Bioconversion of ethanol from various sugars and cellulosic materials by brown rot fungus *Phaeolus schweinitzii*

Ki Nam Yoon¹, and Tae Soo Lee^{2*}

¹Department of Clinical Laboratory Science, Ansan University, 155 Ansan Dae-hak-ro, Sangrok-gu, Ansan 15328, Korea ²Division of Life Sciences, Incheon National University, (Songdo-dong) 119 Academy-ro, Yeonsu-gu, Incheon 22012, Korea

ABSTRACT: A novel brown rot fungus *Phaeolus schweinitzii* IUM 5048 was firstly used for ethanol production. It was found that this fungus produced ethanol with various sugars, such as glucose, mannose, galactose and cellobiose at 0.28, 0.22, 0.06, and 0.22 g of ethanol per g of sugar consumed, respectively. This fungus showed relatively good ethanol production from xylose at 0.23 g of ethanol per g of sugar consumed. However, the ethanol conversion rate of arabinose was relatively low (at 0.08 g of ethanol per g sugar). *P. schweinitzii* was capable of producing ethanol directly from rice straw and corn stalks at 0.11 g and 0.13 g of ethanol per g of substrates, respectively, when the fungus was cultured in a basal medium supplemented with 20 g/L rice straw or corn stalks. These results suggest that *P. schweinitzii* can hydrolyze cellulose or hemicellulose to fermentable sugars and convert them to ethanol simultaneously under oxygen limited condition.

KEYWORDS: Brown rot fungus, Cellulosic biomass, Ethanol, Phaeolus schweinitzii

Introduction

The increasing demand and shortage of energy supply has led to a worldwide interest to find alternative energy sources. Among them, bioethanol is considered as one of sustainable and renewable biofuel, which can replace the fossil fuel (Ho *et al.*, 2014). Bioethanol is a fuel source produced from lignocellulosic materials consisting of cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin originated from crop residues and un-used forest resources (Lin *et al.*, 2010). Production of bioethanol from cellulosic biomass requires physicochemical pretreatment such as diluted acid, alkali pretreatment, and steam to delignification and saccharification of cellulose and hemicellulose to liberate fermentable sugars (Nakamura *et*

J. Mushrooms 2022 March, 20(1):1-6 http://dx.doi.org/10.14480/JM.2022.20.1.1 Print ISSN 1738-0294, Online ISSN 2288-8853 © The Korean Society of Mushroom Science Ki Nam Yoon (Associate professor), Tae Soo Lee (Emeritus professor) *Corresponding author E-mail : tslee4827@hanmail.net Tel : +82-32-835-4617, Fax : +82-32-835-0763 Received February 28, 2022 Revised March 17, 2022

Accepted March 22, 2022

This is an Open-Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (http:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0) which permits unrestricted non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

al., 2001; Park and Kim, 2012; Jung *et al.*, 2013), however, these pretreatments may produce furfural, a strong inhibitor of ethanol fermentation (Brazdausks *et al.*, 2014).

Although enzymatic pretreatment is preferable because inhibitors are not generated during saccharification of lignocellulosic biomass, the cost of treatment is higher than any other processes (Sun and Cheng, 2002).

Recently, simultaneous saccharification and fermentation (SSF) process has been used for ethanol fermentation from lignocellulosic materials. The SSF process enables the two-step fermentation process of saccharification and ethanol fermentation to shift a one-step ethanol fermentation process in a single vessel. SSF is considered to be good process because it reduces the cost of ethanol fermentation. However, the efficiency of ethanol fermentation from lignocellulosic raw materials is relatively low because proper and effective microorganisms have not been found (Ohgren *et al.*, 2007).

Saccharomyces cerevisiae is one of the widely used yeast in brewing process. However, this microbe cannot ferment xylose, one abundant pentose component of hemicellulose (Chu and Lee, 2007). Therefore, it is necessary to develop microbes that can play multiple roles in delignification, saccharification, and ethanol fermentation from various sugars and lignocellulosic materials with high efficiency.

2 Ki Nam Yoon and Tae Soo Lee

Brown rot fungi belonging to basidiomycetes are capable of degrading cellulose, and hemicellulose. Several of them have potentials to produce ethanol directly from various sugars and lignocelluosic substances (Okamoto et al., 2011; Okamoto et al., 2012; Rasmussen et al., 2010). P. schweinitzii, a brown rot fungus, commonly known as velvet-top fungus or pine dye polypore is a plant pathogen that causes butt rot on spruce, pine, and larch and distributed worldwide (Park and Lee, 2011). In preliminary experiments, we screened brown rot fungi that produced ethanol from various sugars and lignocellulosic biomass. Among them, P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 strain exhibited relatively good ethanol production potential from monosaccharide, disaccharides, and lignocelluosic materials. In this study, we investigated the ability of P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 to produce ethanol from various sugars, including pentose, hexose, disaccharide, and lignocellulosic biomass such as rice straw and corn stalks.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Microorganism

Mycelia of *P. schweinitzii* IUM 5048 was isolated from fruiting body of old pine tree trunk in Deokyusan National Park, Mujoo-gun District, Korea (Fig. 1). The fungal culture was incubated on potato dextrose agar (PDA) medium (Difco, Detroit, MI, USA) at 25°C and preserved at 4°C until use. The mycelial culture of *P. schweinitzii* IUM 5048 strain was deposited in "Culture Collection of Mushrooms" at Division of Life Sciences, Incheon National University.

Verification of the fungal strain

P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 was identified by characteristics of fruiting body morphology and sequencing



Fig. 1. Fruiting body of *Phaeolus schweinitzii* used in this study.

ITS-5.8S region of ribosomal DNA. Primers ITS 1 (5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3') and ITS-4 (5'-GGAA-GTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGG-3') were used to amplify ITS and 5.8S rDNA region (White *et al.*, 1990). Amplified ITS and 5.5S sequences of rDNA were searched against NCBI database using BLAST program (http://www. ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST). The sequences of *P. schweinitzii* IUM 5048 shared 95% similarities with other *P. schweinitzii* deposited at GenBank with accession number of FJ608591 and LN714583, respectively. Based on morphology of fruiting body and phylogenetic analysis of ITS region sequence of rDNA, *P. schweinitzii* IUM 5048 was verified as *P. schweinitzii*. The ITS region nucleotide sequence of *P. schweinitzii* IUM 5048 was deposited at GenBank with accession number of KU350753.

Ethanol production from various sugars

Basal medium (pH 6.0) containing 20 g/L sugar source, 10 g/L yeast extract, 10 g/L KH2PO4, 2 g/L (NH4)2SO4, and 0.5 g/L MgSO₄·7H₂O was prepared as described previously (Okamura et al., 2001). Glucose, mannose, galactose, xylose, arabinose, and cellobiose were used for ethanol production tests. Liquid media without sugar was first autoclaved at 121°C for 15 min. After autoclave, each sugar was sterilized by filtration using 0.45-µm membrane filter and added to the basal medium. Five discs of 0.5-cm² mycelia taken from PDA plates cultured at 25°C for 7 days were then transferred to an Erlenmeyer flask (125 mL) containing 50 mL of the basal medium. Each flask was cultured statically at 28°C under oxygen limited condition up to 240 h. The oxygen limited condition was prepared by sealing the flask tightly with parafilm.

Ethanol production from lignocellulosic materials

Rice straw and corn stalks were obtained from agricultural field of Ganghwa Island, Incheon, Korea. They were dried at 45°C for 48 h and finely pulverized. One gram of powder from wheat straw or corn stalks was added to flasks containing 50 mL of basal medium. These flasks were autoclaved at 121°C for 60 min. Mycelial disc inoculation and ethanol fermentation process were then conducted as described above.

Analytical procedures

The cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin components of rice straw and corn stalks were analyzed using method of Sluiter *et al.* (2008). Total amount of reducing sugars

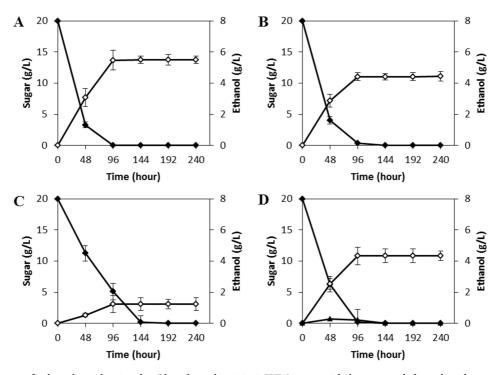


Fig. 2. Time course of ethanol production by *Phaeolus schweinitzii* IUM 5048 with hexose and disaccharide sugars. The mycelia were cultured in basal medium with 20 g/L glucose (A), mannose (B), galactose (C), and cellobiose (D) under oxygen limited condition. Symbols represent various sugars (filled diamond), ethanol (open diamond) and glucose (filled triangle). Values are means \pm standard deviation (error bars) of three independent experiments.

released from rice straw and corn stalks after incubation with P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 were determined using dinitrosalicylic acid (DNS) method (Miller, 1959). Supernatants from ethanol fermenting media (1 mL) were collected at every 48 h interval, centrifuged at 15,000 × g for 10 min and filtered with a 0.22-µm membrane filter. Concentrations of ethanol and various monosaccharides in the ethanol fermenting liquid media were determined with high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC, Agilent 1200 system; Agilent Technologies, USA) using a refractive index detector and a Shodex KS-801 column. HPLC was operated at 80°C with deionized distilled water as the mobile phase at a flow rate of 0.6 mL/min and an injection volume of 20 µL. Concentrations of ethanol and reducing sugars were calculated using calibration curve obtained from standard solution curve. The percentage of theoretical ethanol yield per g of sugar was determined by dividing the actual ethanol yield per 1 g of sugar consumed. The theoretical ethanol yield of glucose, mannose, galactose, xylose, and arabinose was 0.511 g of ethanol per g of sugar and that of cellobiose was 0.538 g ethanol per g of sugar consumed (Kudahettige et al., 2012).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Ethanol production from hexose and disaccharide sugars

To determine the ethanol production efficiency of P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 on hexose sugars, glucose, mannose, and galactose were tested as substrates. Hexose consumption and ethanol production by P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 during fermentation period are shown in Fig. 2. The highest ethanol concentration was observed at up to 192 h after incubation and all hexose sugars in the media were consumed completely. The best hexose sugar that was converted to ethanol was glucose with 5.5 g/L of ethanol from 20 g/L, corresponding to ethanol yield of 0.28 g per g of hexose sugar or theoretical ethanol yield of 53.8% (Fig. 2A). Generally, the theoretical converting efficiency of glucose through fermentation by filamentous fungi such as Aspergillus foetidus, A. awamori, A. oryzae, A. sojae, Fusarium verticilloides, and Rhizopus javanicus is from 2 to 99.4% (Skory, et al., 1997; de Almeida et al., 2013), suggesting that efficiency of ethanol production from P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 fungus was moderately efficient. For the fermentation from mannose, the maximum ethanol concentration was 4.45 g/L, which

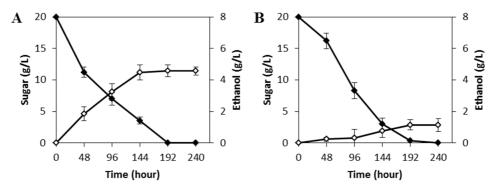


Fig. 3. Time course of ethanol production by *Phaeolus schweinitzii* IUM 5048 with pentose monosaccharide. The mycelia were cultured in basal medium with 20 g/L xylose (A), and arabinose (B) under oxygen limited condition. Symbols represent various sugars (filled diamond) and ethanol (open diamond). Values are means \pm standard deviation (error bars) of three independent experiments.

corresponded to 0.22 g of ethanol per g of hexose or 43.5% of theoretical ethanol yield (Fig. 2B). Although P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 utilized galactose completely within 192 h of the fermentation period, the efficiency of fermentation was very low (0.06 g ethanol per g of sugar or 11.7% of theoretical ethanol yield) (Fig. 2C). Disaccharide cellobiose is composed of two molecules of β-glucose. It can be obtained from acidic or enzymatic hydrolysis of cellulose. To investigate the fermentation ability of P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 on cellobiose, the fungus was incubated in the media supplemented with 20 g/L of cellobiose. Cellobiose concentration in the medium was decreased gradually while ethanol concentration was increased progressively after 48 h of incubation period. The maximum ethanol concentration was observed at 192 h after incubation at 0.22 g of ethanol per g of cellobiose, corresponding to 40.9% of theoretical ethanol yield (Fig. 2D). There was only negligible amount of glucose detected during fermentation period as decomposed glucose from cellobiose converted to ethanol by the fungus immediately. These results indicated that ethanol production from cellobiose by the fungus occurred by hydrolysis of cellobiose to glucose and simultaneous conversion of glucose to ethanol. Taken together, these results suggested this fungus has ethanol fermentation ability using a broad range of sugars such as hexose sugars, and disaccharide.

Ethanol production from pentose sugars

Pentose sugars including xylose and arabinose are abundant components of hemicellulose derived from grasses and woody biomass (Puls and Schuseil, 1993). Some brown rot, white rot fungi, and yeasts such as *Gloeophyllum trabeum*, *Flammulina velutipes*, *Candida* shehatae, and Pichia stipitis are capable of converting xylose to ethanol efficiently (Rasmussen et al., 2010; Mizuno et al., 2009; Sanchez et al., 2002). In this study, mycelia of P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 were cultured in 20 g/L of xylose. This fungus consumed xylose completely within 192 h of incubation period, with the highest ethanol content at 4.57 g/L (0.23 g of ethanol per g of xylose consumed or theoretical ethanol yield of 44.7%, Fig. 3A). P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 tended to ferment xylose efficiently under oxygen limited condition. This result was better than those of ethanol production from xylose by white rot fungi including Hohenbuehelia sp. ZW-16 (14.7% theoretical ethanol yield), Peniophora cinerea (17.6%), or Trametes suaveolens (11.4%) (Liang et al., 2013; Okamoto et al., 2010), indicating that P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 may have good ethanol fermenting potential from one component of hemicellulose. On the other hand, arabinose was consumed completely by P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 within 192 h of incubation period, the maximum concentration of ethanol produced from 20 g/L arabinose was 1.57 g/L, which was a very poor ethanol yield (0.08 g of ethanol per g of arabinose with theoretical ethanol yield of 15.4%, Fig. 3B). In contrast, when white rot fungus Phlebia sp. MG-60 was incubated in arabinose containing liquid medium up to 120 h, only a small amount of arabinose was consumed and ethanol production was not observed (Kamei et al., 2012). The result suggested that this white rot fungus almost could not assimilate and convert arabinose to ethanol effectively.

Ethanol production from lignocellulosic materials

To investigate the fermentation potential of *P*. *schweinitzii* IUM 5048 on lignocelluosic materials, the

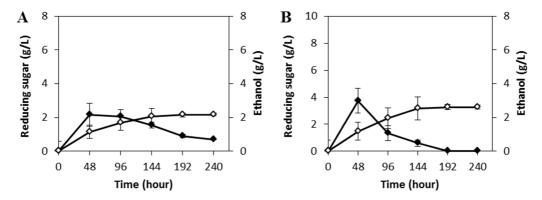


Fig. 4. Time course of ethanol production by *Phaeolus schweinitzii* IUM 5048 with lignocelluosic biomass. The mycelia were cultured in basal medium with 20 g/L rice straw (A), and corn stalks (B) under oxygen limited condition. Symbols represent reducing sugars (filled diamond) and ethanol (open diamond). Values are means \pm standard deviation (error bars) of three independent experiments.

mycelia was inoculated in the medium supplemented with powder of wheat straw or corn stalks. The compositions of rice straw and corn stalks used in this experiment were analyzed. Rice straw were composed of 32.82% of cellulose, 26.13% of hemicellulose, 16.45% of lignin, 14.21% of ash, and 10.39% of other substances. Corn stalks were composed of 33.91% of cellulose, 29.65% of hemicellulose, 19.83% of lignin, 7.25% of ash, and 11.36% of other substances based on dry weight. When P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 was cultured in 20 g/L of rice straw, reducing sugars and ethanol were first detected at 48 h after incubation (2.15 g/L of reducing sugars and 1.15 g/L of ethanol). The highest ethanol concentration of 2.17 g/L was observed up to 144 h of fermentation period (theoretical ethanol yield of 34.0%, Fig. 4A). The concentration of reducing sugar in the media was decreased steadily as the concentration of ethanol in the medium was increased gradually during the fermentation period, indicating that the reducing sugars liberated from the rice straw were converted to ethanol by the fungus simultaneously. With similar experiment, white rot fungus Trametes hirsuta were used for direct ethanol production from rice straw. The ethanol yield was 0.15 g ethanol per g rice straw, which was lower that of rice straw in this study (Okamoto et al., 2011).

When *P. schweinitzii* IUM 5048 was cultured with 20 g/L of corn stalks, reducing sugars (1.95 g/L) and ethanol (2.12 g/L) released into the medium were also first detected after 48 h of incubation. The maximum ethanol concentration of 2.64 g/L was observed at 192 h after incubation (Fig. 4B). Even though the concentration of reducing sugar in corn stalks medium was decreased when the time of ethanol fermentation was proceeded, ethanol concentration was

increased gradually up to 192 h of incubation as the liberated reducing sugars from corn stalks were consumed by the fungus rapidly for ethanol fermentation. This fungus showed higher ethanol conversion rate from corn stalks (2.64 g/L) than that from rice straw (2.17 g/L). The higher ethanol concentration from corn stalks might be due to total percentage of cellulose and hemicellulose contents in the corn stalks (63.56%) was higher than that in the rice straw (58.95%). When brown rot fungus Neolentinus lepideus was incubated in a medium containing 20 g/L of lignocellulosic materials such as birch wood xylan and wheat bran, ethanol concentrations were 1.7 g/L and 2.8 g/L, respectively (Okamoto et al., 2012), which were similar to those of ethanol concentrations from corn stalks or rice straw observed in this study. Therefore, P. schweinitzii IUM 5048 appears to be a good candidate for ethanol production directly from lignocellulosic biomass.

In conclusion, brown rot fungus *P. schweinitzii* IUM 5048 was used to produce ethanol from various sugars and cellulosic materials for the first time. It was found that *P. schweinitzii* IUM 5048 could assimilate various carbon sources and produce ethanol effectively from glucose, mannose, xylose, and cellobiose, the main components of cellulose and hemicellulose. *P. schweinitzii* IUM 5048 also convert rice straw and corn stalks directly to ethanol, indicating that brown rot fungal strain *P. schweinitzii* IUM 5048 has a potential for producing ethanol directly from natural lignocellulosic biomass through SSF.

REFERENCES

Brazdausks P, Puke M, Vedernikovs N, Kruma I. 2014. The effect of catalyst amount on the production of furfural and **6** Ki Nam Yoon and Tae Soo Lee

acetic acid from birch wood in the biomass pretreatment process. *Baltic Forestry* 20: 106-114.

- Chu BCH, Lee H. 2007. Genetic improvement of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* for xylose fermentation. *Biotechnol Advan* 25: 425-441.
- de Almeida MN, Guimaraes VM, Falkoski DL, Visser EM, Siqueira GA, Milagres AMF, de Rezendea ST. 2013. Direct ethanol production from glucose, xylose and sugarcane bagasse by the corn endophytic fungi *Fusarium verticillioides* and *Acremonium zeae*. *J Biotechnol* 168: 71-77.
- Ho DP, Ngo HH, Guo W. 2014. A mini review on renewable sources for biofuel. *Bioresour Technol* 169: 742-749.
- Jung YH, Kim IJ, Kim HK, Kim KH. 2013. Dilute acid pretreatment of lignocellulose for whole slurry ethanol fermentation. *Bioresour Technol* 132: 109-114.
- Kamei I, Hirota Y, Mori T, Hirai H, Meguro S, Kondo R. 2012. Direct ethanol production from cellulosic materials by the hypersaline-tolerant white-rot fungus *Phlebia* sp. MG-60. *Bioresour Technol* 112: 137-142.
- Kudahettige RL, Holmgren M, Imerzeel P, Sellstedt A. 2012. Characterization of bioethanol production from hexoses and xylose by the white rot fungus *Trametes versicolor. Bioenerg Res* 5: 277-285.
- Liang XH, Hua DL. Wang ZX, Zhang J, Zhao YX, Xu HP, Li Y, Gao MT, Zhang XD. 2013. Production of bioethanol using lignocellulosic hydrolysate by the white rot fungus *Hohenbuehelia* sp. ZW-16. *Ann Microbiol* 63: 719-723.
- Lin CW, Tran DT, Lai CY, I CY, Wu CH. 2010. Response surface optimization for ethanol production from *Pennisetum alopecoider* by *Klebsiella oxytoca* THLC0409. *Biomass Bioener* 34: 1922-1929.
- Miller GL. 1959. Use of dinitrosalicylic acid reagent for determination of reducing sugar. *Anal Chem* 31: 426-428.
- Mizuno R, Ichinose H, Maehara T, Takabatake K, Kaneko S. 2009. Properties of ethanol fermentation by *Flammulina velutipes*. *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem* 73: 2240-2245.
- Nakamura Y, Sawada T, Inoue E. 2001. Enhanced ethanol production from enzymatically treated steam-exploded rice straw using extractive fermentation. *J Chem Technol Biotechnol* 76: 879-884.
- Ohgren K, Bura R, Lesnicki G, Saddler J, Zacchi G. 2007. A comparison between simultaneous saccharification and fermentation and separate hydrolysis and fermentation using steam-pretreated corn stover. *Process Biochem* 42: 834-839.
- Okamura T, Ogata T, Minamimoto N, Takeno T, Noda H, Fukuda S, Ohsugi M. 2001. Characteristics of wine produced by mushroom fermentation. *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem* 65: 1596-1600.

- Okamoto K, Imashiro K, Akizawa, Y, Onimura A, Yoneda M, Nitta Y, Maekawa N, Yanase H. 2010. Production of ethanol by the white-rot basidiomycetes *Peniophora cinerea* and *Trametes suaveolens*. *Biotechnol Lett* 32: 909-913.
- Okamoto K, Kanawaku R, Masumoto M, Yanase H. 2012. Efficient xylose fermentation by the brown rot fungus *Neolentinus lepideus. Enzyme Micro Technol* 50: 96-100.
- Okamoto K, Nitta Y, Maekawa N, Yanase H. 2011. Direct ethanol production from starch, wheat bran and rice straw by the white rot fungus *Trametes hirsuta*. *Enzyme Micro Technol* 48: 273-277.
- Okamoto K, Sugita Y, Nishikori N, Nitta Y, Yanase H. 2011. Characterization of two acidic β-glucosidases and ethanol fermentation in the brown rot fungus *Fomitopsis palustris*. *Enzyme Micro Technol* 48: 359-364.
- Park YC, Kim JS. 2012. Comparison of various alkaline pretreatment methods of lignocellulosic biomass. *Energy* 47: 31-35.
- Park WH, Lee JH.2011. New wild fungi of Korea. Kyohak Publishing Co, Ltd, Seoul, Korea. p. 312.
- Puls J, Schuseil J. 1993. Chemistry of hemicellulose: Relationship between hemicellulose structure and enzymes required for hydrolysis; Coughlan MP, Hazlewood GP. Eds; Portland Press: London, p. 1-27.
- Rasmussen ML, Shrestha P, Khanal SK, Pometto AL III, (Hans) van Leeuwen J. 2010. Sequential saccharification of corn fiber and ethanol production by the brown rot fungus *Gloeophyllum trabeum*. *Bioresour Technol* 101: 3526-3533.
- Sanchez S, Bravo V, Castro E, Moya AJ, Camacho F. 2002. The fermentation of mixtures of D-glucose and D-xylose by *Candida shehatae*, *Pichia stipitis* and *Pachysolen tannophilus* to produce ethanol. *J Chem Technol Biotechnol* 77: 641-648.
- Skory C, Freer SN, Bothast RJ. 1997. Screening for ethanolproducing filamentous fungi. *Biotechnol Lett* 19: 203-206.
- Sluiter A, Hames B, Ruiz R, Scarlata C, Sluiter J, Templeton D, Crocker D. 2008. Determination of structural carbohydrates and lignin in biomass. Laboratory Analytical Procedure. National Renewable Energy Laboratory, Golden Co, USA. http://www.nrel.gov/ biomass/analytical procedure.html.
- Sun Y, Cheng JY. 2002. Hydrolysis of lignocellulosic materials for ethanol production: a review. *Bioresour Technol* 83: 1-11.
- White TJ, Bruns T, Lee S, Taylor J. 1990. Amplification and direct sequencing of ribosomal RNA genes for phylogentics. In: Innis MA, Gelfand DH, Sniski JJ, White TJ, editors. PCR protocols: a guide to methods and applications. San Diego (CA): Academic Press, p. 315-322.