figure 4.5	Profile of cellulase and xylanase production by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 [a(i) and a(ii)] and <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 [b(i) and b(ii)] under SSF using OPFL as the sole carbon source.	89
Figure 4.6	Effect of temperature on cellulase and xylanase production by (a) <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 and (b) <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 at 30 °C. Experiments were carried out using inoculum size ( $2.0 \times 10^8$ spores/g) and pH (5.2), conditions. *Statistically significant with $\rho < 0.01$ . Bars represent standard deviation (n = 3). Factorial ANOVA with Tukey Kramer post hoc test with the significant level of 0.05 was used to determine the	

significant differences among groups of incubation temperature (30, 35, 40 °C) from day 1-7.

- Figure 4.7 (a) Profile of CMCase, FPase,  $\beta$ -glucosidase and xylanase production by T. asperellum UC1 cultivated in OPFL under SSF, investigated on day 5 using inoculum sizes  $1.25 \times 10^5$ .  $2.5 \times 10^{6}$ ,  $5.0 \times 10^{7}$ ,  $1.0 \times 10^{8}$  and  $2.0 \times 10^{8}$  spores/g of OPFL and (b) Time courses of CMCase, FPase, βglucosidase and xylanase production by T. asperellum UC1 under SSF using optimum inoculum size of  $2.5 \times 10^6$ spores/g of OPFL. Experiments were carried out at constant temperature (30 °C), moisture content (80 %) and pH (5.2) conditions. \*Statistically significant with  $\rho < 0.05$ . Bars represent standard deviation (n = 3). Factorial ANOVA with Tukey Kramer post hoc test with the significant level of 0.05 was used to determine the significant differences among groups  $(1.25 \times 10^5, 2.5 \times 10^6, 5.0 \times 10^7, 1.0 \times 10^8)$ and  $2.0 \times 10^8$  spores/g) from day 1-7.
- Figure 4.8 (a) Profile of CMCase, FPase,  $\beta$ -glucosidase and xylanase production by *R. oryzae UC2* cultivated in OPFL under SSF, investigated on day 5 (CMCase, FPase, xylanase) and day 6 ( $\beta$ -glucosidase) using inoculum sizes  $1.25 \times 10^5$ ,  $2.5 \times 10^6$ ,  $5.0 \times 10^7$ ,  $1.0 \times 10^8$  and  $2.0 \times 10^8$  spores/g of OPFL and, (b) time course profile of CMCase, FPase,  $\beta$ -glucosidase and xylanase productions under an optimum inoculum size ( $2.0 \times 108$  spores/g of OPFL). [Constant experimental conditions: 30 °C, 40 % moisture content, pH 5.2]. \*Statistically significant with  $\rho < 0.05$ . Bars represent standard deviation (n = 3). Factorial ANOVA with Tukey Kramer post hoc test was used to determine the significant differences among groups ( $1.25 \times 10^5$ ,  $2.5 \times 10^6$ ,  $5.0 \times 10^7$ ,  $1.0 \times 10^8$  and  $2.0 \times 10^8$  spores/g) from day 1-7
- Figure 4.9 Effect of initial fermentation moisture content on CMCase, FPase,  $\beta$ -glucosidase and xylanase production by *T*. *asperellum* UC1 under SSF at (a) 60 % (optimum for  $\beta$ glucosidase) and (b) 80 % (optimum for CMCase, FPase and xylanase) moisture:substrate ratio. Experiments were carried out at constant temperature (30 °C), inoculum size ( $2.5 \times 10^6$  spores/g) and pH (5.2), conditions. \*Statistically significant with  $\rho < 0.01$ . Bars represent standard deviation (n = 3). Factorial ANOVA with Tukey Kramer post hoc test with the significant level of 0.05 was used to determine the significant differences among groups of moisture content (40-90 %) from day 1-7.
- Figure 4.10 Effect of initial fermentation moisture content on CMCase, FPase,  $\beta$ -glucosidase and xylanase production by *R. oryzae* UC2 under SSF. (a) 40 % moisture content. [Constant experimental conditions: 30 °C, inoculum size 2.0 × 10<sup>8</sup>

97

96

102

spores/g, pH 5.2]. \*Statistically significant with  $\rho < 0.05$ . Bars represent standard deviation (n = 3). Factorial ANOVA with Tukey Kramer post hoc test was used to determine the significant differences among groups of moisture content (40–90 %) from day 1-7.

- Figure 4.11 Effect of optimal initial pH of fermentation for CMCase, FPase,  $\beta$ -glucosidase and xylanase production by *T. asperellum* UC1 under SSF at (a) pH 6 (optimum for CMCase and Fpase) (b) pH 9 (optimum for xylanase) and (c) pH 12 (optimum for  $\beta$ -glucosidase). Experiments were carried out constant temperature (30 °C), inoculum size (2.5 × 106 spores/g) and moisture content conditions (60 % -  $\beta$ glucosidase and 80 % - CMCase, FPase, xylanase). \*Statistically significant with  $\rho$  < 0.01. Bars represent standard deviation (n = 3). Factorial ANOVA with Tukey Kramer post hoc test with the significant level of 0.05 was used to determine the significant differences among groups (initial pH 4.0–12.0) from day 1-7.
- Figure 4.12 Effect of initial fermentation pH on enzyme production by *R. oryzae* UC2 under SSF. (a) pH 6 (CMCase and Fpase) (b) pH 12 ( $\beta$ -glucosidase) and (c) pH 8 (xylanase). [Constant experimental conditions: temperature 30 °C, inoculum size 2.0 × 10<sup>8</sup>, moisture content 40 % \*Statistically significant with  $\rho$  < 0.05. Bars represent standard deviation (n = 3). Factorial ANOVA with Tukey Kramer post hoc test was used to determine the significant differences among groups (initial pH 4.0–12.0).
- Figure 4.13 Optimum temperature of CMCase, FPase, β-glucosidase and xylanase produced by (a) *T. asperellum* UC1 and (b) *R. oryzae* UC2, expressed in terms of relative activity (%). The highest enzyme activity was taken as 100%. Experiments on optimum temperature were investigated at constant pH (5.0).
- Figure 4.14 Thermal stability of CMCase, FPase,  $\beta$ -glucosidase and xylanase produced by *T. asperellum* UC1 assessed at (a) 30 °C, (b) 40 °C (c) 50 °C and (d) 60 °C. Activity at preincubation (t = 0) was taken as 100% and residual activities were determined using the standard assay methods
- Figure 4.15 Thermal stability of CMCase, FPase,  $\beta$ -glucosidase and xylanase produced by *R. oryzae* UC2 assessed at (a) 30 °C, (b) 40 °C (c) 50 °C and (d) 60 °C. Activity at pre-incubation (t = 0) was taken as 100% and residual activities were determined using the standard assay methods.
- Figure 4.16 Optimum (a) pH of CMCase, FPase,  $\beta$ -glucosidase and xylanase produced by (a) *T. asperellum* UC1 and (b) *R. oryzae* UC2, expressed in terms of relative activity (%).

103

106

107

117

116

118

	The highest enzyme activity was taken as $100\%$ . Experiments on optimum pH were investigated at constant temperature (50 °C).	121
Figure 4.17	SDS-PAGE gel of (a) T. asperellum UC1 and (b) R. oryzae UC2 crude enzymes; L1(Lane 1); molecular weight marker, L2(lane 2); crude enzyme samples (Endgl = endoglucanase; Exogl = exoglucanase; Bgl = $\beta$ -glucosidase; Xyl = xylanase).	128
Figure 4.18	Sugar profile of (a) <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 and (b) <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 crude enzyme cocktail cultivated on OPFL under SSF	133
Figure 4.19	FESEM micrographs of raw OPFL (a) before SSF; and (b) after SSF by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 under $2000 \times$ magnification.	136
Figure 4.20	FESEM micrographs of raw OPFL (a) before SSF; and (b) after SSF by <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 under 2000× magnification.	137
Figure 4.21	(a) Response surface plot and (b) contour plot showing the interactive effects of A: temperature and D: pH on CMCase activity as produced by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1. (inoculum size: $2 \times 10^7$ spores/g, moisture content; 75 %).	149
Figure 4.22	(a) Response surface plot and (b) contour plot showing the interactive effects of A: temperature and B: moisture content on FPase activity, as produced by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 (inoculum size: $2 \times 10^7$ spores/g, pH 6).	151
Figure 4.23	The (a) response surface and (b) contour plots showing interactive effects for A: temperature and B: moisture content on xylanase activity as produced by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 (inoculum size $2 \times 10^7$ spores/g, pH 6).	153
Figure 4.24	The (a) response surface and (b) contour plots showing interactive effects for B: moisture content and C: inoculum size on xylanase activity as produced by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 (temperature 30 °C, pH 6).	155
Figure 4.25	The (a) response surface and (b) contour plots showing interactive effects for C: inoculum size and D: pH on xylanase activity as produced by <i>T. asperellum</i> UC1 (moisture content 75 %, 30 °C).	156
Figure 4.26	The (a) response surface and (b) contour plots showing interactive effects for A: temperature and D: pH on $\beta$ -glucosidase activity as produced by <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 (moisture content 50 %, inoculum size 2 × 10 <sup>7</sup> spores/g).	158
Figure 4.27	The (a) response surface and (b) contour plots showing interactive effects for B: moisture content and C: inoculum	

	size [temp 32 °C, pH 12] on $\beta$ -glucosidase activity as produced by <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2	159
Figure 4.28	The (a) response surface and (b) contour plots showing interactive effects for B: moisture content and D: pH $\beta$ -glucosidase activity as produced by <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 (inoculum size 2 × 10 <sup>7</sup> spores/g, 32 °C).	160
Figure 4.29	Monosaccharide and cellobiose concentrations detected in hydrolysate from enzymatic hydrolysis of ultra-sonicated OPFL using crude enzyme cocktail mixture produced by <i>T</i> . <i>asperellum</i> UC1 and <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2 (40:60 v/v %). <i>Bars</i> <i>represent standard deviation</i> ( $n = 3$ ).	166
Figure 4.30	(a) The effect of the cellulolytic and xylanolytic crude enzyme cocktails produced on the clarity and (b) Clarified orange juice yield after incubation without enzyme (negative control), with crude enzyme cocktails from <i>T</i> . <i>asperellum</i> UC1 and <i>R. oryzae</i> UC2. <i>Bars represent</i> <i>standard deviation</i> ( $n = 3$ ).	168
Figure 4.31	The effects of the produced cellulolytic and xylanolytic	
	crude enzyme cocktails in improving dough rising.	170

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Adj. R <sup>2</sup>	-	Adjusted coefficient of determination
ANOVA	-	Analysis of Variance
AOAC	-	Association of Official Analytical Chemists.
BBD	-	Box-Behnken Design
BLAST	-	Basic Local Alignment Search Tool
BSA	-	Bovine Serum Albumin
CAZy	-	Carbohydrate-active enzymes
CBH	-	Cellobiohydrolase
CBMs	-	Carbohydrate-binding module
CCD	-	Central composite design
CMC	-	Carboxymethylcellulose
CMCase	-	Carboxymethylcellulase
COPD	-	Chronic obstructive pulmonary disorder
DNA	-	Deoxyribonucleic acid
DNS	-	3,5-Dinitrosalicylic acid
EFB	-	Empty fruit bunch
EI	-	Enzymatic index
FESEM	-	Field emission scanning electron microscopy
FPase	-	Filterpaperase
GH	-	Glycosyl hydrolase
HPLC	-	High performance liquid chromatography
IUPAC	-	International union of pure and applied chemistry
LCB	-	Lignocellulosic biomass
LCW	-	Lignocellulosic waste
MEGA 6	-	Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis Software
MF	-	Mesocarp fibre
OPB	-	Oil palm biomass
OPF	-	Oil palm frond
OPFL	-	Oil palm frond leaves
OPT	-	Oil palm trunk

OVAT	-	One-variable-at-a-time
OPEFB	-	Oil palm empty fruit bunch
PAHs	-	Polyaromatic hydrocarbons
PDA	-	Potato dextrose agar
PCR	-	Polymerase Chain Reaction
PDB	-	Potato dextrose broth
PKS	-	Palm kernel shell
ρΝΡ	-	P-nitrophenol
ρNPG	-	P-nitrophenyl-β, D-glucopyranoside
POME	-	Palm oil mill effluent
$\mathbb{R}^2$	-	Coefficient of determination
RID	-	Refractive index detector
RSM	-	Response surface methodology
SDS-	-	Sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
PAGE		
SEM	-	Scanning Electron Microscopy
SSF	-	Solid state liquid
TRS	-	Total reducing sugar
TSP	-	Total soluble protein
UV-Vis	-	Ultraviolet-Visible
18S rRNA	-	18 Subunit Ribosomal Deoxyribonucleic Acid

## LIST OF SYMBOLS

%	-	Percentage
°C	-	Celsius
d	-	Day
Ca	-	Calcium
h	-	Hour
kg	-	Kilogram
min	-	Minute
mL	-	Millilitre
mM	-	Millimolar
NaCl	-	Sodium Chloride
NaOH	-	Sodium Hydroxide
H <sub>2</sub> O	-	Water
$CO_2$	-	Carbon (IV) oxide
HCl	-	Hydrochloric acid
K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub>	-	Dipotassium potassium
KH <sub>2</sub> PO4	-	Monopotassium phosphate
CaCl <sub>2</sub> .2H <sub>2</sub> O	-	Calcium chloride dihydrate
MgCl <sub>2</sub> .6H <sub>2</sub> O	-	Magnesium chloride hexahydrate
MgSO <sub>4</sub> .7H <sub>2</sub> O	-	Magnesium sulphate heptahydrate
$(NH_4)_2SO_4$	-	Ammonium sulphate
kDa	-	Kilodalton
nm	-	Nanometer
rpm	-	Revolution per minute
S	-	Second
v/v	-	Volume percentage per 100 mL volume
w/v	-	Weight per volume percentage
µmol	-	Micromole
g	-	Gram
kg	-	Kilogram
U/g	-	Unit per gram

U/mL - Unit per mL

## LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX	TITLE	PAGE
Appendix A	The standard curve for glucose. for the determination of endoglucanase and exoglucanase activities	214
Appendix B	The standard curve for $\rho NP$ , for determination of $\beta$ -glucosidase	215
Appendix C	The Standard curve of xylose for the determination of xylanase activity	216
Appendix D	Determination of protein concentration- Lowry method	217
Appendix E	HPLC Calibration curves of standard (a) fructose (b) glucose (c) xylose (d) cellobiose	219
Appendix F	HPLC chromatograms for samples from <i>in situ</i> hydrolysis Str UC1, day 1-7 P[(a)-(g)] and Str UC2 day 1-7 [(h)-(n)]	221

#### **CHAPTER 1**

#### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Background of Study**

The environmental inconvenience of post-harvest agricultural lignocellulosic biomass left behind to decompose naturally is a predicament faced by many nations throughout the globe (Fritsch et al., 2017). This is because the practice of passive biomass dumping is not just an eye sore to the local community but also an environmentally unfriendly practice. Certain nations resort to using methods of open burning and chemical treatments to eliminate post-harvest biomass from the environment, but in turn, created other problems such as acid rain and emissions of greenhouse gases that further exacerbated ecological pollution (Kumar et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2017). The released gases are often toxic including carbon IV oxide, methane, nitrous oxide, polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), as well as fluorinated gases (Blasing, 2016), all of which ultimately contribute to the phenomenon of global warming.

Regionally, the undesirable effects of pollution due to the open burning of agricultural biomass have impacted populations in the Southeast region of Asia *viz*. Indonesia, Malaysia, South Thailand, Brunei and the South Philippines (Thepnuan et al., 2019). Frequent occurrences of the 'hazy season' in these regions are testaments of the gravity of such practice. Worryingly, large scale open burning consequently releases large amounts of tiny particulates (diameter  $< 2.5 \,\mu$ m, PM<sub>2.5</sub>) as well as highly toxic and carcinogenic dioxins into the atmosphere (Thepnuan et al., 2019; Weidemann et al., 2016). These substances are harmful to all living beings particularly humans. Premature deaths of as many as 3.3 million people annually have been linked to open burning worldwide, most of which were in Asia (Beelen et al., 2015; Ostro, 2016). In eastern USA, Europe and Russia, agricultural emissions make up the largest relative contribution to PM<sub>2.5</sub> (Lelieveld et al., 2015). Apart from causing the depletion

of the ozone layer, it is one of the main causal agents to the escalation of respiratory diseases among humans. Studies have shown that short, as well as long term exposure of human beings to such hazards could adversely impact human health (Lelieveld et al., 2015). Among the reported increased incidences of respiratory diseases include acute bronchial asthma, chronic bronchitis, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and other acute respiratory infections (Xing et al., 2016). Other frequently used methods for pretreatment and removal of lignocellulosic biomass, for instance, physico-chemical, chemical and biological, are far from satisfactory and yield unsustainable results.

It's evidently clear that the current practice of many nations to get rid of excess agricultural biomass is unhealthy, unsustainable as well as wasteful. Not only that, such practice does not harness the full potential of the biopolymeric components viz. lignocellulose (cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin) in the various agricultural biomass. In this context, the study believes that these plant wastes are good sources of renewable plant organic resource (Saini et al., 2015) e.g. carbohydrate polymers (cellulose and hemicellulose) and phenolic polymer (lignin). These renewable organic carbon sources can be broken down into smaller subunits i.e. simple sugars, useful as platform chemicals for manufacturing other functional materials. In fact, cellulose (30-50% of total dry matter) is a glucose polymer formed by the basic building block of glucoseglucose dimers called cellobiose, linked by  $\beta$ -1,4 glycosidic bonds. In contrary, hemicellulose (20-40% of total dry matter) is constructed of relatively shorter polymer chains of highly branched five-carbon (C5) polymer and six-carbon (C6) sugars and finally, lignin (15–25% of total dry matter), a polyphenolic constituent of plants, which make up the largest non-carbohydrate fraction of lignocellulose (Chandel et al., 2018; Ravindran & Jaiswal, 2016). These freely available and renewable sugar polymers make ideal and cost-effective effective carbon source for various applications.

For effective harvest and utilisation of sugars from complex carbohydrates, bioprospecting for exceptional microorganisms producing cellulases capable of 'benignly' degrading such multifaceted plant composite without the liberation of harmful substance, may prove useful and more practical. Not only that, the obtained sugar products can be used as platform chemicals to produce other value-added products. Specifically, focusing on isolating mesophilic (20–45 °C) cellulose and xylanase-producing fungi is a feasibly cleaner as well as more cost-effective approach to make full use of unwanted agricultural biomass. The high growth rate of fungi can effectively enhance metabolism and decomposition of the carbohydrate polymers (cellulose and hemicellulose) as well as phenolic polymers (lignin) into their basic subunits, even at ambient temperatures (Garg, 2016; Hooker et al., 2018; Shirkavand et al., 2016).

The cellulase enzyme system is divided into three main sub-groups: endoglucanases (EG), exoglucanases (cellobiohydrolases, CBH) and β-glucosidase (BGL), which belong to the EC 3.2.1.X class, while xylanase is a single-component enzyme. Cellulases include endo- $\beta$ -(1, 4)-glucanases (EC 3.2.1.4), Exo-- $\beta$ -(1, 4)glucanase (EC 3.2.1.91 and  $\beta$ -glucosidase (EC 3.2.1 21) (Kickenweiz et al., 2018; Shewale, 1982). Xylanase (endo- $\beta$ -1,4-D-xylanohydrolase; EC 3.2.1.8) is an enzyme that catalyse the hydrolysis of  $\beta$ -1,4-D-xylosidic bonds in xylan, the major component of hemicellulose in plant cell walls. Highly prolific fungi producing such enzymes have been reported for the Trichoderma and Aspergillus species. Trichoderma asperellum and Rhizopus oryzae, being a traditional bio-control species and food fermenter respectively, have been biotechnologically explored for their enzymeproducing abilities. This quality seems responsible for their exceptional environmental expedience stretching from saprotrophy to biotrophy (Kwon et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015). The study also believes the synergistic breakdown of agricultural biomass by the aforementioned fungal enzymes can be further enhanced using solid-state fermentation (SSF). The use of SSF is advantageous as the method: can ease enzyme recovery, cost effective, yields high concentrations of products and produces less effluent, thus less polluting (Behera & Ray, 2016). However, this process is presently faced with some limitations, especially in large scale applications, for instance, the build-up of heat, limited oxygen transfer, limited pH control, mass and heat transfer. Others include challenges include the accurate measurement of microbial growth and kinetics (Manan and Webb, 2017). These fungal enzymes synergistically catalyse the complete hydrolysis of plant biomass into their basic sugar components (Behera & Ray, 2016; Ryu & Mandels, 1980) or mineralization to H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> (Metreveli et al.,

2017) whose products can be used for manufacturing other important compounds (Alrumman, 2016).

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

Considering the unsustainable methods used to dispose or reutilise unwanted agricultural biomass, (Hassan et al., 2018), the high cost of lignocellulolytic enzymes due to the lack of sufficient and prolific fungal producers of cellulases and xylanases (da Silva et al., 2018), alongside limitations in current SSF technique to obtain large quantities of fungal enzymes, the quest for greener and cleaner alternative strategies to alleviate such issue merits global attention. Newly developed strategies should enable mankind to fully harvest and utilise the renewable organic carbon locked within the various lignocellulosic agricultural biomass worldwide. While lignocellulosic biomass is a renewable and abundant resource with great potential for bioconversion to value-added by-products, such an endeavour remained economically unfavourable due to the prohibitively high production costs of commercial cellulases and hemicellulases, essential for converting lignocellulosic biomass into valuable products such as fermentable sugars, biofuel etc., as well as the lack of robust cellulolytic and xylanolytic microbes (especially fungi) to produce these efficient enzymes (Saritha et al., 2015).

Herein, the study proposes a strategy to bioprospect for cellulase and xylanaseproducing mesophilic fungal strains that can efficaciously degrade the carbohydrate polymers (cellulose and xylan) and subsequently permit the harvesting of valuable sugar components. This study was focused on reducing the high production cost of producing fungal cellulase and xylanase by capitalizing on cheap and abundant renewable materials i.e. oil palm frond leaves (OPFL) (without the petioles) biomass as the substrate for SSF to cultivate the new isolated fungal strains to yield high quantities of cellulases. OPFL was chosen as Malaysia is the second largest producer of oil palm in the world, constantly generating large masses of oil palm wastes from pruning, replanting and milling activities (Awalludin et al., 2015; Loh, 2017).

The strategy of fermenting OPFL via the SSF technique may prove useful in maximising the usefulness of the biomass by harvesting their sugar components and for cultivation of beneficial fungi for their enzyme cocktail, as well as alleviating presence of surplus biomass in the environment. It is hypothesised that the use of fungal cellulase and xylanase may be a cleaner and more efficient means to degrade OPFL without contaminating the environment, as such enzymes catalyse more specifically than chemical processes (Souza, 2014). Moreover, the use of OPFL as the sole carbon source to cultivate novel fungal strains isolates to produce three cellulase enzymes (endoglucanase, exoglucanase, β-glucosidase) and xylanase under SSF is not available. This study also intends to develop an optimised protocol for the production of these enzymes using the abundantly generated OPFL waste, which could be employed in its cleanup at the oil palm plantations and the use of its basic sugar products for production of value-added products such as bioethanol and compost. Moreover, ultrasonication (acoustic bombardment) was chosen for the OPFL pretreatment as it is a cleaner method to increase the surface area of cellulose and xylan components in the cell wall. This was to allow effective binding and hydrolysis of the fungal cellulases and xylanases, thereby yielding a more effective degradation of the biomaterial into valuable sugar products.

### 1.3 Aim of Research

The research was aimed in using the cellulase and xylanase-producing fungal isolates for effective production of cellulase and xylanase using OPFL as a costeffective fermentative substrate and in turn be degraded to its basic sugar subunits.

#### **1.4 Research Objectives**

To achieve the aim the following objectives were set:

1. To isolate and identify cellulase and xylanase-producing fungi.

- 2. To optimise parameters for cellulase and xylanase production under SSF for *in situ* hydrolysis of OPFL.
- 3. To characterise the physicochemical properties of the two fungal enzyme cocktails produced under SSF.
- 4. To statistically optimise the production of cellulase and xylanase for the enzymatic saccharification of OPFL.

#### 1.5 Scopes of Study

Several strains of fungi were isolated from a decaying oil palm empty fruit bunch and qualitatively screened for efficient cellulase and xylanase production. Screening was carried out on carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC)-agar and xylan-agar plates. Two fungal strains were selected for further identification through morphological, molecular (18S rRNA sequencing) and biochemical methods (BIOLOG, Gen II), and was subsequently identified as *Trichoderma asperellum* UC1 and *Rhizopus oryzae* UC2. Production and extraction of cellulase and xylanase by the fungal strains using ground OPFL as substrate was done under SSF. This was followed by assay for endoglucanase (CMCase), exoglucanase (FPase),  $\beta$ -glucosidase and xylanase activity at 24 h interval over 7 days.

Next, chemical analysis of OPFL was done to establish the chemical composition of the major constituents of the plant. This was followed by optimisation of SSF parameters (fermentation temperature, pH, inoculum size, initial moisture content) for improved production of cellulase and xylanase using the one-variable-at-a-time (OVAT) method for the two isolates. Subsequently, *in situ* saccharification of raw OPFL under SSF was done using the two fungal strains *Trichoderma asperellum* UC1 and *Rhizopus oryzae* UC2, individually. The next step involved the determination of total reducing sugar and individual monosaccharide sugars using the 3, 5-dinitrosalicylic acid (DNS) and high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) methods.

The crude enzyme cocktails extracted from the SSF batches were then subjected to physicochemical characterisation of the enzymes of interest. The tests performed were to ascertain the effects of pH and temperature on enzyme stability and the effects of pH and temperature on activities of enzymes. Qualitative proteome analysis and determination of total soluble protein in the crude enzyme cocktails were undertaken using sodium dodecyl-sulphate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and Lowry-Folin method, respectively. Furthermore, composition and structural analysis of OPFL biomass before and after SSF using field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) was done to assess the morphological changes due to depolymerization of the structural components. This helped with the subsequent determination of hydrolysis efficiency of OPFL by the enzymes after *in situ* saccharification using both fungal isolates.

Finally, statistical optimisation of SSF parameters (fermentation temperature, pH, inoculum size, initial moisture content) to obtain polynomial models that could reliably predict the best SSF conditions was done. The response measured was for optimum activity of the fungal enzymes, and this part of the study aims to observe the effects of independent and dependent variables on the measured response. The Response surface methodology software was used in the optimisation work. Based on the initial findings, the statistical optimisation was done to specifically improve CMCase, FPase and xylanase production for strain *Trichoderma asperellum* UC1, while  $\beta$ -glucosidase activity was optimised for strain *Rhizopus oryzae* UC2 only. Afterwards, synergistic enzymatic hydrolysis of ultra-sonicated OPFL using crude enzyme cocktail mixture from strain UC1 and UC2 was undertaken. This was followed by assessment of hydrolysed total reducing sugar and individual monosaccharide sugars using the DNS and HPLC methods, respectively. Biotechnological applications of the crude enzymes produced by the isolated fungi in the clarification of fresh orange juice and in dough rising were determined.

## **1.6** Significance of Study

The SSF protocol developed in this study is a cleaner and more efficient means to remove OPFL wastes that are abundantly generated in all oil palm plantations in Malaysia. The strategy highlighted here can also complement existing strategies to utilise oil palm wastes at large. Most importantly, it offers a more sustainable way of sustaining a greener way of life while converting "Wastes into Wealth".

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